KOTESOL Proceedings 2011

Pushing our Paradigms; Connecting with Culture

Proceedings of the 19th Annual KOTESOL International Conference
Seoul, Korea, October 15-16, 2011
Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
(Korea TESOL / KOTESOL)

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Foreword

The 19th Annual Korea TESOL International Conference was held at Sookmyung Women's University on October 15 and 16, 2011. Nearly 1,300 international and Korea-based attendees gathered in Seoul, Korea, for a weekend of teacher development under the conference theme of ***Pushing our Paradigms; Connecting with Culture***. The two-day Conference offered plenary sessions by Stephen Krashen, B. Kumaravadivelu, and Keith Folse, as well as eight featured speaker sessions by Ken Beatty, Robert Dickey, Gavin Dudeney, Thomas Farrell, Nicholas Groom, Muna Morris-Adams, Chuck Sandy, and Setsuko Toyama. In addition, the Conference included 225 concurrent sessions of various formats, including research paper presentations, workshops, and colloquia.

We are pleased to present, in this volume, papers by two of our plenary speakers, Stephen Krashen, writing about extended reading, and Keith Folse, writing about three grammar nightmares. In addition, Gavin Dudeney, one of our outstanding featured speakers at the 2011 International Conference, writes on digital literacies and the language classroom.

In this volume you will also find papers from 28 other presenters at the 2011 International Conference, writing on themes related to teaching styles and teaching methods, learning styles, assessment, culture, identity, course design, teacher development, and IT in the language learning classroom.

It is our pleasure to present to you this volume of *KOTESOL Proceedings 2011.* We would like to thank the authors of the papers collected here for their cooperation and patience with the editing process, and of course, for making their contributions to this volume. We hope that you will enjoy reading the papers in this publication in your own pursuit of professional excellence.

Maria Pinto
David Shaffer
Editors-in-Chief
KOTESOL Proceedings 2011

KOTESOL Proceedings 2011

Pushing our Paradigms; Connecting with Culture

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Seeking a Justification for Skill-Building

Stephen Krashen
University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California, USA

Skill-Building, the idea that we acquire language by first learning rules (or discovering them) and then practicing them in output, is the basis for pedagogy in most language classrooms throughout the world. Several kinds of evidence, however, show that Skill-Building at best plays only a small and peripheral role: we can acquire language without it, the means needed for Skill-Building (output, correction) are scarce, and the rules to be learned are very complex.

I review here some of the evidence showing the severe limits of the Skill-Building Hypothesis, a hypothesis based on conscious learning. First, some definitions.

COMPREHENSION AND SKILL-BUILDING

Current theory distinguishes two very different ways of developing ability in another language:

The Comprehension Hypothesis says that we acquire (not learn) language when we understand messages, oral and written. When we develop linguistic competence in this way, our goal is usually not to acquire language but to understand the message. The development of language competence is a by-product.

The Skill-Building Hypothesis says that we first learn rules consciously and then practice them in output until they become "automatic": In other words, consciously learned knowledge becomes "acquired" knowledge. When we develop linguistic competence in this way, our goal is to get better at the language. Any other information we pick up along the way is a by-product.

Forms of Skill-Building

The *deductive-inductive* distinction refers only to the Skill-Building Hypothesis.

Deductive learning (not acquisition) occurs when the learner (not acquirer) is given the rule by a teacher or learns about it through reading a grammar, and the learner then practices the rule in output. The terms "direct teaching" and "explicit teaching" generally apply to deductive learning.

Inductive learning happens when the learner (not acquirer) discovers the rule. This can happen when the learner says or writes something and makes a mistake, which is corrected. The learner then changes his or her version of his conscious rule. This is termed *output plus correction*. It can also happen when the learner says something, but his or her conversational partner fails to understand. The learner then changes his version of the rule and tries again, and eventually arrives at the correct version of the rule. This is referred to as *comprehensible output*.

We move now to some of the evidence showing the severe limits of the Skill-Building Hypothesis, evidence that also provides support for the Comprehension Hypothesis.

ACQUISITION WITHOUT LEARNING

Showing that we can develop high levels of competence in language (first or second) without any form of conscious learning shows that Skill-Building is not necessary, and is even a problem for the claim that Skill-Building makes a significant contribution to language development. It is likely that nearly all language development that members of the human race have experienced were cases of acquisition without learning, depending only on comprehensible input.

In previous publications, I have presented evidence that grammar, vocabulary, spelling, phonemic awareness, phonics, and knowledge of text structure can be acquired and improved without explicit instruction or skill-building of any kind, as well as evidence that the source of competence in these areas is aural and written comprehensible input, with, of course, spelling, phonemic awareness, phonics, and text structure coming from reading (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1985, 1989, 2002, 2003, 2010; Krashen & Hastings, 2011).

In Krashen (2007), I described the case of Armando, an immigrant to the US from Mexico who worked in an Israeli restaurant in Los Angeles. Armando not only acquired English, but also acquired Hebrew, the language used in the restaurant. Armando was not particularly interested in going to Israel or becoming Jewish; his acquisition of Hebrew was a result of his friendly relationship with the family who owned the restaurant and the customers. Native speakers who heard a recording of Armando in conversation rated his Hebrew as at least very good; one judge thought Armando was a native speaker of Hebrew. Armando told me that he had never studied Hebrew grammar, did not think about grammatical rules when using Hebrew, and received correction only on vocabulary.

Mason (2006) demonstrated that students can improve substantially on the TOEFL examination via pleasure reading alone. In her study, six adult second language acquirers in Japan agreed to engage in a recreational reading program to prepare for the TOEFL. Each chose somewhat different reading material according to their own interests, and they read for different lengths of time, between one to four months, and took alternate forms of the TOEFL test before and after doing the reading. The average gain was 3.5 points per week on the overall test, and improvement was seen on all three components, listening (2.2 points), grammar (3.6 points), and reading (4.6 points). This gain is about the same as one sees with a full time TOEFL preparation class given in the United States and is consistent with studies showing that reading is an excellent predictor of TOEFL performance (Gradman & Hanania, 1991; Constantino, Lee, Cho, & Krashen, 1997).

SCARCITY

As noted earlier, inductive versions of the Skill-Building Hypothesis involve output: output plus correction and comprehensible output. For these mechanisms to make any significant contribution to language development, output, correction, and comprehensible output must exist in sufficient quantity. But they don't.

My review of the frequency of writing in school and outside of school (Krashen, 1994) confirmed Frank Smith's statement: ". . . no one writes enough to learn more than a small part of what writers need to know" (Smith, 1988, p. 19), and I also concluded that correction and oral output were too scarce to make a significant contribution to language or literacy development.

The data on the frequency of comprehensible output shows that it is surprisingly infrequent (Krashen, 1998, 2003). Acquirers don't talk all that much, compared to how much they hear, and when they do talk, they do not often make the kind of adjustments the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis claims are useful in acquiring new forms.

In some studies, language acquirers produced as little as one instance of comprehensible output per hour of interaction (Pica, 1988; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Comprehensible output is more frequent when the situation is set up to encourage it, but is still infrequent, ranging from two a minute (Shehadeh, 2002) to one every five minutes (Van den Branden, 1997). Even if comprehensible output were more frequent in these studies, it would be of limited value if it is only produced in contrived situations.

COMPLEXITY

The complexity argument presents a serious problem for any rival hypothesis that insists on the necessity of consciously learning rules of language or writing. It therefore applies to all versions of the Skill-Building Hypothesis. The most obvious example is grammar. Anyone who has studied linguistics knows that decades of intensive labor have been invested in coming up with an accurate description of English, the most described language, but the results are extremely complicated and the job is far from done.

As has been documented elsewhere (Krashen, 1989), there are too many vocabulary items to be learned one at time. Nation (2006) has estimated that native speakers of English know about 20,000 word families, and that highly educated non-native speakers of English as a second language know 8000 to 9000 word families. This cannot be the result of 20,000 trips to the dictionary or 20,000 flash cards. In addition, there are also subtle and complex properties of words that competent users have acquired, as well as grammatical properties

The rules of phonics are often extremely complicated and many do not work very well (Smith, 2011; Krashen, 2002), and this is also the case for English spelling (Krashen, 1989, 2004).

The many published studies of the structure of texts provide clear evidence that text structure cannot be taught directly. The structure of texts is bewilderingly complex. The descriptions of text structure in journal papers aimed at teachers and materials creators are very difficult to understand. It is hard to imagine any student mastering this knowledge consciously.

Readers are invited to see for themselves, e.g., Swales' (1990) discussion of introductions to research articles as well as the different methods writers use to cite previous research. Swales' (1990) book is a revision of Swales (1981), which means that the structure of introductions of research articles is a developing area of research where many issues are not settled. It is thus highly likely that we are providing students with incomplete descriptions. Clearly, many people have managed to acquire the structure of research articles without the benefit of accurate descriptions.

Other scholars have contributed equally complex and confusing descriptions of text structure, recommending that we teach these descriptions to students (for more, see Schleppegrell, Achugar, & Oteiza, 2004).

WHEN CONSCIOUS LEARNING SEEMS TO WORK

Supporters of Conscious Learning as the central path to language proficiency have claimed that conscious learning works, and at times, insist that it is more powerful than subconscious language acquisition.

When conscious learning seems to work, one or more of the following conditions is present:

1. The conditions for Monitor are met: focus on form, know the rule, enough time to access consciously learned rules. Even when the conditions are met, the results in favor of conscious learning are very modest.
2. Conscious learning has been compared to doing nothing, or to another form of skill-building.
3. A close look reveals the presence of a considerable amount of comprehensible input.

Master (1994) is a good example of both (1) and (2): His subjects were university-level ESL students in the US who had six hours of instruction on the article. All were already fairly advanced, and undoubtedly had previous instruction on the article in previous EFL or ESL classes. Also, as international students in the US, we can be confident that these students were used to grammar study, expected it, and were at least fairly good at it. If the English article is teachable, this study should show it. But subjects showed only small gains on a grammar test that focused on the article. In addition, the comparison students had traditional instruction, which may or may not have included some work on the article. The intensive article instruction was, in other words, compared to doing practically nothing.

Master's results and interpretations are not unique. Studies of this kind typically compare a healthy dose of grammar teaching to doing nothing or to a very weak form of comprehensible input and find very small differences on tests that encourage the use of grammar. Also, in nearly all studies adequate time is provided for the application of rules. And all of the studies claim victory for grammar study.

Studies claiming to show that direct teaching of text structure is effective compare direct teaching of text structure to "word study and dictionary use" (Spiegel & Fitzgerald, 1986), and "directed reading activities," described as a reading task followed by comprehension questions (Reutzel, 1985; Greenewald & Rossing, 1986). In other words, the comparison was between teaching text structure and not teaching text structure.

When comparison students engage in real language use, the results are different: In Purcell-Gates, Duke, & Martineau (2007), one group of second-graders received ordinary science instruction, without explicit mention of text structure. A second group had direct instruction on the structure of both informational and procedural science texts. The research team reported that the amount of explicit teaching going on in all classes was not a significant predictor of gains in reading or writing science-oriented texts over a two-year period, but the quantity of "authentic reading and writing activities" taking place was. Unfortunately, Purcell-Gates et al. did not investigate the specific contribution of reading, but their results are consistent with the hypothesis that reading is the source of children's knowledge of text structure.

Their overall conclusion was: " . . . for second and third graders, growth in the ability to comprehend and write science informational texts and procedural texts is not enhanced by the explicit teaching of linguistic features specific to those genres as implemented in this study" (p. 41).

In several previous publications, I discussed the claim that the archeologist Heinrich Schliemann mastered English in 6 months through study alone (Krashen, 1991). A closer look revealed that Schliemann had exposure to a substantial amount of comprehensible input in English, both oral and written, including a daily English lesson, reading out loud "for extended periods of time," and attending two English church services on Sundays. He also (believe it or not) memorized Vicar of Wakefield and Ivanhoe!

What It Takes to Be an Expert Grammar User: David Tammet

The case of Daniel Tammet became well known after a documentary, *Brainman*, was made. It has been shown world-wide since May, 2005. Tammet suffers from savant syndrome, a form of autism characterized by "an obsessive need to order and routine" (Tammet, 2006) and in his case, and extraordinary ability to deal with numbers. The documentary featured his linguistic abilities: After ten days of study of Icelandic, Tammet was able to converse in the language with two native speakers for 15 minutes. Tammet now knows ten languages.

Much of his ability in language acquisition is, without question, really a profound ability in language learning, not acquisition: Tammet has an incredible memory. He holds the European and British record for memorizing pi, at 22,514 digits. (This is, incidentally, sixth in the world. The world record is held by Chao Lu, 67,890; see http://www.pi-world-ranking-list.com).

It is clear, however, that he uses both learning and acquisition: While studying Lithuanian, while working as an English teacher in Lithuania, he worked with a teacher: "I wrote words down as I learned them to help me visualize and remember them" (conscious learning) and read children's books . . . (acquisition)" (p. 134). (Parenthetical notes added by SK.)

When he started working on Icelandic, he read texts aloud so his teacher could check his pronunciation (conscious learning), but he also stated that "the large amount of reading helped me to develop an intuitive sense of the language's grammar (acquisition)" (pp. 208-209).

"When I'm learning a language there are a number of things that I consider essential materials to begin with. The first is a good-size dictionary (conscious learning). I also need a variety of texts in the language, such as children's books, stories and newspaper articles, because I prefer to learn words within whole sentences to help give me a feeling for how the language works (acquisition)" (p. 161).

Tammet has set up a website, selling lessons in beginning and intermediate Spanish and French (http://www.optimnem.co.uk). An inspection of the syllabi, available without charge, reveals that the focus of each lesson is a point of grammar.

Before we conclude from this case that the best approach is a combination of acquisition and learning, we have to remember that Daniel Tammet has memorized pi to 22,514 digits. A safer conclusion is that conscious learning works well for those with the prodigious mental powers of Daniel Tammet.

CONCLUSION

At one time, the field of language education was based on the Skill-Building Hypothesis. The evidence presented here and elsewhere, however, shows that Skill-Building cannot be the means by which humans acquire language, and there is doubt that Skill-Building plays more than a minor peripheral role in language use. Nevertheless, Skill-Building remains an assumption for many language classes and materials. My hope is that consideration of the evidence will at least reduce Skill Building from the level of axiom to the level of hypothesis.

THE AUTHOR

Stephen Krashen *is Emeritus Professor of Education at the University of Southern California. He is best known for developing the first comprehensive theory of second language acquisition, introducing the concept of sheltered subject matter teaching, and as the co-inventor of the Natural Approach to foreign language teaching. He has also contributed to theory and application in the area of bilingual education, and has done important work in the area of reading. He holds a PhD in Linguistics from UCLA, was the 1977 Incline Bench Press champion of Venice Beach, and holds a black belt in Tae Kwon Do.*

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Grammar Nightmares: The 3 P's

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All languages have components that are extremely difficult for non-native speakers to acquire. For example, second language (L2) learners of Japanese have trouble with its three writing systems, learners of Spanish are puzzled by the gender of nouns, and learners of Korean have difficulty with its elaborate system of honorifics. English, too, has its own set of difficult areas for non-native speakers attempting to learn it. English grammar may seem to have many tricky aspects, so what would the top grammar nightmares for English language learners (ELLs) be? In this paper, we consider why the top honors should go to three grammatical areas that begin with the letter *p*, namely the *present perfect tense*, *phrasal verbs*, and *prepositions*. Using contrastive analysis as well as error analysis of student work in English, we will see why these three categories merit this infamous award.

INTRODUCTION

All languages have grammatical aspects that can be extremely difficult for non-native speakers to acquire. For example, second language (L2) learners of Japanese may have trouble learning postpositions instead of prepositions, learners of Spanish are puzzled by the gender of nouns, and learners of Korean have difficulty with its elaborate system of honorifics.

English, too, has its own set of difficult areas for non-native speakers attempting to learn it, and English language learners (ELLs) quickly recognize some of these problematic areas. They wonder why we say *a house* but *an hour*, and why we say *want to go* but not *enjoy to go* or *should to go*. They wonder why we negate *is* with *not*, as in *it is not raining*, but we negate most verbs with a form of *do*, as in *it does not rain*.

When I first started teaching ESL more than three decades ago, I was a native speaker with some TESOL training and foreign language study. Although I had no professional training in teaching ESL grammar, I was given two grammar courses in the intensive English program where I was teaching. I prepared my lessons carefully, but students often asked me questions that were not within the scope of my main lesson. Although it is certainly possible for a teacher to simply ignore those questions, to me, these student-generated questions represent the proverbial and highly desired teachable moments, moments when the students have enough interest in the subject matter to ask a real question.

I refer to these on-the-spot student queries as "hot-seat questions" because the teacher is in the proverbial hot seat in front of the whole class. In fact, in *Keys to Teaching Grammar to English Language Learners* (Folse, 2009), I have an entire chapter filled with examples of nothing but hot-seat questions. In my experience, the same or very similar questions tend to pop up, so teachers can gain valuable teaching knowledge if they study the hot-seat questions and answers in this book.

I have to admit here that when my ELLs first asked these impromptu questions in my early teaching days, I did not know the answer to their questions. Worse, I did not even understand why they were asking that question. "Teacher, why do you say *how many books* but *how much information*?" When I was confronted with this query, I remember thinking something like "How can anyone confuse *how many* with *how much*? They are completely different words." In reality, however, they are the same word but with a distinction according to whether you can count the item (*1 book*, *8 books*) or not (*some information*). In my early days of ESL grammar ignorance, I was not an effective teacher because I simply did not know enough about ESL grammar.

NATIVE SPEAKER VS. NON-NATIVE SPEAKER GRAMMAR

If you are a non-native speaker (NNS) of English, then you know what some of the more difficult areas of grammar are for ELLs. However, native speakers of any language usually have no real grasp of second language grammar because they associate grammar with the grammar they were taught in school as a native speaker (NS). This situation is not limited to NSs of English. In my experience learning Spanish and Japanese, I remember many times asking NSs of those languages a question about something in my Spanish or Japanese textbook, only to be met by blank stares or looks of confusion.

Native speaker grammar is not at all the same as the grammar that second language learners need. NNS grammar teaches you how to express an idea in the target language, while NS grammar focuses on what not to do. In other words, the goal of most NS grammar is to help you avoid common mistakes made by native speakers, with the mistakes often being associated with less-educated or less-affluent backgrounds. In English, for example, native speakers are taught rules such as "Don't say *ain't*" and "Don't use a past participle for the past tense, as in *I seen it*." The common denominator in most areas of native speaker grammar is what not to do; that is, which errors to avoid. These NS errors are rarely made by NNSs. In fact, upon seeing a typical NS error, most NNSs cannot comprehend that anyone could make that kind of error. For example, using the past participle for the simple past form, as in *I seen it*, is incomprehensible to most NNSs.

In contrast, English grammar for NNSs is more about how to do something, not about what not to do. For example, if you want to say you have a large quantity of a non-count noun, you can use the word *much*, as in *much information*, but if you want to express a similar idea with the count noun *facts*, you can use the word *many*, as in *many facts*. In both cases, you can also use *a lot*, as in *a lot of information* or *a lot of facts*.

The NNS lesson here explains how to express a particular idea in English. If asked to summarize a goal of the English lesson for an ESL or EFL class, a teacher might say, "To express a large amount or number of a noun, we use *many* or *a lot of* with count nouns and *much* or *a lot of* with non-count nouns." Typical errors in production include confusing *many* and *much* (**much facts*, **many information*) and making non-count nouns plural (**informations*), as found in Folse (2009).

The NS lesson here does not talk about *many* and *much* because NSs never make an error confusing these two. Instead, a NS lesson here might involve the correct spelling of *a lot* as two separate words. If asked to summarize a goal of this English lesson for a class of high schoolers in the U.S., a teacher might say, "When you write *a lot*, be sure you write it correctly as two separate words: *a lot*, not **alot*." There is no need to list the typical error here because most NS grammar lessons emanate from the actual error. In essence, NS grammar is seen as the elimination of errors.

THE 3 P'S

I have taught ESL and EFL for more than 30 years, and perhaps more importantly, I have been a foreign language learner for more than 40 years. In my studies of French, Spanish, Arabic, Malay, German, and Japanese, I have become acutely and incrementally aware of the intricacies of various languages. Each time I have studied a new language, this encounter has, of course, made me contrast the new target language with English. In some cases, English has seemed easier, and in some cases, English has seemed much more difficult.

One case where English seemed easier to me is with possessive adjectives. The subject pronoun *he* changes to the possessive adjective *his*, so we say *his book* or *his books*. In Spanish, there is a singular form *su* and a plural form *sus*. (Unfortunately, *su/sus* can also refer to *her*, *your*, and even *their*.) In addition to the singular/plural distinction, French adds a difficult twist for non-French speakers in that the gender of the noun matters, not the gender of the owner. Thus, *livre* (book) is masculine, so we use *son livre* for *his book* and also *son livre* for *her book*; *maison* (house) is feminine, so we use *sa masion* for *his house* and also *sa maison* for *her house*. To me, the English system is easier to fathom: if *he* owns anything – singular or plural – it is *his* thing. However, I would add that Japanese may be the easiest of the languages that I have encountered because there is no change of form as with *he* changing to *his*. You simply use the word for *he* (*kare*) and add a possessive marker (*no*), so if *he* has a *book* (*hon*), it is *kare no hon*.

In this paper, I would like to present my case for why I think the most difficult areas of English grammar are three grammatical areas that begin with the letter *p*, namely the *present perfect tense, phrasal verbs*, and *prepositions*. In explaining these choices, I will attempt to look at each from our students' point of view, using error analysis of student work in English.

Present Perfect Tense

English has a rather complex system of verb tenses that depends on time (present, past, future) and aspect (simple, progressive, or perfect). Thus, in the sentence "She was watching TV when I called her," the verb *was watching* uses what we call past progressive tense because the time is past and the aspect from the point of view of the speaker of this sentence is that the action was in progress – but not completed – in relation to another action or another point of time.

This time-aspect combination produces a list of 12 verb tenses: simple present, simple past, simple future, present progressive, past progressive, future progressive, present perfect, past perfect, future perfect, present perfect progressive, past perfect progressive, future perfect progressive. A comparison with other languages will reveal differences in the number of tenses. Some languages such as Malay have a very different way of indicating what we English speakers refer to as tense. In Malay, adding a time adverbial such as *already* or *tomorrow* to simple present tense renders the meaning of our simple past tense and simple future tense.

Even when some tenses appear to be the same, there are clear differences in usage. Spanish often uses simple present where we would use present perfect, as in *I am here since noon* instead of *I have been here since noon*. I have had Spanish-speaking ELLs ask me why we don't use present tense when the verb is clearly true right now.

While each verb tense presents a unique set of difficulties for speakers of different languages, the verb tense that is the most problematic for many NNSs of English is the present perfect. The form of the present perfect is already problematic: have/has + past participle. Examples include *I <u>have lived</u> here ten years* and *she <u>has flown</u> there twice*. ELLs learn the verb *have/has* early on: *I <u>have</u> a book*, *she <u>has</u> a watch*. Suddenly ELLs find *have* as an auxiliary verb with a completely different meaning. In fact, one problem is that now *have* really <u>has</u> no meaning because it is serving a grammatical, not lexical, function. In addition, ELLs are often confused by what they view as present tense (have) next to past tense (lived) when in fact *lived* is the past participle, not the simple past.

Negating and forming questions are also problematic. The negative of *I have a book* is *I <u>don't have</u> a book*, so ELLs also expect *I <u>don't have lived</u> here ten years*. Likewise, the question is *<u>Do you have</u> a book*, so the ELLs also expect *<u>Do you have lived</u> here ten years*?

While there are definitely these difficulties with the form, a much larger problem is with the usage of the present perfect because there are several very different and seemingly polar meanings of the present perfect. We use the present perfect for an action that began in the past and is still true, a sort of past-to-present situation, as in *I have been in Florida since 1995*. This action began in the past (1995), but we know that it is still true now (have been). We also use the present perfect for an action that is complete but is relevant to the current conversation, as in *I have eaten at that restaurant before*. This action is clearly not happening now, so it is a past event, but we often use the present perfect here. We can also use the present perfect for a future time action, as in *After I have worked at my university for thirty years, I will retire*. Though the action of working began in the past and is happening now, reaching the 30th year of work is a future event (*after*). At this point, our confused ELLs would be correct to ask us to explain this tense again because it can be used for the present, for the past, and for the future, which would make me wonder why we even have this tense.

In my experience, the most difficult issue here is when we use the present perfect for past actions that are important to now. Though we can give a great number of examples to help our ELLs, this particular usage takes a great deal longer to acquire than the more traditional usage of the present perfect, the past action that continues until now, which is taught first in most ELL grammar books because it is so much easier to learn (and to teach).

Phrasal Verbs

Phrasal verbs are one of the most difficult aspects of English for NNSs. A phrasal verb consists of a verb, which is usually a short, monosyllabic, polysemous verb. Common verbs in phrasal verbs include *take, get, run, make, call, write, put, tell*, and *do*. In phrasal verbs, these common verbs combine with a particle such as *up, down, in, out, on, off, away, back*, or *over*. A good example of phrasal verb possibilities uses the verb *take*, which can morph into nine new verbs: *take up, take down, take in, take out, take on, take off, take away, take back*, and *take over*.

What exactly makes phrasal verbs so difficult for ELLs? Some of the difficulties are meaning-related, while others are clearly grammar-related.

In terms of meaning, most phrasal verbs are highly idiomatic and defy logic. Why do airplanes *take off*? Isn't *off* something negative? And why don't we use *take on* to mean when the airplane lands? If a singer's career *takes off*, that is a good thing, but if a boat *takes on* water, that is a bad thing. Shouldn't we want a boat to *take off* water if *off* is a good thing?

If each phrasal verb had one meaning or even two meanings only, then ELLs would have an easier time learning them. However, most phrasal verbs are usually polysemous, so the ELL must decide which of several meanings is actually being used. To illustrate polysemy with phrasal verbs, consider these six meanings of *take up*: You can take up a new hobby, we can take up a topic in class, the teacher can take up the exams, a sofa can take up a lot of space, you can take someone up on an offer to do something, and an activity can take up a certain amount of time. However, before ELLs can try to assign a meaning to a phrasal verb, they must first know that they have actually heard a phrasal verb. It is often very hard for an ELL to catch a phrasal verb because they are delivered at a normal conversation speed, and the verb – not the particle – is stressed in pronunciation. Thus, ELLs may have a hard time ascertaining whether the speaker said *take on* or *take out* or *take up*. I remember a student of mine reporting that one idea in a listening passage was that the speaker's friend was sick, which perplexed me because the speaker's friend had left rather abruptly but not because of any illness. When I pressed the student, she said that she heard the word *cough* in the recording. I then figured out the problem: in the passage, the speaker said, "I got mad at my friend when he decided to take off so suddenly." She had confused *take off* with *to cough*, a pair that may not seem confusing but certainly sound similar to an ELL.

Phrasal verbs present three grammar problems. First, some phrasal verbs are separable and others are non-separable. For example, *put on* is separable because you can say *<u>put on</u> your new shoes* or *<u>put</u> your new shoes <u>on</u>*. However, *call on* is never separable because you can say *the teacher <u>called on</u> the sleeping student*, never *the teacher <u>called</u> the sleeping student <u>on</u>*. Second, even when you know a phrasal verb is separable, you have those two options when the object is a noun. If the object is a pronoun, you must separate it. Using our example of putting on your new shoes, you can say *put them on*, never *put on them*. Finally, the particle of a phrasal verb may be separated from its verb, even by as many as ten words. For example, consider the plight of an ELL who hears "In tomorrow's class, I suggest that we spend at least half an hour to discuss why some politicians refuse to *take* some of the most important social issues in our society *up* in the weeks just before an election." The phrasal verb here is *take up*, which means to begin to discuss something, but it is separated by the eight-word direct object *some of the most important social issues in our society*. The ELL cannot understand the meaning of the verb – perhaps the most crucial element of a sentence – until the speaker delivers the important particle *up*, but at that point the conversation continues, making it very difficult for the ELL to attend to both the old information (e.g., *take up*) and the subsequent information, which may include other phrasal verbs.

To compound the problem, phrasal verbs are extremely common in English, one of the few languages on the planet with them. Phrasal verbs are especially common in informal spoken language, so an ELL wanting to focus on conversation will definitely have to master phrasal verbs. A sentence can easily have two or three phrasal verbs, and a short conversation could have more than a dozen within a mere two minutes of talk. Thus, no one can get by in English without phrasal verbs.

Prepositions

In my experience, prepositions are difficult in all languages for all NNSs trying to learn that language. Prepositions often defy translation because they have so many meanings. For example, the preposition *on* has as many as 30 different meanings (On, n.d.). Furthermore, prepositions in English can have two very different functions. Thus, including this category for English should not come as a surprise to anyone.

A quick search on the Internet will give you many lists of prepositions, but many of these are not useful for ELLs because they are meant to be an exhaustive reference list for NSs in identifying the part of speech of a given word, not in teaching a NNS how to use a preposition. For example, Wikipedia's list includes *abaft* and *lest*, words which no ELL needs to know (List, n.d.).

One problem for ELLs, albeit a minor problem in my teaching experience, is that English has one-word prepositions (*at*), two-word prepositions (*due to*), and three-word prepositions (*in spite of*). Once ELLs realize that any preposition may consist of more than one word, I have found ELLs are ready to move on. (In contrast, I have experienced problems convincing NSs of English that *due to* and *in spite of* are prepositions because NSs often expect prepositions to be very short monosyllabic words.

A much more complex aspect of English prepositions involves knowing when to use a given preposition, so once again, we have the problem of usage. Here we will consider the use of the preposition *in* in these two examples: (1) They put the books in the box; (2) They are interested in books.

If you ask NSs to explain the use of *in* the first example, they often state the obvious, "well, the books are now in the box... you know... inside." Though the explanation is not very illustrative, it does get to the heart of the teaching or learning issue here, which is that the word after the preposition, *box*, is very important here. If you change *box* to *table*, we would use *on*, not *in*. If we continue changing the word after the preposition to *shelf, floor, bag*, or *briefcase*, we can see that the preposition changes according to the meaning of the space relationship between the book and the space word.

In sharp contrast, NSs are hardly ever able to explain the use of *in* in the second example. To be sure, they often attempt an explanation with, "You know, you're interested *in* [strong stress] something," but repeating something, even if more loudly, is not necessarily good teaching. If we change *books* to *tennis, business*, or *a new job*, we still use *in*. Clearly, the object of the preposition is no longer determining our choice of preposition. However, if we change the adjective *interested* to *tired,* we would say *tired of* books, and if we change it to *disappointed*, we would say *disappointed in* or *with*. In this case, what matters is the word before, not after, the preposition.

These are examples of two different types of prepositions in English. Example 1 is a lexical preposition, that is, our choice of preposition depends on meaning. Example 2, however, is grammatical because there is no connection to meaning. Instead, the preposition we use depends on the adjective (*ready for something*), verb (*delve into something*), or noun (*the center of something*) before it. These choices are predetermined patterns, and ELLs and NSs alike are required to follow these set combinations. For ELLs, they must learn these through repetitive exposure or explicit instruction because there is no way to rationalize our choices here.

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHERS

A detailed discussion of the gamut of ways to teach these three grammar points is beyond the goals of this paper. There are simply too many ways to teach these three grammar points to discuss in a single paper for this volume. To simplify matters, I will say that two teaching extremes are (1) to provide explicit instruction, often requiring learner output (Swain, 1993), and (2) to provide input that is at the learner's comprehension level, the so-called *i*+1 approach (Krashen, 1983) with no explicit instruction.

My own belief with regard to the teaching of grammar is based not only on many years of teaching but also many years of being a language student in both a foreign language context (e.g., Spanish or French in the U.S.) and a second language (L2) context (e.g., Japanese in Japan). Comprehensible input is important. No teacher believes in the superiority of *incomprehensible* input. The question is whether comprehensible input is indeed such a powerful catalyst that it is the sole or even main agent responsible for L2 acquisition. My own conclusion is that I do not believe it has this kind of powerful influence for the average learner.

The term *comprehensible input* certainly sounds good. After all, something is comprehensible, which is good, and input sounds good, too. However, comprehensible input is sometimes neither comprehensible nor input because

ELLs don't understand the structures in the target language around them. Oftentimes comprehending the language does not lead to noticing, which then does not become intake. Input that does not become intake is not helping a learner acquire the structures used in that language sample.

I studied Spanish in high school for one year, but in my college dormitory, I was assigned a series of Spanish-speaking roommates who were studying ESL at the intensive English program on campus. I frequently interacted in Spanish with Spanish speakers, and my Spanish became quite good. In fact, I eventually did my master's thesis on lexical variations in certain Central American countries, and some native speakers of Spanish would mistake me for someone from any Spanish-speaking country but where they were from.

A common question in Spanish is to ask how something went or turned out: *¿Como te fue en tu examen/tus vacaciones/tu viaje?* I had heard this phrase umpteen times and I had answered the question correctly by talking about my test, my vacation, or my trip. Imagine my surprise when one day I asked someone, "¿Como te fue tu examen?" and the person followed up her answer with, "Your Spanish is really good, but that question is wrong. You need to put *en* before the thing you're asking about."

I had been interacting in Spanish several hours a day for two or three years at this point, and I know I had received comprehensible input dozens of times and that I had actually answered questions that used this structure correctly, but no one had ever pointed out the gap between my Spanish and the correct form, and I certainly had never noticed this gap. I think Schmidt (1990) has it right when he argues that a learner's ability to notice this gap is crucial in improving L2 proficiency.

The purpose of this paper is to point out three areas of English grammar that are especially difficult for a wide range of ELLs representing many different native languages. It is my hope that this paper will help ELL teachers become aware of the inherent difficulties associated with these (and other) ELL grammar issues. Such an awareness would also imply that teachers should spend more time on these points and not expect immediate acquisition of the present perfect tense, phrasal verbs, or prepositions from their ELLs. These three grammar points are very difficult and will take time to become part of our learners' English.

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Digital Literacies and the Language Classroom

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In this article, I look at technology access and the changing face of today's learners. I consider the concept of new digital literacies before moving on to examine how these can be addressed through the use of new technologies whilst not significantly impacting on the current pedagogical or methodological approaches favored by the average classroom teacher.

TECHNOLOGY TODAY

Young people today have more access to technology than ever before: from gaming machines to mobile phones, fast Internet access at home and on the move and, increasingly, at school as new initiatives bring interactive whiteboards, electronic content, netbooks, and other technological tools into their learning.

In terms of leisure, a recent study by the Universitat Oberta de Catalunya (UOC) and the Fundacio Catalana de l'Esplai concluded that almost 97% of Spanish adolescents between the ages of twelve and eighteen have had some access to the Internet, with nearly 54% of those users having taught themselves the basics, and a mere 16% having received some training at school. Other noteworthy statistics from the ongoing study include almost 95% use of email as a form of communication (though Microsoft Messenger remains the preferred communication tool for most) and a preference for mobile phones as a primary source of communication within social groups.

This study supports data from other countries in terms of primary uses of technology, which are mostly connected to the synchronous, social side of real-time communications with friends, online (and offline) gaming, and the use of media such as music and movies online, with very few engaging in productive activities such as keeping blogs or similar pursuits, though photoblogs continue to prove popular among adolescents. This lack of the use of "participatory" technological tools is worth noting (see "Today's Learner" below) having, as it does, real implications for any introduction of technology into the classroom.

What is apparent in most studies on youth technology use is that they are more connected than ever before: connected to each other outside of class time, primarily through synchronous tools such as Microsoft Messenger and the ubiquitous mobile phone, but also (for those who use the Net to help with their learning: nearly 70% of the users in the study) connected to other sources of information and learning, which can impact on how they view what they do and learn in class. (For more on informal learning and connectivism, see Siemens, 2005.)

Although advances in educational uses of ICT are now more commonplace within many school systems, there is still some way to go in terms of implementation of infrastructure, development of suitable electronic content, and teacher training. This last factor is crucial in terms of teacher use of technology in the classroom and breaking down the "digital literacy divide" between teachers and today's learners.

TODAY'S LEARNERS

Much has been made in recent years of the perceived digital divide in terms of technological knowledge between what Prensky (2001) popularized as the "digital natives" (those born into a world with widespread access to technology) and "digital immigrants" (those born before such access became commonplace in much of the developed world).

Whilst Prensky himself has since moved on from these (recently) polemical terms to a more knowledge-based view of the changes occurring in society (Prensky, 2009), much stock is still placed in the supposed difference in skills level and experience between young people and their elders, and this difference is equally widely deemed to be leading to a significant disjuncture in what learners expect from their school and college experience, and what they actually receive. (For a critique of this view, see Bennett, Maton, and Kervin, 2008).

The so-called "Net generation" (Tapscott, 1999), it is argued, are highly-skilled and regular users of technologies such as blogs, wikis, and podcasts, spend most of their time online, and are rarely parted from their games machines or mobile phones. Whilst it is certainly true that most young people in many developed countries today have extensive access to various types of technologies (see above) there is still quite a gap in what they do with these technologies and what educators in the "immigrant" fold might otherwise imagine.

In fact, many commissioned reports across the globe reflect what might be called a purely social use of technologies. One such report, carried out by OTX Research for the Channel 4 television station in the UK, concluded:

> However, the research explodes this myth by showing that young people's immersion in these devices and the time spent on them is not due to an obsession with the technology per se, but largely due to the gadgets' ability to facilitate communication and to enhance young people's enjoyment of traditional pursuits. For most, the focus of their passion is not so much the device itself, but more about how it can help them connect, relax or have fun. The technology itself is "invisible" to the young consumer. (PRNewswire, 2009, para. 4)

This gives some credence to Prensky's (2008) assertion that "digital natives" tend to speak of technology in the form of verbs (whereas educators generally tend to use nouns) and also fits in with Bax's (2003) notion of "normalization," where technology only realizes its potential when it ceases to be noteworthy or "special" within any given context.

However, this level of comfort with certain technologies, this "invisibility," does not necessarily carry over into any tangible or positive benefits in terms of their learning. As Sansone (2008) notes, "natives" are too often described as "tech savvy" when what we really mean is that they are "tech comfy" that is, that they are comfortable with technology, but not necessarily in a good position to put it to work in service of their knowledge and learning. He argues that perhaps a part of a new educator role may be to assist in the transformation from practical, social use of technology to a more rigorous, pedagogical use.

Given the kind of data revealed in reports such as the OTX Research one (above), it is difficult to see how an educator's view of technologies in teaching will work towards bridging the gap between the "natives" and the "immigrants." ELT exponents well-versed in the use of technologies regularly assume that the ubiquity of technologies in their learners' lives will lead to a ready acceptance, say, of the use of blogs and wikis for reading and writing, podcasts for audio, practice, and other such approaches, whereas these may simply be written off as insufficiently "social" or "entertaining" by their intended audience.

As the OTX Research report concludes:

> Traditional activities such as hanging out with friends, listening to music, and seeing boy/girlfriends dominate the top three favourite pastimes of young people, while "digital" behaviours such as creating user generated content have a much lower penetration than commonly perceived (only 16% of young people have written a blog and less than a quarter (21%) have filmed and uploaded a clip to a site like YouTube). (PRNewswire, 2009, para. 5)

Whilst these kinds of tools certainly can work in classroom contexts, it is often in the face of considerable resistance on the part of younger learners. In these circumstances, teachers can engage in more successful and constructive technology-driven instruction through the integration of more traditional tools and techniques in their standard repertoire.

More advanced techniques such as the use of blogs, wikis, and other social-constructivist media along with the use of synchronous tools such as voice and text chat, video-conferencing, and similar instruction tools may be introduced at a later date, when teachers have reached a comfort level with such tools, and learners have seen stimulating and attractive examples with which they can identify.

DIGITAL LITERACIES

Traditionally, literacy has referred to the basic skills of reading and writing, occasionally coupled with basic numeracy and referred to as the "3 Rs" (reading, writing, and arithmetic). With the proliferation of digital media, however, commentators have come to consider a wider range of skills as figuring in a new definition of "digital literacy." Pegrum (2009) explores these new literacies in some detail, highlighting, amongst others:

- **Print and Texting Literacies:** Whilst print literacy is a familiar typology, texting literacy remains the domain of regular mobile phone users and is much maligned in educational circles for the purported detrimental effect it is having on literacy. In fact, as Crystal (2008) points out, "typically less than 10 percent of the words in text messages are actually abbreviated in any way" (para. 4).

- **Personal, Participatory, and Intercultural Literacies:** These literacies come to the forefront in social networking spaces and other online media where personalization occurs. They may include blogs and wikis, as well as social networks such as Facebook. In such spaces, users not only write about themselves and their lives, but also participate in wide social groupings, which transcend more closed groupings in terms of ethnicity, religion, geography, etc.
- **Search and Information Literacies:** In many ways, these are two of the most important literacies for any learner to acquire – the ability not only to find information amongst the mass of sites and sources afforded by technologies, but also to evaluate that information according to a set of criteria relevant to its intended purpose.
- **Remix Literacy:** This form of literacy refers to the modern trend of "remixing" pictures, videos, and other media to often striking effect. This may refer, for example, to the trend for making "literal versions" of music videos (http://tinyurl.com/l397zp), through remixing music videos for political or satirical ends (http://preview.tinyurl.com/yffhgnb), to the doctoring of digital images such as that afforded by sites such as Photofunia. In each instance, a recognition of the "remix" that has taken place is crucial to an understanding of the media being viewed.

Clearly, then, this is a complicated mix of skills to master, and teachers can play a part in helping learners acquire some of the necessary skills by integrating them into their classroom practice alongside the regular "content" they deal with. In this way, we can make a difference in our learners' comfort level, helping them beyond the "tech comfy" to the "tech savvy," which will contribute to their life beyond school as they move into the professional workplace and (increasingly) knowledge-based economies.

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Assessment / Testing

An Analysis of Interaction in Task-Based Oral Assessment

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Oral assessment in task-based contexts can be conducted by having learners perform tasks similar to those done in the classroom. However, in such tests, should it be the teacher or a student partner who acts as the interlocutor? This paper describes an investigation looking at task-based oral assessment with first-year Japanese university students. The aim was to see which format, solo or paired testing, gave the learners the best opportunity to demonstrate their ability to successfully complete the assigned tasks. Audio recordings were made of individual and paired tests, and these were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The data indicated that paired tests allowed learners to perform better in both the quality and quantity of talk they produced. The author suggests this may be due to the imbalance of power found in teacher-student tests compared to the paired format.

INTRODUCTION

Teachers in secondary and higher education contexts usually have to assess their students' performance through a course. As well as the more common tests of grammar, reading, and listening, some assessment of speaking is also often required. However, finding the best way to assess oral ability has remained an issue that has challenged both teachers and researchers in the field. Among the myriad options available, one variable that has continued to be debated is the issue of whether learners should be tested in pairs, or individually, with the teacher as the interlocutor, as in the widely used one-to-one oral proficiency interview.

The oral proficiency interview became the standard means for assessing speaking ability from the 1960s (for a detailed discussion see Csepes, 2009, pp. 33-40). This continued until the 1980s when concerns were raised about the imbalance in power between the student and assessor. Hughes (2003) stated the following:

> The relationship between the tester and the candidate is such that the candidate speaks as to a superior and is unwilling to take the initiative. As a result, only one style of speech is elicited, and many functions (such as asking for information) are not represented in the candidate's performance. (p. 119)

Since this time, a number of studies have investigated the benefits of the paired test format. Taylor (2001) described how data from the Cambridge Certificate of Proficiency in English test showed a tendency for candidates to use predominantly *informational* functions during individual tests. This was in contrast to the paired format where there was a much greater proportion of *interactional* and *managing interaction* functions. Similarly, Yamada (2006) concluded from her study in a Japanese university context that testing in pairs might produce more authentic conversation than the one-to-one format. Egyud and Glover (2001) discussed a number of potential advantages of using pairs. They claim that when tests are conducted in pairs, the test takers are more relaxed and this allows them to produce better English. Another point they discuss is related to the actual job of rating the students' performances, stating how "being able to sit back and observe the interaction must surely make grading easier than being involved in it with an individual candidate" (p. 76). They also raise the important issue of washback, which is particularly relevant in contexts where elements of task-based learning are used. If students are expected to perform speaking tasks in class which reflect real situations, the assessment procedures should also be based on the same principles. Saville and Hargreaves (1999) also made the point that washback from paired testing will "encourage more interaction between learners in the classroom" (p. 44).

Despite the number of papers in support of paired testing, there have also been several studies that have either opposed it, or at least urged caution when choosing to use this format for oral assessment. Foot (1999) warned that while candidates may be more relaxed when in pairs, this may not necessarily be a good thing, adding "many people do not perform better because they are relaxed" (p. 37). He also described the widely held concern with paired testing of how the pairing of two candidates will affect the performance of both. Candidates will face a different test if they are paired with a stranger compared with one in which their partner is a friend. This claim was supported by an empirical study by O'Sullivan (2002) in which he found that candidates paired with friends achieved higher scores in oral assessment. Norton (2005), in addition to observing this acquaintanceship effect, found evidence that performance was affected by both the proficiency and gender of a candidate's partner.

This paper addresses part of an ongoing project to determine the best method for oral assessment in a largely task-based university context: Should students perform these tasks in pairs or with the teacher as their task partner?

METHODS

Aims of the Study

This investigation set out to investigate the interaction that occurred when learners were assessed doing tasks in both individual and paired format tests. From this analysis, it was hoped that the results would indicate which format was more appropriate in a teaching context that uses a task-based approach. Specifically, the following research questions were posed:

1. What evidence was there of a power imbalance between teacher and student?
2. Which format allowed students to produce their best English?

3. What evidence was there that incompatible pairings hindered performance?

Context

This study was undertaken at a private university in Japan. The students who participated were first-year students (aged 18 to 19) and were non-English majors. All students who entered the university were required to take a compulsory basic English communication course in their first year. In this course, students met once a week over a 15-week semester and used a published textbook that was supplemented with materials, particularly communicative tasks, developed by the teacher. There were two classes involved, which had been streamed after an entrance test, and both classes of students were of roughly the same proficiency. After six years of mainly grammar and reading classes throughout their secondary education, the students had a good explicit knowledge of grammar. However, their speaking and listening skills were very much of a beginner level. One group (Class A) consisted of 21 students, 10 female and 11 male. The second group (Class B) contained 20 students, 8 female and 12 male.

Procedures

The 15-week course was roughly divided into two blocks of lessons, each culminating in an oral test held in week 8 and week 15. One task was selected from each half of the course to be used in the tests. The task used in the first test (Task 1) was a timed conversation on the topic of either *university life* or *shopping*, which were the themes from the textbook units that were studied. The task goal was for each student to simply maintain a conversation for three minutes with their interlocutor. The second task (Task 2) was a consensus-building task in which each student was given a cinema schedule, and they had to plan a trip to the cinema with their partner. First, they needed to choose a film. In addition to the movie itself, this also involved deciding on whether to see the 3D or 2D edition, and whether to go and watch a dubbed Japanese version or a movie in its original language with Japanese subtitles. Next, they had to select a showing, with different times sometimes affecting the ticket price. Also, the meeting time and place, and when and where they would eat had to be decided on. Students had a time limit of four minutes to complete this task.

Class A had their oral tests conducted individually with the teacher acting as both the interlocutor and assessor. The students in Class B were randomly assigned a partner immediately before their test, which was then carried out in pairs with the teacher acting only as observer and assessor. Students were given holistic scores out of 10, with each test worth 10% of their final grade. Following what McNamara (1996) termed a “strong sense” of performance assessment, the students were judged on how successful they were in the “fulfillment of the task set” (p. 43).

All the oral tests were audio recorded and transcribed. The data were then analyzed qualitatively to look for points of interest that may have helped to answer the research questions. Some quantitative measures were then taken to support the qualitative findings.

RESULTS & DISCUSSION

Volume of Talk

One feature that seemed to occur in the data was that learners produced more talk in the paired format tests. Figure 1 shows the volume of talk (measured as the total number of words) produced by students in Task 1, the three-minute timed conversation. Repetitions, L1 items, and reformulations were not included in the count. In the individual tests, the mean number of words used to complete the task was 47. However, in the paired test, there was a noticeable increase in the number of words spoken, to just under 58. From this, it seems that the paired format may provide more opportunity to hear the students' task performances.

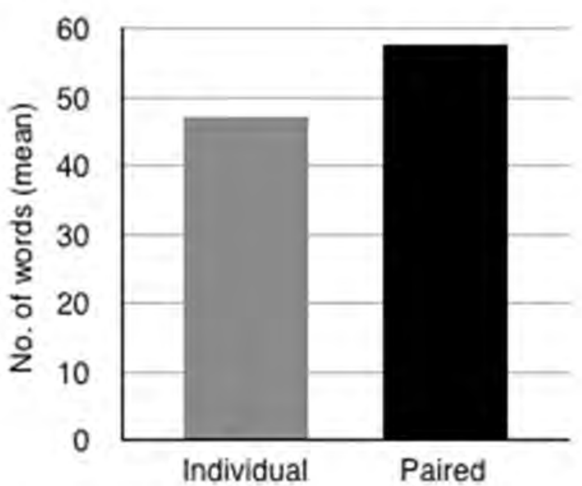

FIGURE 1. A comparison of the volume of talk in Task 1.

A similar analysis for Task 2, the decision-making task, can be seen in Figure 2. As there was no fixed time for Task 2, a measure of the number of words spoken per minute was used. As Figure 2 shows, in contrast to Task 1, there was no discernible difference between the individual and paired formats, with the mean number of words per minute much the same at around 22.

This result suggests that, for less structured tasks like a timed conversation, students may produce more talk in the paired format. This could be due to the power imbalance between teacher and student, written about in oral testing literature, which could create a situation where a student does not produce their best performance due to being nervous or anxious. However, no real difference was observed for Task 2. In Task 1, although the students were given a topic, they had to provide most of the information from their own ideas or opinions. It can be imagined that this would be more taxing under pressure than the more structured cinema task, in which there were six very clear items that the students had to discuss, and less imagination or initiative was required. Perhaps this explains why there was little difference in talk time for Task 2.

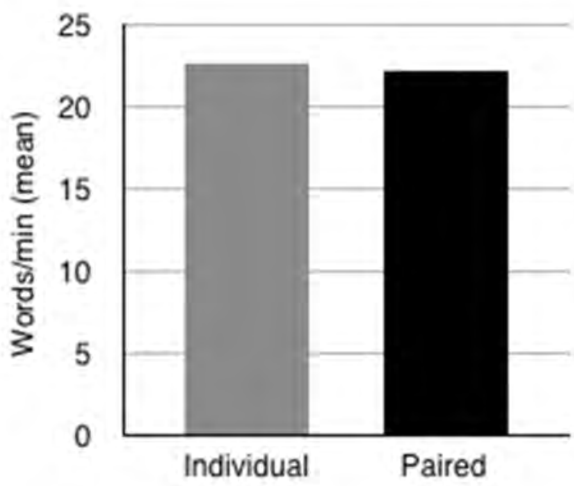

FIGURE 2. A comparison of the volume of talk in Task 2.

Asking Questions

A second difference that soon became apparent was the number of questions that students were using to complete the tasks. A measure was taken of this, and the results are shown in Figure 3 and Figure 4. Both charts show that in the paired format, students appeared more willing to take the initiative and ask questions. In Task 1, there was an average of only 1.6 questions asked in the individual tests compared to 4.6 in the paired format. The result for Task 2 was very similar, with 1.2 questions in the individual format and 4.1 in the paired. The results are even skewed a little towards the individual tests as the teacher requested that students begin the task with the first turn. The mean result of less than two questions for each task shows that students, on average, did not produce even a single question without being prompted.

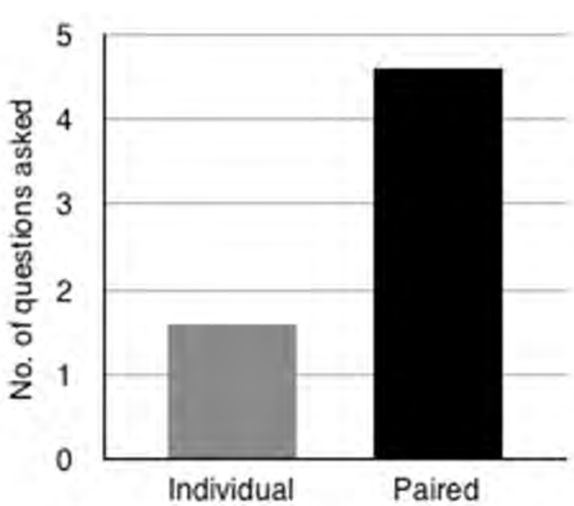

FIGURE 3. A comparison of the number of questions asked during Task 1.

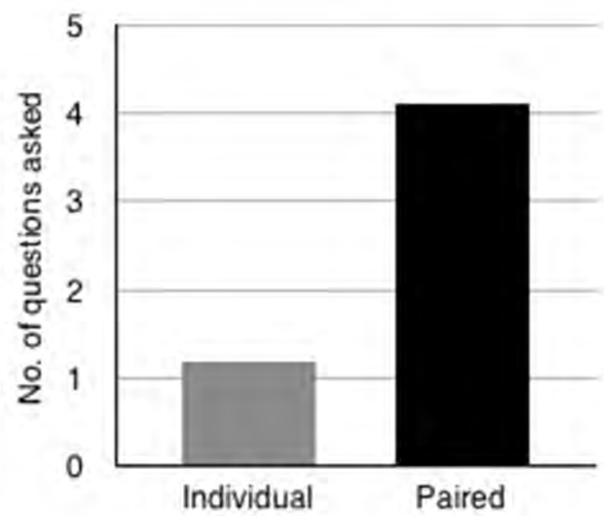

FIGURE 4. A comparison of the number of questions asked during Task 2.

Excerpt 1 shows a typical example of an individual test for Task 1 on the topic of shopping between the teacher (T) and a male student (S). In this example, the teacher tended to dominate the conversation. Although the student gave good responses – and even a little extra when he says “I have no money” – they did not respond with a question to the teacher, even a simple “how about you?” was rarely seen in the data.

[Excerpt 1]
T: in one month how much do you spend?
S: I spend hmm five thousand yen
T: five thousand yen a month?
S: five thousand yen. (3.5) hm I have no money
T: yeah me too I understand. yeah what’s your favourite shop?
S: favourite shop um (0.5) my favourite shop is (0.5) oh Right-On
T: hm (1.0) yeah I know it. why do you like Right-On?

There were also more extreme examples where the teacher let a period of silence continue to try to encourage the students to ask something. Excerpt 2 illustrates such an exchange with a female student. Towards the end of this excerpt, the teacher attempted to give the student an opportunity to ask a question, but she was not forthcoming.

[Excerpt 2]
T: what’s your favourite shop?
S: favourite shop
T: hm
S: my favourite shop is Lowrys Farm
T: okay yeah what is that? a clothes shop?
S: ah yes yes
T: why do you like that?

S: because cute. hm (0.5) *eto* hm cute. (1.0) size match my I I small
T: I see they have small sizes
S: [laughs](3.0) [laughs] (10.0) ah (5.5)
T: okay so how much do you usually spend on shopping?

In these examples, the students seemed to be sitting back and waiting for the teacher to ask questions and lead the task. The students merely responded to questions, and the information exchange was only one-way. If the tests are conducted in this way, then they quickly cease to resemble the tasks carried out in class and become traditional interview tests, which is hardly ideal when a task-based approach to learning and teaching is being used. The positive washback effect that we might expect to see in classes from using tasks for assessment could be compromised.

But what of the tests conducted in pairs? Excerpt 3 shows a typical exchange between two students in the paired format. We can see it was a much more balanced exchange, with a two-way flow of interaction present.

[Excerpt 3]
A: Do you like school?
B: Yes I huh? I like university. (1.5) er what's what's favourite what's favourite subject do you like?
A: it's English and you?
B: I don't like English I like PE
A: what's your unfavourite class?
B: er I don't like (0.5) English on Tuesday
A: ah yes me too
B: Thursday is fun
A: me too
B: er *eto* what what do you belong to club or circle?
A: I belong to tennis club and you?
B: er I I belong to lacrosse club

Of the 35 individual tests only a couple of students showed this desire or ability to ask questions to the teacher. This difference could again be a consequence of the power imbalance that exists. It is possible that students are not comfortable to be asking questions of an informal and sometimes personal nature to the teacher in a test setting.

Balance of Talk

Another, albeit related, way in which the apparent power imbalance manifested itself during the test interaction was in the balance of talk between the two interlocutors. Table 1 shows the contribution each interlocutor, the teacher and the student, made towards the total number of words used (again excluding repetitions, L1 words, and reformulations) during the individual tests. It clearly shows that in the vast majority of tests, the teacher contributed a much greater proportion of talk during the task. In some cases (tests 2 and 12 in Task 1, and tests 1 and 13 in Task 2) the teacher made over 80% of the total talk that occurred. Only in a few cases (tests 4 and 11 in Task 1, and test 3 in Task 2) did the students begin to get close to a more balanced exchange.

TABLE 1. The Percentage of Talk Contributed by the Teacher (T) and Students (S) in the Individual Tests for Task 1

Test number			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Volume of talk (%)	Task 1	T	70	80	78	63	78	69	68	70	79	70	64	81	71	82	74	77	69
		S	30	20	22	37	22	31	32	30	21	30	36	19	29	18	26	23	31
	Task 2	T	81	73	63	83	67	85	69	68	79	68	69	77	84	74	78	77	X
		S	19	27	37	17	33	15	31	32	21	32	31	23	16	26	22	23	X

Excerpt 4 shows a typical example of interaction from Task 2 between teacher and student, with the student providing only the minimum to complete the task. Here, the student did not expand on her answers or give support or justification for her choices. When the teacher disagreed with the student’s film choices, the student did not challenge the teacher and simply proposed a new film. These actions gave the teacher a much greater share of the total words spoken.

[Excerpt 4]

S: I want to watch Andalucia
T: Andalucia. what kind of movie is Andalucia?
S: suspense
T: suspense. I think the Japanese is probably difficult for me
S: er Super 8
T: Super 8. last week I watched Super 8 so I’ve already seen it.
is there anything else you want to watch?
S: Pirates
T: Pirates of the Caribbean?
S: yes
T: yeah okay that’s fine

For the paired tests, a very different picture can be seen. Table 2 shows the balance of talk between the two student interlocutors in the paired tests. Those students that had their name randomly chosen first and second were recorded as Student A and B, respectively. They are represented in the table as A and B only to illustrate the balance of talk in each test. It can be seen that, in contrast to the individual tests, the balance of talk is much closer for the paired tests, with the notable exception of test 7 in both Tasks 1 and 2, which is discussed below.

TABLE 2. The Percentage of Talk Contributed by Student A (A) and Student B (B) in the Paired Tests

Test number			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Volume of talk (%)	Task 1	A	48	46	49	48	45	53	93	51	48
		B	52	54	51	52	55	47	7	49	52
	Task 2	A	44	42	42	51	50	53	70	50	48
		B	56	58	58	49	50	47	30	50	52

Excerpt 5 illustrates the kind of more balanced exchange representative of the paired test interaction. The way in which both speakers gave their opinions about the movie (and later the other points to complete this task) and negotiated their decisions is unlike the kinds of interactions observed in the individual tests. One result of this is the more balanced interaction when seen in quantitative terms.

[Excerpt 5]

A: what do you want to watch the movie?
B: er I want to watch Harry Potter because I like Harry Potter series eh you okay?
A: my I want to watch Super 8 because I like SF
B: SF oh I like SF too!
A: let's go to Super 8
B: let's go to let's watch Super 8 yeah
A: what time?
B: what time. I want to see thirteen thirty

These findings suggest that paired testing may provide more of an opportunity for students to show their capability to complete the test tasks. However, Table 2 also shows the striking example of imbalance of talk in test 7 of the paired format for both Tasks 1 and 2. For Task 1, Student A contributed a remarkable 93% of the exchange, while in Task 2 (which actually featured the same student who dominated proceedings in Task 1 but with a different partner) it stood at 70%. Excerpt 6 shows what happened in this test in more detail. Student A dominated the conversation by not asking Student B any questions and not leaving much time between his utterances before beginning again. Student B was either unwilling or unable to interrupt or interject here, and so hardly had any chance to show the teacher that she could successfully complete this task. This is evidence of one of the dangers of paired testing that Foot (1999), O'Sullivan (2002), and Norton (2005) warned of.

[Excerpt 6]

A: I working in part time. it's very hard to for me in first time but it's very interesting for me. ah um I think that you can looked look very good job for you. I I I when I looked for look for job I called Mos Burger and Jolly Pasta. it er I said I want to work 6 pm for 10 pm but each other shops do each shops said I er I want to peo- I want people for 10 pm um last pm.
B: oh

CONCLUSION

Although this was a small scale study, with space not permitting a more detailed analysis of the data, some interesting observations could be made. First, the results showed that, for the timed conversation task, at least, the amount students talked was greater in the paired tests. This is significant for the simple reason that it is important to hear the students produce as much as possible to accurately assess their spoken ability. Another related advantage is that the tests can be completed in almost half the time. This gives extra time to perhaps have the learners perform the task for longer or have them do a different task. On this point, Hughes (2003) talked of how it is important to “make the oral test as long as is feasible” (p. 124) to accurately rate each test taker. Second, the number of questions that students were asking was much lower in the individual tests. This finding supports the claims by Taylor (2001) and Yamada (2006) about the lack of authenticity in the discourse of teacher-student oral assessments, as well as Hughes’ (2003) fear that individual tests would discourage a variety of functions.

Finally, the imbalance of talk during the individual tests certainly adds weight to the claims made about the power imbalance between rater and test taker. There was an issue in a couple of paired tests where such an imbalance was also seen. This is something that certainly should not be ignored, and teachers should consider whether carefully selecting pairs, rather than randomly choosing students as in this investigation, would be more appropriate. However, it may not always be possible to make ideal pairings, and teachers can also make allowances in their scoring when pairs have proved to be incompatible. The concerns that have been raised about the lack of fairness in paired testing may be more valid in high stakes testing, but in many university contexts, the teacher will have the flexibility to deal with such pairing problems.

Overall, these findings suggest that paired testing may be more appropriate in a task-based context to allow students the best opportunity to demonstrate that they can successfully complete the tasks that were done during the course. Of course, there are many other issues related to the paired/individual dichotomy, and other factors that the author has not discussed here. These include the question of how pairing affects scores and the issue of rating generally, which will form part of this continuing investigation into task-based oral assessment.

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Student Autonomy in the TOEIC Classroom: Introducing Student Self-Constructed TOEIC Tests

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The TOEIC test is used on a worldwide scale as a measurement of English language ability and comprehension. The TOEIC is a multiple-choice instrument designed to measure an examinee's receptive English skills and is increasingly being considered a reasonable predictor of these skills (Gilfert, 1996). Preparation for the test itself can be arduous, stressful, and if not conducted properly, unproductive. One focal obstacle toward successful training is that of student motivation. Learners may recognize the magnitude of the test, but studying for the TOEIC may draw forth feelings of boredom over the tedium of the whole affair. Alternative techniques to traditional study methods need to be established to maintain interest and obtain higher achievement score results. The design and implementation herein of self-constructed tests with the use of online resources has shown positive results in this matter.

INTRODUCTION

The TOEIC test is an internationally recognized scale for determining English language proficiency and comprehension. Since 1979, organizations around the world have used the *TOEIC®* test to hire, place, and promote employees (ets.org). According to the *TOEIC Report on Test-Takers Worldwide, 1997-98,* 63% of the TOEIC results were used in Japan, 29% in Korea, and 8% in other countries (Suzuki & Daza, 2004). Justification of the TOEIC's overall use in Japan is due to the fact that it was originally asked for by the Japanese government. The TOEIC came from the Japanese Ministry of International Trade and Industry requests to the Educational Testing Service in the mid 1970s (Gilfert, 1996). It was originally introduced to businesses from 1979 from there it has spread worldwide especially among Asian nations. Universities offer various courses in TOEIC test preparation to assist potential graduates. The authors Suzuki and Daza (2004, p. 16) further state when describing uses of the TOEIC scores:

> The *TOEIC User's Guide* suggests that the test can be used by corporations, English training programs, English language schools, or individuals. The guide reports that more than 4,000 corporations around the world have used the test for recruiting, promoting, and deploying employees. The test is also used by corporations for screening employees for several purposes: (a) technical training in English; (b) overseas assignments; and (c) language training. In addition,

corporations can use the test for diagnosing their language training programs and evaluating employees' English proficiency. Educational institutions in both ESL and EFL contexts have adopted the TOEIC for formative or placement purposes (Gilfert, 1996). The TOEIC has been adopted by universities in Japan and Korea for the formative assessment of students' English proficiency and to assist students with future employment (Gilfert, 1996; Kim, 2001). Finally, the TOEIC has been taken by individuals who wished to show a measure of their English proficiency to their potential employers.

For learners then, the TOEIC test and its cumulative score are extremely important for initially securing a job and for an employee's future permanent employment. Most examinees are in their mid twenties to late forties and working for a corporation. However, TOEIC test-takers have recently included many university graduating seniors because corporations now commonly require TOEIC scores for new employees (Gilfert, 1996).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Dilemma

Traditionally, studying for the TOEIC test has involved persistent use of past-papers, grammar drills, and rote-style learning. This creates an environment where the student is dependent on the teacher for learning to take place. The role of the teacher in such lessons is as the sole provider of information, where knowledge and facts flow in a one-way direction. This teacher-centered approach provides little opportunity for the students to learn when, and what, they want at a speed that suits best. More universities throughout Japan and Korea are opting to incorporate TOEIC lessons into their language curriculums. Students are often forced to take test-based classes as these increasingly become a compulsory subject in tertiary institutions.

Through the experience of the authors, it was realized that when taking a TOEIC class for the first time, students would consistently show poor performance. Test grades would be poor, with many students consistently showing a lack of improvement. This is no incentive to learning. Poor grades can disappoint, demotivate, and be demeaning to the student, in effect hindering the learning process when the objective is the opposite. A change in approach was necessary.

Recently, in the industry of EFL, there has been a trend to give more responsibility to the learner for their own learning and less to the teacher, allowing students to learn at their own pace. If students could enjoy what they are doing in English class, this would motivate learners to think about and act upon their learning goals. In turn, this would motivate learners more, creating further interest and nurturing autonomous learners, which would encourage further learning. The question is how could this be possible in a test-based class?

The idea behind this project was to get students to create their own tests individually, and then have their peers take them in class collectively. Students would learn about the test in the process, and improve in their test-taking skills while learning collaboratively. Each individual would have ownership of their own test, which would be continuously improved on with the addition of photos and constructs learnt in class. After completion, learners would take each other's tests.

Technology in Education

A degree of research was necessary to find out what was available. The array of Computer Aided Language Learning (CALL) literature soon provided some answers. Technology has shaped the students that we teach in recent times. Instant access to information, in the form of high-speed Internet, wi-fi, and more recently, the introduction of smart-phone technology, means that information and learning through such sources is more viable now than ever before. Such developments in technology can be seen to have considerable implications for education, in relation to the growing need to prepare young people for a life saturated by technology and rapid change. An important point is that technology transforms knowledge, and makes new things possible in new ways.

Significant shifts in the global environment have far-reaching implications for education. Haddad and Daxler, in Pachler (2007) declare that a focus on how to learn, problem-solve, and synthesize the old with the new can lead to education for everyone, education anytime, and education anywhere. One such technology that can be utilized in this context is a simple and free online software called a wiki.

Wikis Explained

Although many assume it's an acronym or a neologism, "wiki" is derived from the Hawaiian "wiki wiki," which is an adjective to describe something "quick" or "fast." The word has quickly permeated the English language, but the definition now refers to the concept of a collaborative writing application on the Internet. (Ullman, 2006, p. 87)

Wiki software in particular is useful in the process of education for building independent learning spaces to which students contribute, and it supports the social aspects of the teaching/learning process (Dlouha & Dlouhy, 2009). While many new technologies have emerged throughout history, so has the cry for educators to find meaningful ways to incorporate these technologies into the classroom – be it the typewriter, the television, the calculator, or the computer (Klopfer, Osterweil, Groff, & Haas, 2009). Among the innovative computer technologies that may be beneficial to English writing, wiki technology is particularly important. Hall (2006) describes a wiki as "a collaboration of Web pages that can be easily viewed and modified by anyone, providing a means for sharing learning and collaboration" (p. 13). There are numerous Web 2.0 tools for educational use and benefit. These tools afford the added advantage of reducing the technical skill required to use their features, allowing users to focus on the information exchange and collaborative tasks themselves without the distraction of a difficult technological environment (Kirkpatrick, 2006). Such "transparent technologies" (Wheeler, Kelly, & Gale, 2005) let the user concentrate more on the learning task by "seeing through" the technology with which they are interacting. Many students now come to campus to learn about and learn with technology (Green, 2000).

Prior Learning Environment

The stimulus for introducing students to creating their own TOEIC tests resulted from a course that one of the authors was instructing. It had all the ingredients for catastrophe. The course was scheduled for Monday mornings 8:30-10:00: the first course of the day, and first day of the week. Learners who were grouped for each course by TOEIC score were actually in the lowest cluster. Their TOEIC scores averaged between 200-300 points. Therefore, with these two factors, early morning class along with minimal scores, the only two constants within the first weeks were lack of attendance and dispirited motivation. Instructor tools consisted of the traditional methods of chalk, talk, and test. Those students that did bring their texts often fell asleep or concentrated on other, more important tasks, such as twittering or manipulating other mobile mail devices. The breaking point of frustration for the instructor was when one of the pupils, out of tedium or exasperation, stabbed the instructor with a pencil when he placed his hand on their desk. Long-established instructional procedures were proving to be very ineffective if not hazardous.

Conversations with other instructors produced similar (though not as painful) stories of lack of attendance and low motivation by learners. Regardless of text, the outcome seemed to be the same. The questions that arose centered on what good we, as course facilitators, were bringing and producing from these courses. The ultimate question focused on the students themselves. Were their scores actually elevating to any positive degree? A less traditional approach was desperately needed.

It was then surmised that maybe the students had had enough tests and now it was time for them to devise their own. Keeping within the contexts of the TOEIC test itself, the learners were required to bring in pictures and to construct their own TOEIC-type questions and answers. This first attempt at a self-constructed test, while rather crude by today's technological standards, involved the physical cutting and pasting onto paper of images and then the manual writing of questions and answers. To the instructors' amazement, the results were astounding. Learners came to class prepared motivated and attendance stood at near 100%.

METHODOLOGY

One questionnaire was administered to 53 students from three class groups in two private universities in Japan. The set of questions were distributed online in week 15, the last class of the term. Typically, respondents took around ten minutes to write their answers to all the questions.

In order to minimize any misunderstandings on the part of the respondent, and consequently, to obtain genuine responses, the questions were written in English and Japanese. Effort was made to ensure respondents realized that they would not be penalized in any way regarding their answers. The questionnaire was constructed using a free, online survey tool that allowed for simple data input and instant data analysis. The objective behind the questionnaire was to understand students' level of motivation before and after the project, to gain an insight into learner beliefs regarding the TOEIC test, and to gather opinions on the use of wikis in class after the project.

Syllabus

Stage 1

The course was comprised of fifteen 90-minute lessons separated into three stages (see Table 1). The first stage introduced wikis to the students and obtaineddata on student TOEIC scores before the commencement of the project. It was during this stage that thefirst online survey was taken by all respondents. At this stage, guidance was given to students on how to upload photos to a wiki site, how to edit pages, and how to access and create their own page. This stage lasted for just three class periods, until the third week of the term.

TABLE 1. Course Outline

Week 1	**Stage 1**	Online survey and pre-TOEIC Bridge test (60 min.)
Week 2		Introduction of wikis and their use in the classroom
Week 3		Uploading photos, editing pages
Week 4	**Stage 2**	**Wiki Part 1** completion
Week 5		Advice on test-making
Week 6		**Wiki Part 2** completion
Week 7		Embedding videos in wikis
Week 8		**Wiki Part 3** completion
Week 9		Grammar advice
Week 10		**Wiki Part 4** completion
Week 11		Checking for mistakes
Week 12		Editing
Week 13	**Stage 3**	**Part 5** completion
Week 14		Post TOEIC Bridge test (60 min.)
Week 15		Wiki-test part 1 – part 5 peer

Stage 2

After students had shown a simple understanding of wiki usage, actual construction of student self-constructed TOEIC tests (hereafter referred to as “wiki-tests”) began. All subjects in this study had to produce a short wiki-test, comprised of five parts, similar to the actual TOEIC Bridge test. Each part had just four questions with a choice of four multiple-choice answers. On completion of the final wiki-test, each student should have had 20 questions in five sections. Each section varied in degree of difficulty, with part 1 being the easiest and part 5 the hardest.

The first part was comprised of four pictures, which students uploaded to their wiki page. The pictures were either downloaded from the Internet or uploaded from hand-held devices owned by the students. Students described their picture in one simple, short sentence using relevant vocabulary and providing only one correct answer. Students were given guidance on how to create a suitable answer, which included not making answers too obvious, avoiding repetitions of similar words or expressions, and making sure there was only one correct answer per question. After the completion of the wiki-test part 1, progress to the next stage was smoother.

Part 2 of the wiki-test was comprised of a further four pictures which were uploaded in the same manner. However, here students had to provide four answers comprising a longer description of each picture, limited to just two sentences with only one correct answer. It was here that our wiki-test differed from the norm. Part 2 in the actual TOEIC Bridge test does not contain any pictures (see Table 2).

TABLE 2. Student Generated Wiki-Test vs. Authentic TOEIC Bridge Test

	Our wiki-test	Questions		TOEIC Bridge test	Questions
Part 1	Photographs with 4 multiple choice short answers	4	Part 1	Photographs with 4 multiple choice answers	15
Part 2	Pictures with 4 multiple choice long answers	4	Part 2	Question-response with 3 multiple choice answers	20
Part 3	4 videos with a short description of contents and 4 questions	4	Part 3	Short conversations and short talks	15
Part 4	Incomplete sentences	4	Part 4	Incomplete sentences	30
Part 5	One short video with short questions and answers	4	Part 5	Reading comprehension	20

Part 3 used videos, which students would upload to their wiki from online video sites such as youtube.com. Students were expected to describe their video in two sentences and then ask a question on its contents. Four videos were required to be uploaded at this point, all with a similar format. Part 4 of the wiki-test was a missing word exercise. This section comprised of a simple sentence or dialogue between two people with one word omitted. A choice of four words or expressions were provided, one of which was correct.

Part 5 was by far the most difficult section. Students had to download a movie clip from the site movieclips.com, upload it to their page, and ask four questions on its contents. On completion of part 5, students were requested to check their work for mistakes, edit the text to reflect any teacher feedback received, and finally to add an answer table to their wiki page, giving correct answers to all twenty questions. Students were then required to take the wiki-test of five of their peers in the final class of the term, providing the teacher with a grade out of one hundred possible points for each student.

RESULTS

There were three types of data results obtained from this study. Raw TOEIC Bridge test scores obtained before and after the project are labeled in Figure 1. Results for the student self-constructed “wiki-test” administered in week 15 of the project can be seen in Figure 2, and finally, results for a short, online survey conducted on the last day of class can be seen in Table 4.

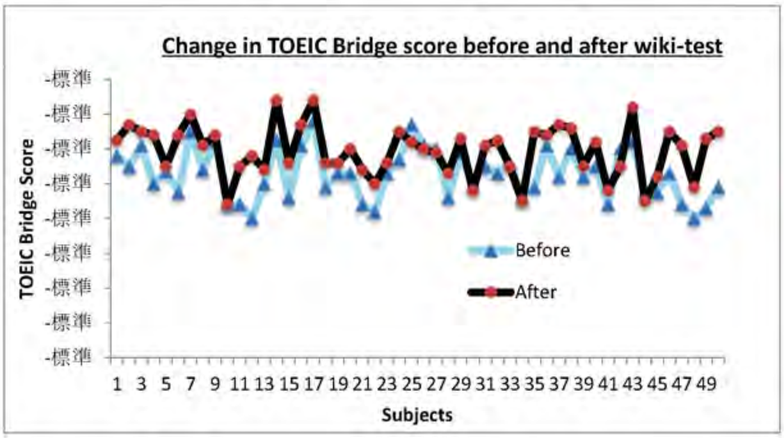

FIGURE 1. Change in TOEIC Bridge Scores Before and After the Project.
This graph indicates the TOEIC scores of all 53 students in this study. The lighter line shows TOEIC Bridge scores obtained from the first class, while the dark line shows the changed scores received after the completion of this wiki project. All but three of the 53 students showed signs of improvement in this study. There may have been external factors as several students in the group had at least one other English lesson per week.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The following results are quantitative data obtained from a questionnaire administered on the final day of class after the completion of the final wiki-test. Students were asked to provide feedback in the form of a four-point Likert-scale format on three constructs. An even-numbered scale was favoredover odd numbers so as to avoid students choosing the middle ground, indicating neither a positive nor a negative response (see Table 3).

TABLE 3. Quantitative Results

	1	2	3	4	Total
I learnt a lot of English from this project.	1	10	38	4	
I enjoyed making my wiki.	1	14	32	6	
I think wikis are useful in the TOEIC class.	3	11	37	2	53

Note. 1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Agree, 4= Strongly agree

When asked to comment on the construct “*Did you learn English from this* *wiki-project?"* 42 out of 53 students gave a positive answer, or 80% of the total. A similar trend was noticed when students were asked to comment on the construct "*I enjoyed making my wiki.*" Results here showed that 38 out of 53 students gave positive feedback, or 71% of the total. Again, a further 39 out of 53 students, 73% of the total, declared they thought wikis are a good tool for learning in the TOEIC class. Most qualitative data received indicated positive results, too (see Table 4).

At the end of the class, all students took the wiki-test of five of their class peers. Students checked the answers from the answer table at the end of each wiki page. The average score out of one hundred was 89. This in itself was a landmark, as students were commonly getting scores of less than half that in the first few classes of the term.

TABLE 4. Qualitative Results: A Brief Collection of Qualitative Data Obtained from the Post-Project Survey

What did you think of the wiki project in this class?
-- I think this is a great way to study English. -- I learnt a lot from this project. -- I think that wikis are a very useful and practical tool for learning. -- I have come to like English more now through this project. -- Wikis provided a unique way of learning as we can easily access all the work of our classmates. -- This project gave us a great insight into the lives of other members in this class. -- From looking at the wikis of others we could. -- It was really tough but I had fun making my wiki. -- I hadfun looking at the pictures and videos of other students in this class. -- Wikis are a good idea for learning but I don't think they have any direct connection to the TOEIC test.
What are the good or bad points of using wikis?
-- Wikis will definitely be useful in the future, I can't think of anything bad about them. -- It gave me a chance to think about what I was doing as I created my own test. -- I liked working on my wiki with computers in my own time. -- As I was making my wiki page I found that I was naturally picking up more English than normal. -- All the websites we used in this class were all in English so was difficult to read. -- This project is not suited for those who are not good with computers. -- The best thing was that all our hard work for this class is accessible to all class members. -- Wikis are very easy to use. -- Our wikis are accessible to anybody, but are also susceptible to ill comments or bullying. -- It was tiring to look at a computer screen for so long. -- When it came to the wiki-test test-taking stage, I found that not all students had completely finished. This was discouraging to see.
How much time did you spend making your wiki each week?
0-10 minutes = 4 people 10-30 minutes = 14 people 30-60 minutes = 16 people 1 hour plus = 19 people

The above table (Table 4) shows a brief collection of the qualitative results obtained from the end-of-term survey. From this data, which was translated from Japanese to English by the author, it can be seen that most students thoroughly enjoyed using wikis in the classroom. For some, though, the technological aspect was just too much. Some comments show signs of autonomous behavior as learners take on the responsibility of their own learning. One comment in particular showed promising signs of autonomous learning: “I liked working on my wiki with computers in my own time.”

Pros and Cons of Wikis

The use of wikis for student learning and test score augmentation did produce some slightly negative factors that teachers should be aware of. The role of the instructor is to provide constant guidance as the students work with unfamiliar technology. The monitoring of student work, once they have ascertained familiarity with the tools, is a constant duty required of the teacher. These slight additions to teaching duties are negated, though, once the numerous pros are analyzed.

As indicated by the completed wiki-generated TOEIC tests, the evidence of autonomous behavior is undeniable. Added to this, the increase in overall student motivation, the desire to attend class, and the written evidence in learners’ higher TOEIC test scores only reinforces the need for collaborative learning though wiki-test development. As cited previously, the positive comments of actual students demonstrate how the use of non-traditional, unconventional methods can garner higher-than-satisfactory results for learner and lecturer. The use of wikis for definite growth in test scores cannot be refuted.

CONCLUSION

As stated by many test-users and test-takers around the world, the TOEIC is not only recognized by important multinational companies and organizations, but it is also considered an effective tool that provides people with an accurate idea of a person’s English proficiency (Gilfert, 1996, p. 21). Given the importance of the TOEIC test, in reality there has been exceedingly scant research conducted on various testing preparation methods. The authors hope that this article will benefit and ultimately stimulate other scholars to explore further alternatives to traditional training approaches. It has now been over 30 years since the TOEIC test was initiated in Japan. Its use and importance has exponentially spread throughout the globe. Despite this phenomenon, preparation techniques have been barely altered. Today’s learners are in possession of, or have access to, many technologically advanced tools that were not invented when the TOEIC test was originally designed and introduced. Students at present have the desire to acquire knowledge though the use of appropriately designed formats and techniques that make the most of these newly designed devices.

In tandem with these new devices, a new method of instruction that allows the learners to acquire and build on their own established knowledge is crucial. Autonomous learning through the self-construction of TOEIC tests, with the aid of computers and components of Web 2.0 or higher, can provide the necessary motivation. Wikis are but one proven tool for those preparing for the TOEIC tests. In this case, wikis prove to be a successful teaching tool that initiates collaborative learning. Mobile devices and the expansion of tablet computers are another area to stimulate research. This is an area of research that is still in its primary stages.

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Content-Based Instruction

Application of Content-Based Instruction in Japanese University EFL Classes to Instill Global Awareness: The Case of the Geopolitical Challenges of Peak Oil and the End of Inexpensive Energy in Northeast Asia

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Content-based instruction (CBI) is an excellent way to improve students' overall English ability, through learning about a topic using the medium of English rather than explicitly learning about English. This case study explores how relatively complex, relevant, and timely content material, often deemed too difficult for intermediate language learners, can be effectively taught to intermediate-level EFL students without expert knowledge. The topics for instruction explored in these case studies were the geopolitics of energy policy, including peak oil and policies of inexpensive energy, which has become even more salient after the earthquakes and tsunami in northeastern Japan on March 11, 2011. This paper will begin with a brief introduction to CBI, then outline two case studies of lessons taught at two universities where the topic was adapted and taught to both low-intermediate classes, using theme-based CBI, and high-intermediate classes, using sheltered CBI.

OVERVIEW OF CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION

Definition of Content-Based Instruction

Content-based instruction (CBI) is a concept popularized in the United States by Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989) to describe a powerful and effective approach to language teaching that emphasizes the use of authentic language in context rather than teaching discrete linguistic and grammatical principles. This approach emphasizes using the target language to learn about a specific topic rather than learning about language through focusing on structure and form. Stryker and Leaver (1997) defined CBI as:

> A philosophical orientation, a methodological system, a syllabus design for a single course, or a framework for an entire program of instruction. CBI implies the total integration of language learning and content learning . . . language proficiency is achieved by shifting the focus of instruction from the language as such to the learning of language through the study of subject matter. (p. 5)

Antecedents of CBI

The *content* in CBI can be broadly defined to include anything from stock phrases for tourism through workplace language to geopolitics, but it is most often used to refer to the regular school subjects of the curriculum of native English-speaking students. CBI was developed in response to the conundrum that while ESL students are learning English, they are still responsible for mastering the same content information as native English-speaking (NES) students to succeed academically. In traditional approaches to language learning, it might take years before students' linguistic abilities develop enough to read the textbooks and follow the lectures of NES teachers, leaving the ESL students hopelessly behind.

One solution to this problem was bilingual education, in which the content areas were taught in the students' native language until they were fluent enough in the dominant language of instruction to join regular (mainstream) classes. A famous and influential example of this method is Merrill Swain's research on bilingual immersion programs (French-English) in Canada in the 1960s and 1970s where students learned school subjects in both their native language and their second language (see Swain & Lapkin, 1981). Her research was particularly influential in the development of CBI. Bilingual education was probably effective, but it required specialist teachers fluent in the native languages of the students. It might have been practical in some school districts in which nonnative speakers of English were usually from one ethnic or linguistic background (for example, Spanish, French, or Chinese), but in more heterogeneous multilingual environments, the challenges of bilingual education proved burdensome.

CBI, as conceived by Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989), was first implemented in California primary and secondary schools, with ESL students who needed to improve their English-language skills as well as follow the regular curriculum of the NES students. CBI provided a solution in which the curriculum content was not translated into the students' native language, but *scaffolded*, simplified, and made more accessible, for the students, to suit their levels of English and intellectual development. In this way, one specially trained instructor could meet the needs of students from various ethnic and linguistic backgrounds.

The theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of CBI are broad and diverse. It draws, as noted above, from Canale and Swain's (1980) ideas of communicative competence and the importance of using sociolinguistic cues, metalinguistic knowledge, and metacognitive skills to interpret and create meaning. CBI reflects the ideas of Krashen and Terrell's (1983) Natural Approach in its emphasis on the importance of large amounts of natural, comprehensible, and meaningful input. In its focus on using language to obtain knowledge or to accomplish a task, it reflects elements of Nunan's method of task-based learning (see Nunan, 2004). Finally, the emphasis on natural language used in natural situations is similar to H. D. Brown's ideas of communicative language teaching (see Brown, 1994).

Basic Tenets for Implementing CBI

Under the CBI approach, communicative competence is developed through using language to explore a topic rather than in rote "drill-and-skill" practice exercises. This does not preclude linguistic explanation but limits it to the minimum required to deal with understanding, exploring, and discussing the topic at hand.

Gibbons (2002) points out a difference between content-based instruction and contextualized communicative lessons in terms of relevance. In introducing or reviewing the conditional, a typical communicative lesson might include an activity in which students imagine going on a journey to a deserted island and what they might need. This situation naturally leads to the use of "We would need . . ." or "We would bring . . ." in a meaningful context. However, it differs from CBI in that the students have no real need to use this structure or deal with this imaginary situation in their daily lives. A lesson based on CBI might include the same conditional grammatical structure in a discussion of resource depletion eliciting utterances such as "What would we use if there was no more gasoline?" or "We would not drive as much." or "Solar power would be more common." The same grammar is introduced (or reviewed) and practiced, but in the CBI example, the context drives the use of the grammar rather than being chosen to reflect the desired grammar point. CBI advocates the use of primarily authentic materials in the accomplishment of realistic tasks, using natural language. Content should ideally be related to student needs – linguistic, cognitive, and affective – and suitable for professional and personal interests (depending on the teaching context and educational goals).

ABCs of CBI

Ideally, CBI instruction should be:

- **A**uthentic, reflecting natural language and situations
- **B**ased on a specific topic, not driven by a particular grammar point
- **C**onnected to students' needs, interests and level of linguistic and intellectual development

The design of CBI is flexible and adaptable, so it may be easier to define it as what it is *not*. CBI is *not*:

- grammar-driven,
- decontextualized,
- artificial and formulaic
- "sink-or-swim" style immersion without scaffolding or support.

Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989) outline five principal reasons for the use of CBI in language instruction. First, lessons organized using the principles of CBI reflect language as it is actually used in the real world. A CBI approach allows instructors and students to negotiate syllabi to meet their needs and interests, which increases motivation for both parties. CBI encourages students to use background knowledge (activate cognitive schema) when learning. CBI presents language with contexualized *use* rather than formalized *usage*. Such context also provides exposure to discourse patterns and sociolinguistic conventions to improve students' language skills, such as prosody. Finally, CBI focuses on exposing students to large amounts of comprehensible input (following the tenets of Krashen and Terrell, 1983).

Another advantage of the CBI approach is its integration of linguistic skills and meaning. Not only is there an integration of learning about language and learning about the content (a specific topic), but also there is an integration of language skills: students are asked to write about what they read, listen to a discussion about what they have read, then speak about what they have read and heard.

Varieties of CBI

CBI is not a monolithic approach, Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989) conceived of it as a continuum of difficulty from lessons for students of limited second language ability, to lectures at near-native levels. They termed the three types of CBI foreign language lessons: *theme-based*, *sheltered*, and *adjunct*.

Theme-Based CBI

CBI lessons of the theme-based type are characterized by having a significant component of overt linguistic and lexical instruction. However, the key consideration is that rather than as an add-on to a grammar lesson, exploring the topic is the primary impetus for the lesson or course. For example, although the desert island situation might naturally induce the use of the conditional, the principal point of the lesson is not to discuss the ecology of deserted islands but to create rote practice of the third conditional. A true CBI lesson considers topic first, then teaches the necessary linguistic information to deal with it. Much of the input may be graded or adapted to make it more accessible to the students.

Sheltered CBI

The sheltered model of CBI is similar to theme-based in that there is a focus on a single theme or subject, but it includes much less overt linguistic instruction. The source material may be simplified or authentic, but previewed with explanatory information to help comprehension. Sheltered CBI lessons require learners to have a specific minimum proficiency in English and some material may be simplified or more probably scaffolded to ensure comprehension. The key point is that English is not *taught* as such, but learned in the context of learning core subjects. Some aspects of this approach are common in primary school ESL contexts in which nonnative speakers of English take “shelter” in specialized ESL courses that mirror the mainstream curriculum, but with more linguistic support.

Adjunct CBI

Under the adjunct model, content courses are taught in tandem with (as an adjunct to) a regular class for native-speaking students. This might take place in an ESL program for university students studying Psychology, where the students take a regular Psychology 101 lecture and have an adjunct ESL writing class. The ESL writing class complements the primary course, so structures, assignments, readings, and language instruction reinforce and repeat information encountered in the native-speaker lecture.

The definitions of the categories are not rigid. The principal idea is not the specific terminology used, but rather that the continuum of instruction in CBI extends from basic language to almost mainstream NES-level classes.

CASE STUDY 1

This case study presents an overview of a theme-based CBI approach as used at a large, private university in Osaka in a first-year compulsory English communication course. The students and teacher met once a week for ninety minutes for fifteen weeks over two semesters. Because the students were not English majors and were accustomed to a more grammar-focused approach, it was important to explain the concept behind "communication," and that four skills would be used to have the students develop all areas of communication, when introducing the class to a theme-based CBI syllabus.

First-Semester Goals and Themes

The goals of the course (see the curriculum in Appendix A) were to encourage critical thinking and scaffold the students' language and cognitive ability so they could handle more advanced language situations and texts, both in and out of academia, in the future. The first "content" for this course was the students themselves. The course began by asking students to examine and discuss their own lives and experiences through themes, starting with themselves, their communities, their nation, and finally, the world. These themes serve to raise students' awareness: learning about not only themselves, but also their surroundings and their place in the world. During the first semester, this process of awareness-raising and intellectual exploration grew into a broader view of the world and prepared them to deal with various themes related to world issues in the second semester.

Second-Semester Goals and Themes

The second semester required students to delve deeper into some of the same themes as in the first semester, but in a wider context. They were asked to apply their critical thinking and knowledge of themselves to the world around them through lessons dealing with various challenges facing humanity today. These challenges included: population growth, oil shortages, and food production. The topics were not just doom-and-gloom; students also explored and speculated about potential solutions to these problems using technology and innovation. Although the emphasis on content was primary, this course maintained a concern for linguistic matters as well, as it was a four-skills course with students speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Students had to work in communicative groups using all skills to complete the classroom activities.

Evaluation and Testing

Throughout the year, the main focus of the course was the subject matter (content) that was taught. The materials from the themes were what the students had to learn. So the testing was always based on criteria and students were tested only on the materials that were covered in class or in the readings that were assigned during the class. The focus on content leveled the playing field in these non-streamed classes in which there was a wide difference in English ability.

There were no surprises, but if students missed classes, it became difficult for them to get a good grade or even pass, because the testing and the materials were based solely on the materials rather than on overall English ability.

Example Lesson Plan

This sample lesson from the second semester (see worksheet in Appendix B) is a preliminary lesson used to introduce students to oil (further lessons delve deeper into the topic), its strategic importance in the world, and the geo-politics involved in this commodity. Earlier in the semester, they learned about exponential growth and the rule of "72," so this topic builds on the schema established earlier (namely, population, food, and exponential growth) and requires students to imagine how to apply those particular concepts to the problems that the world faces today. The lesson begins by exploring oil's importance, using daily life examples and discussion in pairs or small groups. Afterwards, students share responses with the class. Next, deeper concepts are explored, such as oil's scarcity and, finally, the concept of "peak oil" (a term coined by Dr. Hubbart in the 1950s to explain the eventual decline of oil production). This lesson provides the students with a variety of concepts to ponder regarding the issue of petroleum and its relationship, not only to the modern world, but also to their lives. Therefore, during the lesson, the most important consideration is for students to comprehend the crucial role of this commodity in the world and in each of our lives. The subject is also explored from various perspectives, allowing the students to consider not only the implications of humanity running low on oil, but to weigh the opinions of critics of the theory with inquiries as to why the topic is not widely covered in mainstream media. This breadth of material illustrates the other important benefit of CBI, that students are required to improve and increase their critical thinking skills, particularly what Dewey calls "reflective thinking" (as cited in Fisher, 2001).

Reflection on what was learned is a critical part of any learning process (Fisher, 2001). In this course, reflection takes place through learning portfolios and reflective journals, two powerful learning tools to help students process and retain what they have learned. In this course, the interaction was not only between the instructor and students, but also between students.

CASE STUDY 2

Sheltered CBI: An Introduction to the Geopolitics of Oil

Student A: "I could learn about the problems of oil in this class and it was scary."

Student B: "Oil is going to be a problem in the world soon. What can human society do?"

Setting and Context

The one-semester course *An Introduction to the Geopolitics of Oil* was taught in the Department of International Relations at a large, private Japanese university over five years between 2005-2010 as part of the university's second-year international research-oriented content-based courses. The general departmental guideline stated that the course should focus primarily on content taught with appropriate scaffolding, with a secondary focus on English for academic purposes (EAP). The classes were non-streamed electives, so English proficiency was varied. Nevertheless, students were usually motivated because the courses related to their majors and they wished to prepare for future academic courses taught in English.

The course (see Appendix C for the complete syllabus) was designed to develop academic language and study skills through the topic of oil and geopolitics by answering questions such as: Why is oil a national-security issue in the US? Why does its supply have to be protected at all costs? The course began by examining the importance of oil to our modern society and how it came to be treated differently from other commodities. Later, the class discussed oil and the environment. The concept of Peak Oil was introduced and its effects studied, using case studies on Japan and Cuba and discussing how each country dealt with energy deficits. The course concluded with a five-paragraph academic essay and a short test based on the content of its modules.

EAP Components

The course differed from an ordinary course on the geopolitics of oil, not in content, but in the provisions made to facilitate L2 learners' comprehension of the course material, as well as help them develop academic language skills necessary for further study. The syllabus combined various EAP components with the content to allow students opportunities to develop four skills authentically. The principal academic skills were:

Reading skills: Students read for primary and supporting ideas, examples, and details; skim and scan texts for key ideas; summarize and reinterpret information in diagrams.

Writing skills: Students write summaries and opinions; plan and write a five-paragraph argumentative essay in APA format.

Listening skills: Students listen to academic lectures while taking notes; rephrase the notes in their own words

Speaking skills: Students answer questions and give information, express opinions, disagree or agree, clarify ideas, summarize principal points.

Materials and Implementation of the CBI Approach

Instead of using mass-produced textbooks, the instructor created or adapted all the materials, primarily from books and articles on oil and geopolitics as well as web resources such as *theoildrum.com* and *YouTube*. Students were expected to have access to the Internet during the course, and there was an online written component, with discussion on each module, to be completed by the night before the next week's class.

Appendix D is an example reading used in the course about Canadian oil sands and their impact on the environment. It includes reading comprehension and an academic writing component focusing on summaries. Before attempting to read the text, students watched a video clip to build vocabulary implicitly and in context. After reading, students completed comprehension exercises and wrote a summary of the article. Their homework was to write a second opinion paragraph, post it to the Blackboard learning system online, and read and discuss each other's opinions.

Another example of how content can be adapted to the classroom is the module *How Much Oil Is There in a Typical Breakfast?* (based on Heeter, 2006). The lesson starts with a pre-reading and discussion activity in which students are asked what they had for breakfast and where it probably came from. This is followed by a vocabulary matching exercise, after which students scan the reading once for the principal idea of the passage. It concludes with comprehension (true/false) exercises and, finally, students are asked to use the information in the passage to draw a diagram of the stages of how the principal foods mentioned in the passage got on the author's plate. The purpose of the module is to get students thinking about how many modern, urban societies, such as Japan and Korea, rely on imported food, the various processes it goes through, and the amount of energy expended before it, finally, arrives on their plates. This module teaches them that the process is precarious and makes them consider whether it is sustainable, especially with the awakening of China and India causing a new competition for food (and energy). In the final speaking section, each group considers what they have learned at a deeper cognitive level and is given the chance to process the content and stimulate the use of any new vocabulary they have learned until then.

CONCLUSION

Although developed originally for use in ESL immersion contexts, in Japan, CBI has been widely used at the university level with relatively advanced EFL students. However, CBI is flexible and effective in EFL contexts even at beginning levels. It has even been effectively used with beginning-level sixth-grade elementary school students to introduce global issues (Sakamoto, 2011). The two case studies illustrated how difficult content related to oil, geopolitics, globalization, and economics can be taught to Japanese university students of varied linguistic levels to allow them to improve their language skills, their critical thinking skills, and their overall academic skills. In each CBI lesson, there is a lot of preparation and dedication required to make a course a success. Instructors must ensure that the material is suitable for the students' levels and interests: difficult materials could overwhelm many students or they may become bored with the same types of materials week after week. In addition, instructors also have to be very knowledgeable about the topics covered and keep the materials up to date. However, sheltered or theme-based content-based instruction employed with EAP skills at the level of any EFL or ESL student can be effective in promoting authentic and meaningful use of language as well as developing critical thinking skills. The motivation and the quality of student English output make using CBI rewarding for both the instructor and the student.

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APPENDIX A

Sample Curriculum for One-Year Theme-Based CBI Course

Themes for first-year communication classes	
1st semester	**2nd semester**
Self and family	Exponential growth
Community (university)	Population
Region	Oil/Food/Water
Country	Global climate changes/Solutions

Note. Each thematic unit covers about three 90-minute lessons

Appendix B

Sample Theme-Based Lesson: 2nd Semester

The Most Important Commodity for the Modern World

Brainstorm: What products have you used today that contained oil, or were touched by oil?
(Hint: Think about how you got here, what you are wearing, what you ate, and where you live.)

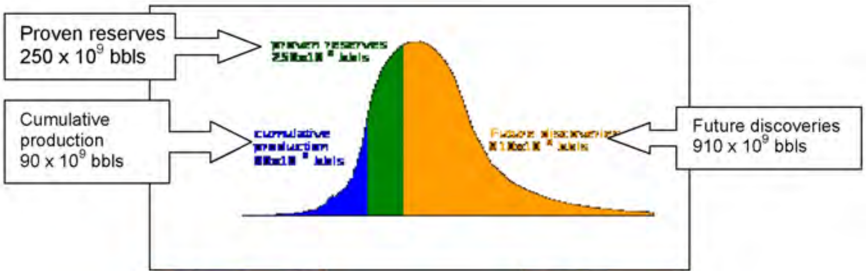
Look at the picture: What in this picture has oil been used for (Write any ideas you can):

As you can see from your list, oil touches every aspect of our lives:
TRANSPORTATION/FOOD/CONSUMER GOODS/ENERGY

FROM WHEN WE ARE BABIES
Population of the world today is more than 7 billion (7,000,000,000) people!

HUMANS USE 83 million barrels per day: that is 83,000,000 DAILY
(Remember when the Exxon tanker crashed in Alaska 20 years ago and they are still cleaning! That was around 45 minutes worth of oil!)

Peak Oil



HOMEWORK

WHERE IS THE PEAK
on the Mickey Mouse Oil Pyramid?

1. **Over the next few days, look around you and notice all the items that depend on oil for everything from transportation to packaging.**

2. **Why should we in Japan be worried about this?**

APPENDIX C

Course Syllabus for Introduction to Geopolitics of Oil

Modules	Main EAP focus
Introduction: Goals of the course.	Listening, speaking
Oil and geopolitics: A brief history (PowerPoint)	Listening, reading
Imported oil and its role in shaping US foreign policy	Reading
How much oil is there in a typical breakfast?	Reading
Tar sands and environmental issues (Case study: Canada)	Reading
Official reasons for the high price of oil	
CNN documentary: *If the Oil Runs Out* (Video)	Reading
The concept of Peak Oil	Listening
	Reading, speaking
Consequences of Peak Oil (PowerPoint)	Listening, speaking
Promoting alternative energies: Case study: Japan research session	Reading, speaking
(how to write a research paper)	Writing
What happened when the oil ran out in Cuba? Case study (Video)	Listening, speaking
Final test; written assignment due	Writing

APPENDIX D

Sample Scaffolded Reading Exercise

Tar sands and environmental issues (Case study: Canada)

FORT MCMURRAY, Alberta – Huge mines here turning tar sands into cash for Canada and oil for the United States are taking an unexpectedly high environmental toll, sucking water from rivers and natural gas from wells and producing large amounts of gases linked to global warming. The digging – into an area the size of Hokkaido – has been fast, thanks to high oil prices, new technology and an unending US thirst for the oil.

….

Many Native Indian communities on the river say that further reductions in the flow of water during the winter will make the river unhealthy and that many fish will not survive. And they believe the waters have been contaminated by someone. Native residents of Fort Chipewyan, a village of 1,200 on the shores of Lake Athabasca, have experienced unusually high rates of rare cancers.

...

Some used sites are reclaimed and new trees planted in the old empty mines. One place now has 40-foot jack pine and spruce, and sings with the call of songbirds that flit over hiking trails. “Beware of the Wildlife,” a sign warns. “It doesn’t look bad. But it certainly isn’t like the original forest,” said one commentator. “We have to wait and see if this ecosystem they have put back actually is going to be sustainable.

From:
http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/content/article/2006/05/30/AR2006053001429_pf.html
(Modified by instructor)

Comprehension Exercise

1. What is mined in Alberta? How is it mined?
2. Is it good or bad for the environment? How? (Find examples in the article.)
3. Into what is it converted? How?
4. How is Canada going to become important to the US?
5. How many barrels are produced per day, approximately?
6. How much water is used?
7. How are companies trying to fix the problem?

Written Exercise

8. Write a one-paragraph summary of this article. Use a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence.
9. Write your opinion, in one paragraph, about what you think about the situation.

Content-Based Instruction Considerations for Tertiary-Level Instruction

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Content-based instruction (CBI) is still in the early stages of implementation and development as an approach to English language in the Korean context. One area of particular concern is the tertiary level, where university-level courses are being offered with English as the medium of instruction by content specialists, and in many cases, to students who are less than fluent in English. Lack of institutional support often exacerbates the problem. This paper considers the various models of CBI and their adaptability to Korean university-level instruction. As well, the rationale for and benefits of CBI will be examined, program design is considered, requirements of the CBI course instructor and anticipated program outcomes are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

English-based content classes, courses, and curricula are becoming increasingly common at the university level in Korea. In the field of English language teaching, this is more commonly referred to as content-based instruction (CBI). In the search for the best mix of elements to fit the Korean tertiary context, within content-based instruction for English language learning, several models of CBI are presented in this paper, with particular interest placed on the sheltered model, which shows promise for implementation at the tertiary level. Next, considerations in planning a CBI program are offered, including course design, student needs assessment, program coordinator, course instructors, and support services. The requirements of CBI course instructors are described: content knowledge, content pedagogy, understanding language acquisition, language pedagogy, and knowledge of materials development and selection.

How the content material can be presented in the classroom in the second language to make it as easily comprehensible as possible is discussed. The oral presentation of material, audio-visual presentation, and presentation of material in graphic and written form are all discussed along with suggestions for their enhancement. The paper concludes with a brief discussion of long-term effects and outcomes of CBI.

AN OVERVIEW OF CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION

The idea of content-based instruction is not new. There have been continuous efforts since the early 1980s to help English learners achieve academic success by linking content learning and language. Content-based instruction is a teaching method that emphasizes learning *about something* rather than learning *about language*. However, it is *through* a second language that the students learn *about* that something.

Several different instructional models have been presented to enhance English learners' language learning or accelerate language acquisition. These models are more often employed in adult ESL settings found in English language institutes or college ESL classes than with lower-level or younger students.

The term *content-based instruction* is commonly used to describe approaches to integrating language and content instruction, but it is not always used in the same way. There is a variety of definitions of *content*. However, all of the programs, models, and approaches that integrate language and content share a common phenomenon: students engage in some way with content using a non-native language.

Content- and Language-Driven CBI Programs

At one end of the continuum of content and language integration programs is the content-driven language program. The most salient example of such a program is immersion, an educational model most commonly found in elementary schools where students are educated in a non-native language. The focus of instruction is on content: it is expected that students will master the regular school curriculum, even though they are learning it in a language that is new to them.

At the extreme other end of the continuum are language-driven programs. In these programs, language has primacy, and content facilitates language growth. Content learning may be considered a gratuitous but welcome by-product, but neither students nor their teachers are held accountable for ensuring that students learn it. Here, content provides rich opportunities for meaningful and purposeful language use. In this program design, content taught in the foreign language enriches or reinforces instruction in the student's native language, but does not substitute for it. In fact, the responsibility for content learning lies with another teacher.

In some language-driven programs, the objectives of the language curriculum strongly influence decisions about how content is integrated with language instruction. Teachers may, but need not, consult with colleagues in other disciplines to determine which, when, and how content will be integrated with language. Topics and tasks for language practice may be drawn from many disciplines in a single lesson or unit, with the primary criterion for selection based on their usefulness in furthering language goals.

In other language-driven classrooms, teachers may decide to draw on only one discipline, particularly if that discipline is a high-priority subject in the school, such as mathematics. These language-driven teachers choose to use content-based activities that allow students to practice the language objectives they were expected to learn while at the same time reinforcing a content area that has high priority in their schools.

Models Between the Extremes

Other forms of content/language integration include (1) subject courses taught in the second/foreign language, (2) subject courses taught in conjunction with language classes, and (3) theme-based language courses that draw on one or more disciplines to develop language competence. Oxford (1993) describes the three main in-between models - sheltered, adjunct, and theme-based models - as follows.

Sheltered Model

Sheltered instruction is an approach to use second language acquisition strategies while teaching content area instruction. In the sheltered model, academic subject matter is taught by content teachers in content areas, such as science, mathematics, history, or literature, using language and context to make the information comprehensible. Sheltered courses are subject courses taught in the L2 using linguistically sensitive teaching strategies in order to make content more accessible to learners who have less than native-like proficiency.

Characteristics of sheltered instruction include (1) comprehensible input, (2) warm and affective environments, (3) high levels of student interaction, (4) student-centered, hands-on tasks, and (5) comprehensive planning. Sheltered courses are content-driven: the goal is for students to master content; students are evaluated in terms of content learning, and language learning is secondary. In the sheltered model, content courses are taught in the second language by a content area specialist most often to a group of ESL learners or by a language teacher with content-area knowledge.

Adjunct Model

The adjunct model of instruction constitutes a more sophisticated pattern for the integration of language and content than the sheltered model. It aims at connecting a specially designed language course with a regular academic course. In the adjunct model, students enroll in two linked courses simultaneously - a content course and a language course, which is the adjunct course. The content instructor focuses on academic concepts while the language instructor emphasizes language skills using the content-area subject as a background for contextualizing the language learning process.

The rationale of this model is that the linked courses can assist students developing academic coping strategies and cognitive skills which can be transferred to other disciplines. Unlike sheltered courses, where students are all learning content in an L2, in the adjunct model content classes may be comprised of both L1 and L2 content learners, but language instruction is almost always for L2 learners. The adjunct model is suitable for high intermediate to advanced levels.

Theme-Based Model

Theme-based instruction is structured around topics or themes. Major principles underlying the theme-based model contain automaticity, meaningful learning, intrinsic motivation, and communicative competence. Its primary purpose is to help students develop second language competence within specific topic areas. The topics chosen can be several unrelated topics or one major topic.

Theme-based courses are taught by language instructors, not content specialists, to L2 learners who are evaluated in terms of their language growth. Students (and their teachers) are not necessarily accountable for mastery of content. Indeed, content learning is incidental. The theme-based model is mainly employed in adult schools, language institutions, and all other language programs. It is suitable for low to advanced learners.

In summary, these three models of CBI share a number of common features. First, authentic tasks and materials are used in the three models. Second, they all share the principle that language help is provided for students to better deal with the content material. They also differ in several ways, including the course aim and learning objectives, instructor's roles, students' proficiency levels, and evaluation approaches.

REASONS FOR IMPLEMENTING CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION

The benefits of the approach are directly or indirectly associated with an extensive body of research from a variety of fields. Strong empirical support for CBI can be found in second language acquisition research, in training studies and in cognitive psychology, as well as in the outcomes documented by successful programs in a variety of contexts and levels of instruction. Brown (2007) provides ample support for CBI in (a) the results of empirical research, (b) theoretical research in language learning, and (c) pedagogy.

Empirical evidence supporting the use of instructional models that integrate subject matter and language can be found among immersion programs. Dual immersion program models in the U.S. provide supporting evidence. For example, Spanish-speaking students learning math in English outperformed Spanish-speaking ESL-only students on an English test.

Content-based ESL instruction is consistent with the view that there are different proficiencies of social/conversational and academic English. English learners quickly gain social English proficiency. CBI is also consistent with the theory that language structure and language in general are acquired through comprehension, that is, when students understand messages. Accordingly, comprehensible input based on content, not grammar, will accelerate second language acquisition processes.

There are a number of convincing reasons as to why ESL instruction should integrate content into language teaching pedagogy: Learning authentic content can be highly motivating. Reading material included in content-based ESL instruction will help students acquire technical vocabulary as well as academic grammar. The content presented in content-based ESL instruction is cognitively demanding, resulting in cognitive growth as well as linguistic development.

CBI PROGRAM PLANNING

Program Design and Planning

In planning a content-based program which includes language learning, the first consideration is the overall purpose of the new program. Experience, in US university systems and elsewhere, has shown that following certain important principles will enhance the success of such programs.

One of the most important decisions that must be made when designing a content-based program relates to the instructional model that will be adopted. It has been suggested that the course design most suitable to the Korean university program is a version of the sheltered model of instruction.

In designing a CBI program, it is essential to begin with an assessment of student needs (Brown, 2004; Oxford, 1993). Needs assessment in most English for academic purposes (EAP) programs focuses on students' and professors' perceptions of what students need to succeed within the existing situation. It is very important that the CBI instructor be aware of the English average proficiency level and the range of the English proficiency levels of the students in the CBI course to be taught, as well as to know their pre-course proficiency in the subject matter to be taught.

Because of the amount of coordination involved in implementing a CBI program within the larger curriculum of a university major which includes both CBI required and elective courses and quite possibly involving faculty members from several different departments, it is extremely important that the program have a program coordinator and that the coordinator be well chosen. The program coordinator is responsible for maintaining strong communication among all involved in the program.

A CBI program will succeed only if it is effectively implemented in the classroom. This depends largely on the commitment and expertise of participating faculty, as well as on sufficient administrative support. Selecting the right instructors for the CBI program is crucial to its success; therefore, it is important that content-area faculty not only be well versed in the subject matter and have a high level of English proficiency and language knowledge and awareness, they must also be particularly sensitive to the needs and abilities of their students as both content learners and second-language (English) learners.

In addition to selecting an appropriate model of instruction and effective teaching methods, designers of CBI programs must also decide what types of support services are needed to help students succeed. It is essential in a CBI program to offer enough support to help participating instructors implement the program effectively. Experienced EFL instructors, or preferably EFL teacher-trainers, should be made available to support the CBI instructor in lesson planning and materials development and design.

If possible, content and language tutors should be assigned to help students cope with difficult language and academic content, and to serve a counseling function. Such a student support component can improve communication with students and help instructors deal with problems early on, before they become serious.

CBI Course Instructor Requirements

The integration of content and language may pose unique challenges to instructors whose experience and training may be either as a content specialist or a language specialist. Few faculty have had training in both. Those experienced in content-based approaches to language instruction have noted that there are specific strategies and skills that enhance teacher effectiveness. To be successful, it will be helpful for CBI instructors to be well prepared in the following areas.

Content Knowledge: Obviously, it will be hard to teach content if instructors do not know it themselves. While content instructors will be prepared in their own disciplines, it may be particularly challenging for instructors trained as language specialists who may not have learned in-depth the content to be taught.

Content Pedagogy: Because learning content in a new language can pose difficulties for students, it is essential that CBI instructors have a repertoire of language learning strategies at their disposal to give students multiple opportunities to access content in meaningful, comprehensible ways.

Understanding of Language Acquisition: All instructors in content-based programs will benefit from an understanding of the processes involved in second language acquisition. For effective acquisition, learners need large amounts of comprehensible input, large amounts of interaction in the L2 with others, and large amounts of comprehensible output.

Language Pedagogy: Promoting language growth can and should be part of the CBI instructors' responsibility, even in programs where language is not the primary goal. Language learning can be planned as part of every content lesson, and instructors can use strategies drawn from language pedagogy to help students gain language skills, and in doing so, they will further the goals of content instruction.

Knowledge of Materials Development and Selection: When students learn content through a new language, they will need a particularly large variety of instructional materials. Print and digital resources developed for native speakers may need modification or adaptation to make them appropriate for the language learner.

Understanding of Student Assessment: Course instructors will need to understand the principles that underlie assessment across disciplines. It may be necessary to integrate language and content assessments.

Practices and Materials for Classroom Presentation

Because the material in a CBI course is presented in the students' second language, special care must be taken to insure that the content is presented in a comprehensible matter. This is particularly true in content-driven courses where the instructor is a content specialist. Care must be taken in how material is presented orally by the CBI instructor and how it is presented visually in both graphic and written form.

Oral Presentation of Material

The projection of voice by the lecturer or instructor is important in any presentation situation, but it is particularly important when the message is being delivered in a second language. A key to second language acquisition is large amounts of comprehensible input. For this to occur in the classroom situation, the quality of the delivery of the course content is critical. Incorporating the following into the presentation of the lesson or lecture will contribute to the delivery of highly comprehensible input.

- Speak at a slightly slower than normal speed, especially if you are a naturally fast speaker. Pause slightly longer than normal between breath groups, not between individual words, to slow speaking speed and to give students time to comprehend what was said. Pausing between individual words make the speech sound unnatural and is more difficult to understand. Speaking quickly to showcase the instructor's superior proficiency is counterproductive, resulting in student lack of comprehension.
- Speak loudly and enunciate words, especially uncommon words. Clarity aids comprehension. One will find that the speaker tires rapidly if trying to enunciate while speaking fast.
- Emphasize important points by changing speaking speed and tone of voice similar to the way one would in emphasizing a point in your L1. Even more loudly and slowly may be appropriate, depending on the students' L2 proficiency. This emphasis may be supplemented with gestures and other body language and/or by writing the emphasized material in the board.
- Repetition is a very effective devise in making input comprehensible. Repeat L2 words, expressions, and structures word-for-word that you think may be problematic for students. Paraphrasing difficult vocabulary, expressions, and grammatical structures is a similar way of clarifying what was said. Using these two devices together, word-for-word repetition and paraphrasing, can be even more effective and is recommended.
- Use relatively short sentences and frequently used words as much as possible. Spoken language is naturally in shorter sentences (and in partial sentences) than written language, and only a small portion or our passive vocabulary is our active vocabulary. Explain technical terminology and uncommon words when they are used, just as one would when speaking to an L1 audience. A speaker's aim should always be for their audience to understand their message.
- Do not read the material you are presenting. When reading natural intonation is lost, breath-group pauses are omitted, and longer sentences are used, making the message more difficult to understand.
- Elicit student participation in the presentation by asking questions about the topic at hand, about their personal experiences in relation to the topic, etc. to increase motivation and to incorporate interaction into the presentation. Interaction is an essential part of education, and spoken interaction is an essential part of language acquisition.
- Check student comprehension regularly by asking questions to the class as a whole or to individual students. Review pertinent parts when it is found that they were not understood clearly. This functions also to increase teacher-student interaction in the classroom.
- Allow students to ask questions during the class. It is common in conversation to ask for confirmation (e.g., So you mean that . . .) and for clarification (e.g., Could you explain that again, please?), so these should be part of the CBI classroom procedure also. This also increases teacher-student interaction. If clarification is not allowed, not understanding one point may easily lead to not being able to understand related material that follows in the presentation.
- Do not regularly translate material presented in the L2 back into the L1.

Rather that assisting in language learning, it actually hinders it. Learners come to expect the material to be presented in the L1, so they do not pay particular attention to the earlier L2 presentation. Use the L1 in class only when an L2 explanation is highly inefficient.

Audio-Visual Presentation Materials

Audio-visual learning, created through the use of film, video, DVDs, and online video, can help students deal successfully with sophisticated textual material. Imagery strengthens the association between already learned information and new incoming information by providing students with both relevant schema background and authentic natural language. In addition, audio-visual incorporates two modes of learning at the same time: visual and auditory learning channels.

Graphic and Written Materials

Written text, as it appears in the majority of college-level textbooks, especially that in a foreign language, can become overwhelming to the student of an English-medium CBI course. In addition to oral explanation and the use of video material, textbook material may be supplemented with CBI-instructor produced handouts and PowerPoint presentations to make the material more accessible to the student.

Instructor-prepared handouts can easily be more inaccessible to the student than the textbook material itself if not carefully constructed. The following suggestions hold for the preparation of PowerPoint presentations as well as for instructional handouts.

- Try not to fit too much information on a single page. Cluttering makes material more difficult to decode. Use suitably large font size and supply ample spacing between lines. Use easy-to-read font rather than a font style that is difficult to decipher.
- Present material in outline form, using alternating numbering and lettering for different levels of items as well as multiple levels of indentation.
- Present material in (1) numbered, (2) lettered, or (3) bullet-pointed lists. Alternately, material can be presented in text by (a) lettering or (b) numbering individual items listed within a sentence to make them more easily readable.
- Use **bold font**, *italics*, or ***both*** to emphasize important material presented. Colored font is also an option when working in a color medium.
- Present material in tables, line graphs, bar graphs, pie charts, flow charts, and in diagrams whenever possible, rather than in plain text.
- Add the definitions (meaning) on difficult lexical items (words) in parentheses, and refrain (keep) from using overly complex sentence structures.
- Punctuate liberally. Where commas are optional, use them. They aid in clarification.

CONCLUSION

Few longitudinal studies have been carried out on content-based language instruction. However, Song (2006) reports the results of a five-year study of the effects of content-based ESL instruction on students' future academic performance. Students simultaneously enrolled in a content-linked ESL program were compared to students who did not receive content-based ESL instruction. The study found that students enrolled in the content-linked ESL program not only achieved higher pass rates and better grades in the ESL course, but also performed better in subsequent ESL and developmental English courses.

The indications are that CBI can produce quite desirable results. However, to do so, the program must be well planned. The correct balance of content and language needs to be determined considering the English proficiency of the students as well as their already acquired content knowledge. Language teaching methodology support and content teaching support should be made available to the course instructor as needed because it is rare for an instructor to be highly trained in both language teaching and content teaching. Presentation of content needs to be adjusted to be language learner-friendly. Students, too, must be provided with support in the form of tutors. And CBI programs need to be closely monitored and regularly adjusted. If these requirements are met, content courses delivered in English at the tertiary level in Korea will be able to contribute significantly to increasing university student English proficiency effectively and efficiently.

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Cross-cultural / Intercultural Communication

An Evaluation of Audio Diaries as a Research Method in Language Research

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This paper discusses the use of audio diaries in the context of an ongoing study on the effect of intercultural contact on L2 motivation. Two groups of Japanese students kept detailed records of their daily interactions with international students. Ten participants were from an international university, and ten were from a non-international university. Results from a follow-up survey indicate that students kept mostly honest and accurate diaries, the completion of daily diaries didn't interfere with their schoolwork, and students were able to easily use technology to complete and submit their diary tasks. However, results also indicate that a monetary incentive was necessary for students to complete the data collection, and participants found it very difficult to record reflective thoughts on attitude and motivation change. In light of these results, this paper examines the potential for voice-recorded audiodiaries as a research tool for obtaining detailed personal information regarding language behavior.

INTRODUCTION

As technological improvements occur at a rapid rate, research methods sometimes lag in their ability to keep up. Diaries are a well-established method of self-reporting detailed data. In the field of social research, paper diaries have had the following uses: data collection as a researcher-driven method, production of a factual account written spontaneously by the diarist, and as a log of events written by an ethnographer (Bryman, 2001). However, the audio diary method, in which participants record data on a voice-recording device, is an underused, innovative approach that lacks the literature of other diary methods (Worth, 2009). In light of this research gap, and in line with the belief that digital tools are becoming increasingly available to teachers and students, this paper will attempt to evaluate the usefulness of the audio diary method in the context of a semi-longitudinal study on intercultural interaction.

This paper will first review past diary method literature, with particular emphasis on the audio diary method. Then, the current study, which implements the audio diary method, will be described. Results from a follow-up survey given to participants at the end of one data collection period will be outlined with the purpose of commenting on the reliability and usefulness of digital voice-recorded diaries as a research tool and the audio diary method as a research approach.

THE DIARY METHOD: LITERATURE REVIEW

In various fields, researchers have strived to develop methodologies of data collection that facilitate the exploration of the more intimate moments of human behavior. However, ethical and practical difficulties have made this endeavor one of the more challenging dilemmas of the qualitative researcher. The evolution of diary studies has led to a broad scope of methodologies that fall under the research approach “diary methods” (Bell, 1998). Often used in the health research field, diaries have the advantage over other qualitative methods in that they offer a unique insight into the participants’ *reality* (Keleher & Verrinder, 2003). Specifically, diaries can provide quantitative-like data through strict prescriptive guidelines for participants, less-structured texts of reflection, or records of emotions about particular experiences (Corti, 1993; Thomson & Holland, 2005; Bell, 1998; Arndt, 2009; Thomas, 2007).

In the context of language learning research, the diary method has manifested itself in the form of the “language diary technique.” Similar to other diaries, the language diary is a tool used to obtain self-reported data about personal experiences; however, the language diary looks at the record of a speakers’ perceptions of their language choice over a given time period, thus providing the researcher with insights into the basis for those language choices (Pennington et al., 1992). Language diaries have been used successfully in a variety of contexts to obtain detailed information about participants’ language behavior over a period of time, in several settings, and with different interlocutors (Gibbons, 1987; Lawson & Sachdev, 2000; Pennington et al., 1992; Romaine, 1983; Ure, 1979). In a recent study, language diaries were kept by 21 Sylheti-Bengali students over 4 days, which yielded information on how students used their Bengali. The 364 diary entries yielded “rich data” concerning the variation of multilingual behavior as a function of the immediate sociolinguistic context however, the number of entries per participant was extremely varied (Lawson & Sachdev, 2004, p. 56).

The inconsistency in the quantity (and quality) of data in Lawson and Sachdev’s (2004) study across all participants highlights two limitations of the diary method. First, written diaries can pose a problem for those who have limited literacy skills. In foreign language research, this disadvantage is compounded for participants who are expected to write down experiences in a language other than their mother tongue. Secondly, for many, writing regular detailed accounts of experiences can become alaborious chore (McGregor, 2006; Milligan et al., 2005). This phenomenon, referred to as “respondent fatigue” is a well documented occurrence that can adversely affect data collectedover longer periods of time (Biderman, 1967; Biderman et al., 1967).

The audio diary method, in which a voice-recording device is used to record diary entries, has the potential to nullify the disadvantages of traditional paper diary methods. Participants are not restricted by their written literacy when recording events. Furthermore, because of the less cumbersome physical activity of making an audio recording, participants can more easily give moment-to-moment accounts of their experiences and feelings. In support of this claim, Hislop et al. (2005), in a paper that systematically evaluates the audio diary method, argues that “seen through the frame of reference of the respondents, audio diaries provide insights into the roles and relationships, and life events and transitions which impact on everyday life" (p. 32). In Monrouxe's (2009) research with medical students about their development of a professional medical identity, audio diaries were used to capture their "conversational narratives." Upon analysis of the narratives, it was remarked of this particular diary method: "this discursive think-aloud process is an unintended, yet profound insight into an individual's sense-making activity" (p. 69).

The following section will describe an ongoing research project in the field of L2 that implements the audio diary method. The quantity of data produced after one data collection period, as well as feedback from participants, will inform the evaluation of the use of audio diaries in the field of foreign language research.

AN ONGOING STUDY: USING DIGITAL VOICE-RECORDERS IN INTERCULTURAL CONTACT RESEARCH

Our on-going comparative study attempts to examine the effect of intercultural contact on Japanese students' L2 motivation at an international university and a non-international university in Japan. The study uses a mixed-method research design, which includes questionnaires and audio diaries. Audio diaries were used to examine daily intercultural contact episodes of first-year Japanese students attending the two universities. The qualitative data was collected with the hope of uncovering the contextual circumstances of contact and its effect on changes in attitudes towards the international community and L2 motivation.

Most studies have only used questionnaires to collect data on intercultural contact and its effect on behavior (see review, Pettigrew, 1998). While this may be a good instrument for determining the quantity of contact over short-term periods, it is difficult for questionnaires to distinguish between the various degrees of length and quality of these interactions over longer periods of time. In addition, it is extremely difficult to devise a questionnaire that reliably tells us what kind of emotional reactions or motivational changes might occur as a result of these different types of encounters. Location, ethnicity of interlocutors, language used, medium of communication, and a host of other situational variables make questionnaires an incomplete research tool for investigating intercultural contact. Regarding this problem, Csizer and Kormos (2009) suggest "diary studies conducted with students who frequently experience contact would also provide more insight into the role contact plays in foreign language learning" (p. 180). In response to this, for the qualitative component of this research, we have chosen the audio diary method to uncover the moment-to-moment interactions of Japanese EFL students in order to more completely determine the kinds of intercultural contact occurring in these two environments.

In the one month before the end of the first semester of the academic year, 10 first-year Japanese students from each university were given digital voice recorders and were asked to keep daily (Monday-to-Friday) voice-recorded, audio diaries for four weeks, based on their experiences interacting with international students or other foreigners. In the week before the data collection period started, all 20 students attended a training workshop at their university conducted by the researcher and research collaborator. The purpose of this workshop was to ensure quality data collection from students. This was an important step in the data collection stage because it was imperative that students understood clearly the procedures, the expectations of the researcher, and the importance of their role in the study.

The following instructions were communicated to the participants during the workshop:

1. Daily diary entries must be at least two minutes and at most five minutes in length.
2. Entries must outline interactions with international students or foreigners that occurred in any language outside of language class.
3. Diary entries must be spoken in Japanese.
4. Interactions need to be personal communication experiences but can include face-to-face, phone, email, or online communication.
5. Every Saturday, the previous week's voice-recorded diary entries must be sent to the researcher by email.

In order to guide students on what to record, students were encouraged to answer the following questions during each diary entry:

1. Who did I speak to?
2. Where did I have the interaction?
3. What were the topics of communication?
4. What languages did I speak?
5. How long did I speak?
6. How did the contact make me feel?
7. If I didn't communicate with an international student or foreigner, why not?

In addition to these guidelines, examples of acceptable audio diary entries were given to students. If students did not report any interactions, they still needed to submit a diary entry identifying reasons to account for their lack of contact. Students were instructed to speak Japanese into their voice recorders because the researchers did not want the data to be negatively affected by any lack of foreign language ability. A research assistant later translated all voice-recorded data from Japanese into English. We acknowledged that keeping accurate diaries every day for one month can be a daunting task, and subjects could be susceptible to "respondent fatigue" therefore, each participant was given a monetary incentive of 5,000 yen. This incentive was paid at the successful completion of the data collection period.

At the conclusion of the data collection period, an online follow-up questionnaire was emailed to all 20 participants with the purpose of identifying any challenges students had during the diary process. It was hoped that results from the survey would help the researchers evaluate and improve implementation procedures of the audio diary method for the following collection period. Sixteen of the 20 participants responded anonymously to the post-data collection questionnaire, which consisted of seven items. Five items were measured using a five-point Likert scale, one item listed five unrelated options as possible answers, and one item was open-ended and required students to write comments related to keeping audio diaries. Instructions, specific items, and rating scales were translated from English into Japanese to avoid any language-related misinterpretations.

The following section reports on the quantity of data collected during the above study as well as participants' responses to the post-data collection survey.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As depicted in Table 1, the study yielded a large amount of data (over 800 minutes) that provided information on participants' interlocutors, where the intercultural interactions occur, the type of and duration of interactions, and language used for interaction episodes. The analysis (which is beyond the scope of this paper) involved a relatively straightforward tabulation of these categories. In addition, participants also reported on their reactions, and reflected on any resulting attitudinal or motivational changes after interactions. A content analysis (again, beyond the scope of this paper) was eventually applied to this data and the researchers were able to categorize, code and quantify themes after reading the translated transcriptions of the diaries. The researchers felt that participants did particularly well describing their interactions; however, many participants failed to explain their reactions and the effects of the contact episodes. This information was especially lacking from the group of students attending the non-international university, presumably because of the diminished levels of opportunity for intercultural contact.

TABLE 1. Quantity of Data from Audio Diaries

	Number of entries	Average length of entry (minutes)	Total (minutes)
Audio diary data	400	2.04	816

Figures 1 through 6 display responses from the 16 participants who completed the follow-up questionnaire. Each figure graphically represents participants' responses to each item on the questionnaire. At the end of the online survey, students were required to write a comment reflecting on their experience. These comments help interpret the figures.

Figures 1 and 2 show that even though students did not especially enjoy the process of keeping an audio diary (mean value for item 1 is 2.8), students claimed the diaries explicitly motivated them to talk to international students (mean value for item 2 is 3.7). One insightful comment relating to Figures 1 and 2 read: "Because I did this for one month and I thought about doing it every day, I was very conscious of who I interacted with. I tried hard to talk to foreigners because I wanted to do a good job." Part of the purpose of this study was to understand the type of *everyday* language interactions of *typical* students in these university environments. These results may point to an unintended effect of audio diaries: the actual process of recording diary entries may induce certain feelings, attitudes, or motivations that would not otherwise occur, which could result in data bias towards *atypical* behavior. Despite the fact that being motivated to seek out contact experiences will likely have an empowering effect on language development, this is a problem when evaluating the effectiveness of gathering data of ordinary student interaction episodes.

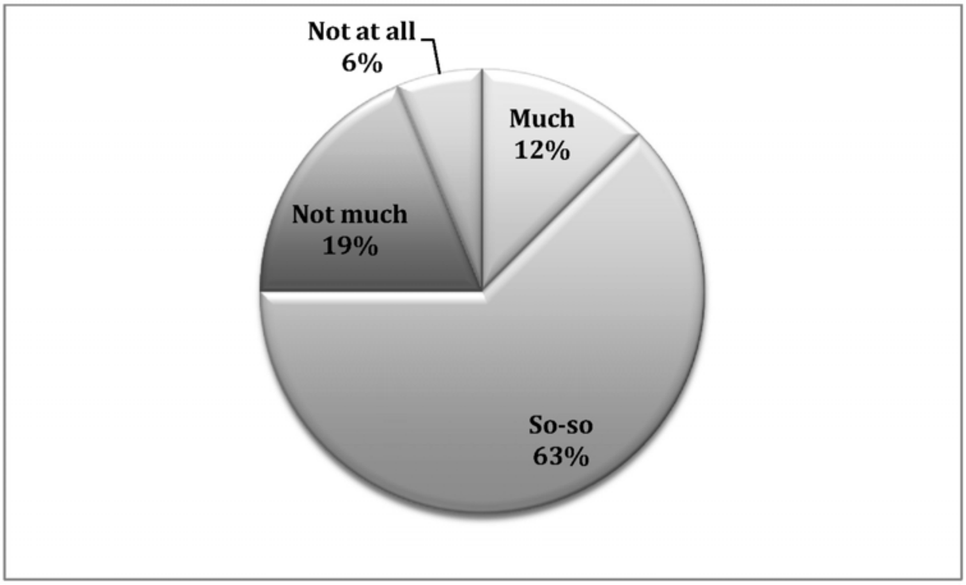

FIGURE 1. How much did you enjoy the experience of keeping daily audio diaries?
Note. For item 1, the following Likert scale was provided to respondents: 5) Very much; 4) Much; 3) So-so; 2) Not much; 1) Not at all.

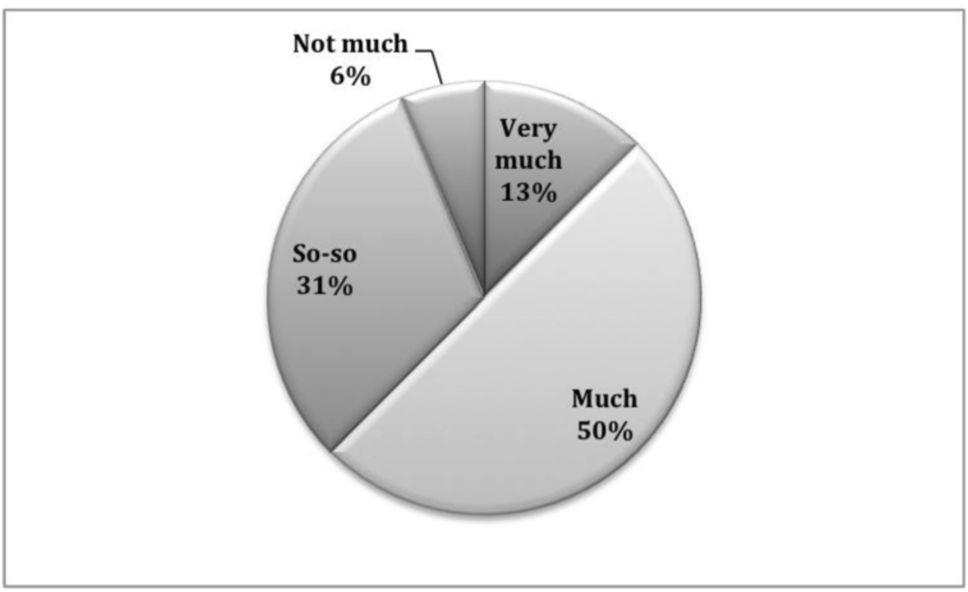

FIGURE 2. How much did participating in this research motivate you to talk to foreigners or international students?
Note. For item 2, the following Likert scale was provided to respondents: 5) Very much; 4) Much; 3) So-so; 2) Not much; 1) Not at all.

Figure 3 shows the results from an item which asks how much the audio diary task interfered with students' schoolwork. Participants reported that audio diaries did not interfere with their schoolwork (mean value is 1.9), despite the considerably long data collection period. In fact, several participants remarked on the ease of the data collection: "it was easy to speak my thoughts because I was speaking Japanese." It was encouraging to read comments that specifically pointed to the advantages of the audio diary method over paper-based diary approaches: "it was convenient to speak and not write." Another student commented on the recording device itself: "The digital recorder was easy to use, but I think I can probably use my iPhone to do a better job." Within the rapidly changing arena of voice-recording tools, the suggestion of using a smart phone for keeping audio diaries is difficult to ignore.

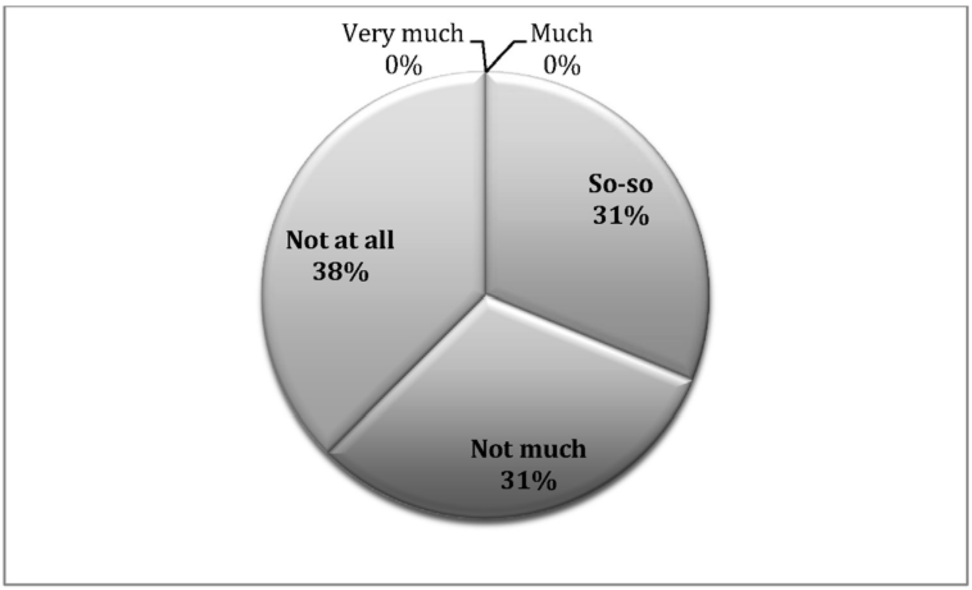

FIGURE 3. How much did your audio diaries interfere with your schoolwork?
Note. For item 3, the following Likert scale was provided to respondents: 5) Very much; 4) Much; 3) So-so; 2) Not much; 1) Not at all.

Item 4 attempted to measure the reliability of data collected by students with the question: "Did your real experiences match what you recorded in your diaries?" The researchers were particularly interested in the responses to this item as it gave an indication of the reliability of data collected. The mean response (4.7) indicates that the accounts given in the diary entries are true insights into the actual events experienced by students.

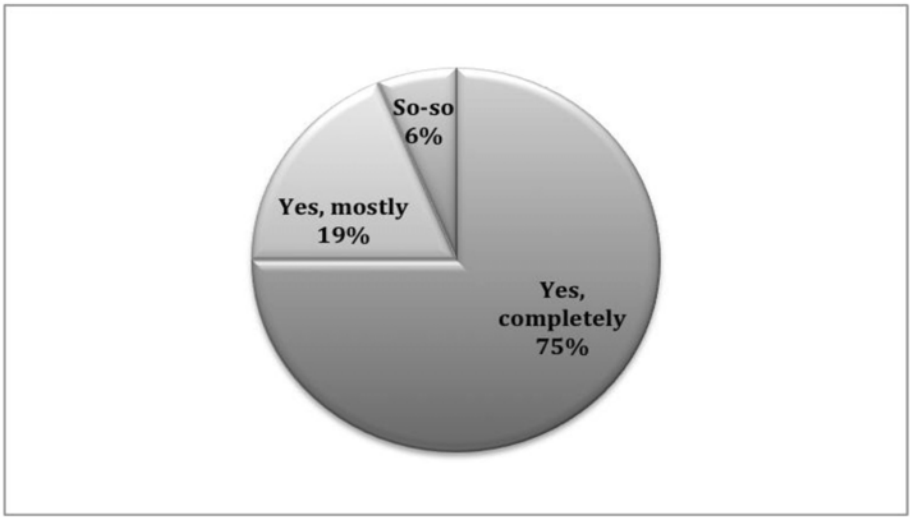

FIGURE 4. Did your real experiences match what you recorded in your diaries?
Note. For item 4, the following Likert scale was provided to respondents: 5) Yes, completely; 4) Yes, mostly; 3) So-so; 2) No, not really; 1) No, I always lied.

Responses to item 5, shown in Figure 5, indicate what participants thought about the monetary incentive to complete this project. Results (mean value is 3.5) indicate that 5,000 yen is a good amount to offer students for their efforts. Moreover, comments from participants on this topic indicate that this incentive was essential. One participant even goes as far as to say: "I think I did a good job for the diaries. But I only did it for the money." Considering the large amount of data procured, the researchers felt this relatively small amount of money provided very important motivation for participants to complete their diaries.

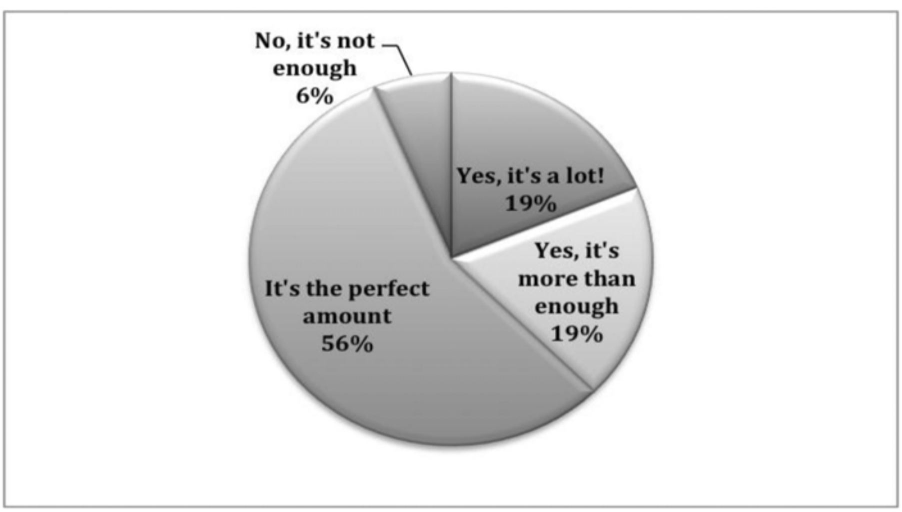

FIGURE 5. Do you think ￥5000 is enough money to pay for keeping audio diaries for four weeks?
Note. For item, the following scale was provided to respondents: 5) Yes, it's a lot; 4) Yes, it's more than enough; 3) It's the perfect amount; 2) No, it's not enough; 1) No, it's not very much at all.

Figure 6 shows the responses to item 6 on the follow-up survey, which asked which of the five rules were the most difficult to follow. Half of respondents chose “Each diary should be two to five minutes long” as the most difficult rule to follow in the audio diary process. This is in line with the unexpectedly short entries from participants at the non-international university. Some students commented that the diary task was like “two parts.” One student describes these “two parts” as “telling about the person I was talking to, which was easy. But then, I knew I had to give how I feel about the conversation. I knew I didn’t do this part well.” After reading the transcriptions of the audio diaries, the researchers agreed that data relating to students’ reactions to their contact episodes was somewhat lacking.

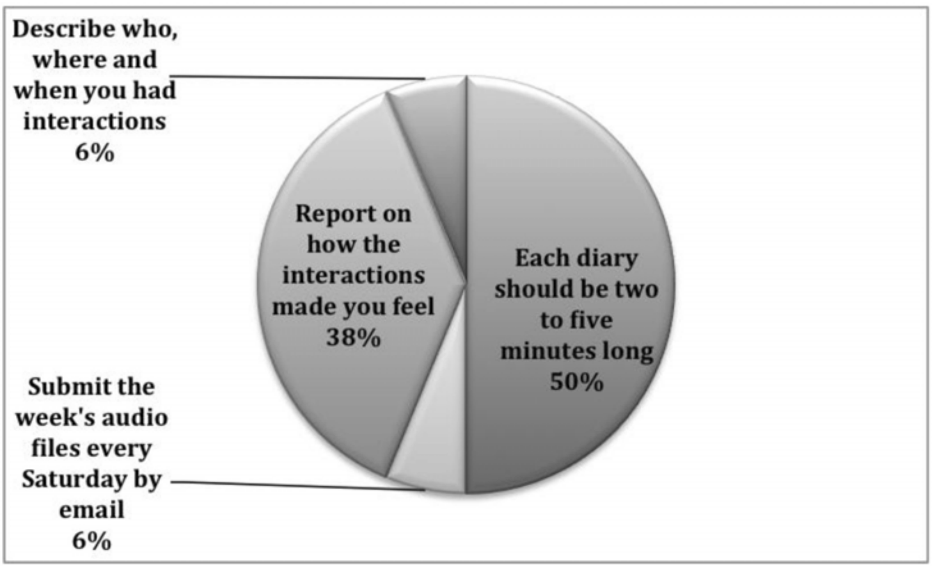

FIGURE 6. Which of the following rules was the most difficult to follow?
Note. For item 6, the following options were provided to respondents: 5) Describe who, where and when you had interactions; 4) Submit the week’s audio files every Saturday by email; 3) Report on how the interactions made you feel; 2) Make one entry at the end of every day; 1) Each diary should be 2-5 minutes long.

CONCLUSION

Our evaluation indicates that the audio diary method of data collection is an appropriate and useful approach for collecting data on language behavior. Based on this study, our reasons for this positive evaluation are as follows: (a) participants were able to give insightful, detailed accounts of their daily language interaction episodes over a one-month period, (b) diary entries were anonymously reported to be accurate and honest descriptions of their experiences, and (c) the convenience of the voice recorder tool led to minimal disruptions in students’ regular school life. The following part of this section outlines recommendations based on the results of this study to other L2 researchers interested in using audio diaries.

- A pre-data collection training workshop and continual monitoring of diary

submissions is necessary. In the case of this study, the workshop included training on the use of the voice recorder device, required length of entries, examples of "good" and "bad" diary entries, and rules for submissions. If data collection involves the participant sharing their attitudes towards an experience in a reflective manner, a "practice" data collection period coupled with feedback is recommended.
- Diary entries should be made in the participant's native language. By having participants submit diaries in their own language, the act of keeping a diary becomes far less laborious for the participant, data is not corrupted by language deficiencies, and students may feel more inclined to speak openly and honestly about their experiences.
- Offering an incentive can be an important motivator, especially for long data collection periods. Monetary incentives (as in this study) can be expensive; however, incentives may take other forms, such as the promise of language help or tutoring. If a digital recorder needs to be bought by the researcher, this may also be promised as a gift to the participant at the end of the diary study.
- Make use of the latest technology. Digital voice recorders may be expensive. Built-in smart phone recording applications or free computer software may be a cheaper alternative to purchasing new equipment. Be aware of quality recording devices that are freely available to potential participants.

There is no such thing as a perfect research method, nor an ideal research tool. Similarly, this study shows that although the audio diary method has advantages over traditional paper-based diary methods, there are still potential downfalls. Participants in this study admitted to changing their typical behavior by seeking out intercultural interactions in a manner they would not normally do, thereby injecting a partial bias into the data. Participants also indicated that a monetary incentive was needed in order to overcome "respondent fatigue," which can make a study such as this rather expensive. However, with continued researcher support and an awareness of emerging technologies in digital voice recording, this can be an extremely valuable tool in the language researcher's toolbox.

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Teachers Connecting Cross-Culturally: A New Paradigm for Intercultural Professional Mentoring

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Selected South Korean teachers received English language immersion training in a one-month school-visit program in San Bernardino, California. During this time, the Korean teachers observed classes, tutored small groups of students, and delivered cultural presentations. The goal was for both visitors and American host teachers to benefit from *intercultural mentoring*, in which teachers from different cultural backgrounds work together to share professional practices. To evaluate this experience, we interviewed the visitors' school-site mentors about two issues: What constitutes *shared* collegial interaction, i.e., what did American teachers perceive as worthwhile professional mentoring? Second, what interpersonal and intercultural knowledge, skills, and dispositions would have improved the co-mentoring program? Results of the interviews revealed strong appreciation for the program from the host teachers; however, the data suggest that specific prior preparation is needed in order for the visitors' linguistic input to contribute to instruction of language-minority students in the United States.

BACKGROUND: RECIPROCAL INTERCULTURAL MENTORING

Because South Korea is a country dedicated to English instruction, the English proficiency of Korean high school graduates is a compelling educational concern for both the government and the populace. The Korean educational ministry began a nationwide public-school English-immersion pilot program in 2010, with the goal to provide students with the language tools necessary to be successful in a highly globalized world. All subjects in school were to be taught in English. Strong opposition from parents, teachers, and education specialists, who feared that the Korean language and culture would be devalued by using English as the medium of instruction, resulted instead in the adoption of a new "English Friendly Plan," to include a Teaching English in English (TEE) system in which EFL would be taught using English-only immersion.

In response to this mandate, the Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education (SMOE) instituted a five-month, full-time program conducted in Korea in which teachers received English language immersion teacher retraining, culminating in a one-month, all-expenses-paid intensive program in an English-speaking country: Canada, New Zealand, England, or the United States. For the past two years, California State University, San Bernardino has hosted three such cohorts of visiting teachers.

Although the program evolved considerably, across the span of the three cohorts, overall the four-week program featured the following dimensions:

- theoretical classes at the university, including an overview of the American education system in relation to English learners
- a practicum in local elementary schools
- cultural excursions
- culture and language immersion via homestay

Visiting Korean teachers were offered the opportunity to work in authentic educational settings under the guidance of local host teachers who practiced a model of English-as-a-second-language (ESL) instruction known as structured English immersion (SEI), California's legally mandated model for schooling English learners. SEI instruction features instruction delivered in an English-only format, supplemented by specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE) augmentations such as modified teacher oral-language delivery, use of cooperative learning, and modified information input using posters, graphic organizers, and other visual aids.

Over the two years of the program, eight elementary schools in one school district have hosted the visiting South Korean teachers. As part of the program evaluation, we interviewed 13 host elementary teachers who had worked with the program, in order to acquire feedback on possible program improvement. Two of the host teachers (mentors) we interviewed were Hispanic, bilingual in Spanish and English. One teacher was African American, and the others were European American. All the host teachers were women. All mentors had extensive experience in schools with English learners. Most had never interacted professionally with Korean educators before. The South Korean teachers comprised 57 women and 6 men. All participants, both American and Korean, were experienced, tenured teachers.

Thematic analysis of these interviews revealed a picture of local mentor teachers' perceptions. In addition, there were debriefing sessions with the visiting teachers, to gather their unique perspectives. Only the host teacher data is reported here.

The experience of working with teachers from Korea offered host teachers rich cultural, linguistic, academic, and social experiences. By means of our interviews, we were looking for evidence of what Spezzinia, Austin, Abbott, and Littleton (2009) identified as collaborative mentoring: "unstructured peer-to-peer coaching that emerged spontaneously as teachers shared experiences" (p. 297).

Wang (2001) served as a theoretical model to guide the goals of the program. This research outlined three contrasting models of mentoring: knowledge-transmission, theory-and-practice, and collaborative inquiry models. Even though we strived to establish a collaborative inquiry model, the host teachers seemed to adhere to the knowledge-transmission model. Attempts to invoke collaborative inquiry met with persistent default to the more conservative transmission model. Our inquiry sought reasons for this.

RECIPROCAL INTERCULTURAL MENTORING: THE CHALLENGES

Analysis of the mentor teachers' responses to this training program addressed first the issue of what constitutes *shared* collegial interaction." That is, how would the South Korean teachers who were employed in one of the most richly funded and highest achieving school systems in the world react to mentoring from American teachers working in an underfunded school system in poor urban neighborhoods? The South Korean teachers represented an elite group, whose graduates (unlike many ESL students) achieve high levels of Korean and English dual-language skills. What could local ESL teachers offer to this group? On the other hand, what would ESL teachers perceive as the expertise that the Korean English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) teachers had to offer?

Second, what interpersonal and intercultural skills created success in such intercultural mentoring? Or conversely, what perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors impeded mentoring? The answers to these questions have potentially widespread repercussions. Schools in the United States with large numbers of English learners – language-minority students – strive to attain parity with educational efforts elsewhere in the world. Could mentoring from Korean teachers who have attained a track record of success in English teaching be of assistance? Could this project document ways to turn an intercultural mentoring relationship into a partnership between teachers with similar educational responsibilities?

PRIOR RESEARCH ON INTERCULTURAL MENTORING

In the research literature, intercultural mentoring has been considered from a variety of perspectives but has generally come to represent positive, enriching experiences: "Mentoring relationships literally and figuratively provide a way for us to cross borders, to gain access to alternative perspectives and experiences" (Blake-Beard, 2009, p. 14). As Chamberlin-Quinlisk (2005) noted, "for those . . . who have little access to travel opportunities, engaging in partnerships in their own schools and neighborhoods can be a productive and transformative learning experience" (p. 478). Yet, little prior research has been reported about effective ways to develop mentoring partnerships between experienced teachers who come from very different cultures and/or countries.

PREPARING FOR THE CLASSROOM VISITS: CONTRASTING EXPECTATIONS

The South Korean teachers' school visits required that the local American teachers serve as classroom hosts. With the first cohort of visitors, preparation for the classroom sojourns was relatively brief, with teachers recruited by principals so that the Korean teachers could "observe their expertise." There were few expectations as to what this "observation" might consist of. For the second and third groups of visitors, school-site lead teachers were invited to a structured training at the university to define goals and expectations for their involvement, with the intention of creating a richer experience for the South Korean teachers, by requiring more active participation for them in the American classrooms.

The Koreans, too, benefited from enhanced preparation: they were given preliminary presentations on the nature of the local curricula and a protocol for expected behavior at the school sites. Expectations on the part of the visitors regarding the school visits covered a wide range of emotions. Most visitors were enthusiastic, mixed with some trepidation, mostly about their English skills. Many visiting teachers expressed concern that their English fluency might be insufficient for full participation in classroom activities.

OUTCOMES AND EVIDENCE OF SUCCESS: HOST TEACHERS' FEEDBACK

After the three cohorts of visitors, host teachers were asked for their feedback in a set of oral interviews at their school sites. Results were surprising, especially the strong support for the one-way "knowledge transmission view of the experience." The host teachers almost never mentioned learning from their Korean counterparts. Most saw their role as imparting expertise *to* the visiting teachers. Perhaps the mentors believed they were expected to have a one-way *helping* role. As one teacher commented, "I just modeled what I do. I was able to share a lot of what I do."

Fortunately, one of the host teachers recognized the Korean visiting-teacher placement as a valuable opportunity to co-teach: "What seems obvious to me is if we are showing off our programs, then they could show off, too." However, many of the host teachers could not envision the visiting teachers as capable of co-teaching in their classrooms: "We just asked them to do read-alouds. [That way] there was nothing 'high-level' that they had to explain."

The main impediment to a collegial relationship on the part of many host teachers was the perception that the South Korean teachers' classroom performance was impaired by their lack of English speaking skills, particularly pronunciation. A typical comment was: "Part of the problem is that their English is still very limited." This emphasis on pronunciation seemed to undermine the host teachers' belief in the potential benefits of the visiting teachers' interaction with students.

Moreover, the host teachers also seemed reluctant to allow the visiting teachers even to tutor individual students because the host teachers conceived of individual tutoring as suitable only for remediation. Although the English learners could have benefited from one-on-one attention, many of the host teachers were reluctant to expose their low-achieving students to a tutor whose English was not native-like: "You mean them as the instructor? Not really . . . because the idea of tutoring is to take low-level students . . . and with someone of such limited ability, they won't achieve anything."

INTELLIGIBILITY DATA DOCUMENTED VISITORS' FLUENCY

Ironically, without the Korean teachers' English expertise, no communication could have taken place: there were no teachers who knew more than "hello" in Korean. Contrary to local teachers' perceptions, the Korean teachers' English *was* intelligible. Upon arrival, the visiting teachers were given placement tests using intelligibility indices developed by a university expert in English-language proficiency testing. Most of the Koreans demonstrated a high-to-middle proficiency (communicative) level of English fluency, with few at either advanced or low-intermediate levels. The visitors demonstrated fluency in English speaking tasks overall. Therefore, host teachers' complaints about the visitors' lack of

English skills appeared, for the most part, unjustified.

THE ROLE OF PROJECTION IN MENTORING

One of the most interesting aspects of the intercultural mentoring relationship was realization of the idea that one does not really mentor another person rather, one mentors one's *idea* of the other. Several host teachers assumed that the visiting Korean teachers would feel comfortable doing or not doing certain activities, which was not verified by the visiting teachers: the assumption, or projection, was unilateral:

> We kept them together in the room because the comfort level is already so different for them. . . . the teachers didn't include them in the instructional activities until after a certain amount of time when there was a comfort level of doing it.

Another projection on the part of the host teachers concerned the benefit to the visitors. Even though some host teachers and principals stated that they enjoyed having visiting teachers in their schools, most believed that any benefit was unilateral, accruing to the Korean teachers, rather to the host teachers: "I was able to provide them with a lot of highly effective strategies that would allow them to promote student engagement."

Curiously, the host teachers viewed the main benefit from their visitors as cultural enrichment for low-income students, whom the host teachers perceived as lacking in cultural exposure. Obviously, the limited exposure to foreign cultures on the part of the host teachers implied that, as teachers, they would also benefit greatly from cultural enrichment, yet they did not see it in these terms. They saw the students as the chief beneficiaries of cultural input from the Koreans. However, the possibilities for cultural exchange were often perceived in superficial ways, such as giving information about holidays, native attire, and handicrafts – in a sense, limited to the content of the final project which Korean teachers were to present on the final day of their school visits.

> They bring a sense of the different country's music, holiday, celebrations . . . I still have the decorations up on my wall . . . When they taught Korean culture, it was great for our students . . . They don't get out much.

Additionally, some host teachers mentioned the benefits of helping their students understand that even foreign adults can be English-language learners. However, this type of comment indicated that mentors saw visiting teachers as language *learners*, more than language teachers.

In all, the interviews, although generally positive, revealed host teachers' investment in a model of one-way transmission: that their mentoring benefited the visitors. Almost no mention was made of professional growth, technique, or understanding on the part of the mentor. When mentors *did* cite benefits, it was in reference to their students, whom they viewed as needing cultural enrichment. This rendered the notion of mutual mentoring problematic.

What was also interesting was the absence of sociopolitical content in the host teachers' interviews. No one expressed admiration that the Korean government paid for a six-month intensive training program for their teachers, culminating in a one-month training experience abroad; the U.S. teachers seemed unable even to conceive that such professional development was possible, much less advantageous. Moreover, no U.S. teachers mentioned any desire to learn how to teach their own local Korean or other Asian students more effectively by consulting with the Korean teachers.

Moreover, they made no mention that Asian teachers might be beneficial in expanding the students' worldview, for future vocation or education. With Asia, and especially Korea, a growing economic force in the world, there is great potential advantage to such input. Exposure to learning another language was never mentioned as a positive influence, either for the students or host teachers. In brief, the idea of professional benefit from intercultural contact seemed to be limited by the lack of vision on the part of U.S. teachers as to globalization.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

An intercultural mentoring program involving visiting foreign expert teachers has great potential; it could be a powerful experience. This is especially true because the U.S. educational system is constituted as a state-level mandate, thus affording few opportunities for teachers to be exposed to international influences. Yet, in order for U.S. students to become global citizens, intercultural contact is a necessity. International teachers are a rich source of input both for teachers and students. In such circumstances, visiting teachers must be treated with the respect they merit, not only for their pedagogical expertise, but also for their hard-earned English language skills.

There is no question that more extensive preparation is needed for the role of mentoring in our program. Tang and Choi (2005) provide such a model. In the future, if such an opportunity presents itself again, we can benefit greatly by incorporating features of the Tang and Choi model into our program.

We learned that we might better prepare local teachers in the following ways:

- by providing explicit descriptions of the schools in Seoul
- by obtaining more detailed information about the five-month curriculum the Korean teachers explore prior to the U.S. visit
- by receiving feedback from prior visiting teachers as to their expectations and anticipated outcomes
- by sharing Korean teachers' scores on prior intelligibility testing, which support the view that the Koreans' English skills can readily support teaching tasks they are likely to be assigned (this may generate increased support and respect from their hosting colleagues)

Unfortunately, the host teachers in this program had little experience dealing with Asian educators in what Feiman-Nemser (1996) called "the core activities of mentoring – observing and discussing teaching with colleagues" (p. 2). Building more explicit expectations for two-way mentoring into the program might open vistas to more productive intercultural relations. Because South Korean teachers educate using very different methods from those found in U.S. schools, discussing these differing techniques could lead to richer intercultural mentoring relationships. Cross-cultural comparisons of teaching could thus stimulate rich professional discussion.

This project was surprising on many levels, and holds rich potential for educational practices that could have powerful benefits both for K-12 English learners and teachers in the U.S. The authors recommend that an intercultural mentoring model include the following components: (a) more explicit and implicit expectations for outcomes on the part of hosts and visitors alike; (b) frank preliminary discussions of the outcomes of prior programs; (c) time set aside during the school day for mentoring conversations; and (d) a clear commitment by both mentor and mentee to benefit from two-way communication. Focusing on the model of intercultural reciprocal mentoring to enhance this established training curriculum is an innovative value added to an already rich practical education experience.

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Culture and Language Learning

The Importance of Foreign Teacher Understanding and Adjustment to EFL Learners

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Despite the widely accepted link between language and culture, the process of cultural learning is commonly overlooked in foreign language instruction, which often focuses on the four skills and communicative competence. Moran (2001) states that EFL learners must be explicitly taught the back-and-forth process of learning a target culture. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to advocate for teachers as mentors, who are able to meet language learners at their particular stage in learning the target culture (their readiness point) and to create students who can successfully negotiate the cultural learning gap on their own (mobile learners). Teachers, as mentors, can guide learners towards this goal by providing experiential learning opportunities and developing awareness of the cultural learning process. We identify four implications relevant to foreign language educators of Japanese learners as a sample set of cultural considerations.

INTRODUCTION

It is widely held that language and culture are intertwined (Kramsch, 1993; Bennett, 1998; Moran, 2001; Hanks, 1996). For instance, Moran (2001) states that "language and culture are clearly fused; one reflects the other" (p. 35). Along these lines, Hofstede, Peterson, and Hofstede (2002) contend that "language is much more than learning new vocabulary and grammar. It includes cultural competence" (p. 18). However, from this perspective, in an EFL setting, there is a gap that naturally occurs in L2 learning in both language and cultural competence. This has a significant impact for the EFL professional. Kramsch (1993) identifies this gap as a "sphere of interculturality" (p. 205) where students have opportunities to interact with linguistic and cultural difference. In support of Kramsch (1993), Moran (2001) contends that the process of culture and language learning "features a constant back-and-forth between the learner's native culture and the culture they are learning," and he believes that this relationship is "critical" (p. 125). We suggest that this back-and-forth process takes place within Kramsch's (1993) sphere of interculturality, and we contend that learners require assistance initiating and carrying out this process. Correspondingly, negotiating this process helps lead EFL students to view learning as experiential and to consider themselves as cultural ethnographers. Through guided cultural contact experiences, individuals gain opportunities to become more aware of their own culture while concomitantly developing a realization of the sphere of interculturality. It is this awareness that is a key factor.

However, this back-and-forth process is not necessarily a self-initiated process.

In support of this, Bennett (1998) states that contact with difference does not necessarily result in understanding. As a result, learners of other languages and cultures require a mentor or guide to initiate this process. Moran (2001) points out that teachers need to "guide learners through a repetitive cycle of participation in cultural experiences, description, and interpretation of these experiences and articulation of personal responses" (p. 9). Essentially, it is integral for teachers to create cultural experiences that allow students to effectively move back-and-forth and to reflect. However, Brody (2003) feels that, in terms of cultural differences and cultural relativity, "language teachers are not prepared to deal with them in any but the most superficial fashion" (p. 47). In addition, he states that "remedies to this situation include education of teachers and students about culture in the largest anthropological sense" (p. 49). In order to accomplish this, Moran (2001) provides his cultural knowings framework as a model for both teachers and students to follow. Therefore, the purpose of our inquiry is to advocate for the education and training of teachers toward a mentoring philosophy with respect to cultural sensitivity and understanding in the classroom.

THE BASIC PREMISE OF LEARNING CULTURE

Learning another language and culture is often seen in a broad-sweeping fashion and relies greatly on stereotypical views of difference between national cultures. However, we suggest that cultural learning is an experiential process that requires teachers and learners to accept three main contentions:

1. Language and culture are inseparable (Kramsch, 1993; Bennett, 1998; Hanks, 1996; Moran, 2001).
2. Learning is an experiential process that requires the individual to develop a biography (a collection of experiences) for both social and individual consideration and reflection (Jarvis, 1995; Kolb, 1984).
3. Cultural learning does not necessarily occur with simple contact, or simple experience (Bennett, 1998).
4. Learners need guidance as they approach and attempt to negotiate different spheres of interculturality.

Based upon the above four contentions, Roberts, Byram, Barrow, Jordan, and Street (2001) believe that effective cultural learning cannot be decontextualized, but must be directed toward everyday, lived experiences in both specific and general all-inclusive ways. Thus, in the EFL classroom, this places a great responsibility on the teacher to create environments that provide experiences (i.e., tasks and simulations) that are as authentic as possible. Furthermore, following experiences, teachers need to model effective cultural learning strategies by allowing students time to reflect (refer back to their biography) and synthesize (add this experience to their biography). Through experiences such as these, learners are exposed to gaps between their own culture and the cultural group that they are trying to understand. These gaps occur because individual perspectives and biographies differ. Within a biography everyone has a filter that includes layers of culture, which is often referred to as the "Onion Model." Based upon the Onion Model, we contend that each culture can be tiered into layers (Figure 1).

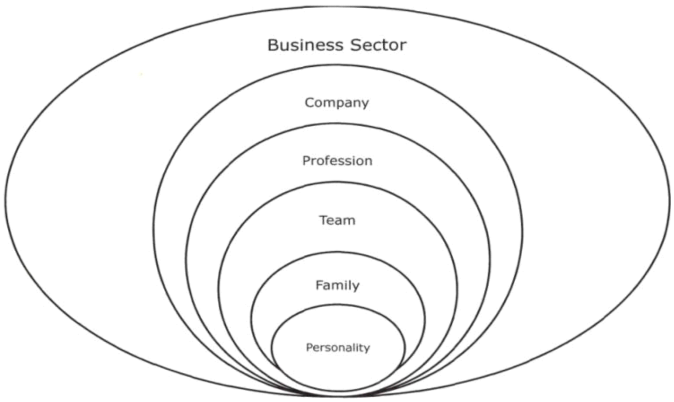

FIGURE 1. Business-based Onion Model (adapted from Dignen & Chamberlain, 2009, p. 26).

According to Dignen and Chamberland (2009), the Onion Model "shows our identity made of many layers of different group cultures with personality at the center" (p. 26). These culture groups are often called *communities of practice* (Lave & Wenger, 1999). These layers can range from national and regional to communities and families, and these layers have the possibility to be broken down into an infinite number of components (communities of practice). We have provided general layers applicable to most individuals as examples in Figure 2.

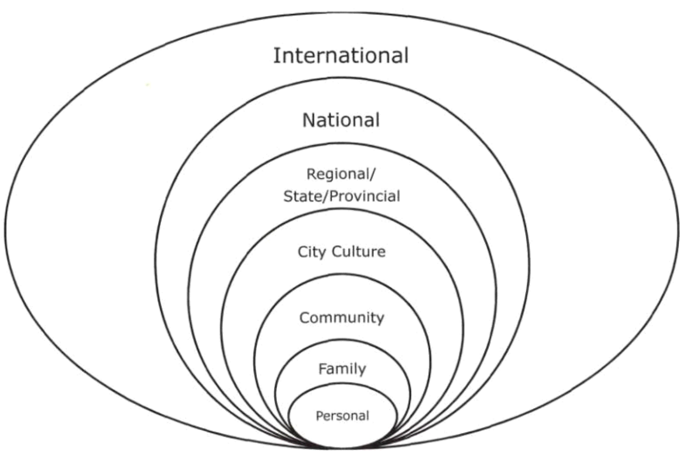

FIGURE 2. General cultural layers with personal culture at the center (adapted from Dignen and Chamberlain, 2009, p. 26).

Within the context of EFL classroom learning, we have adapted the Onion Model to represent each individual having their own personal culture (Figure 3) and will refer to this as their personal cultural perspective (PCP).

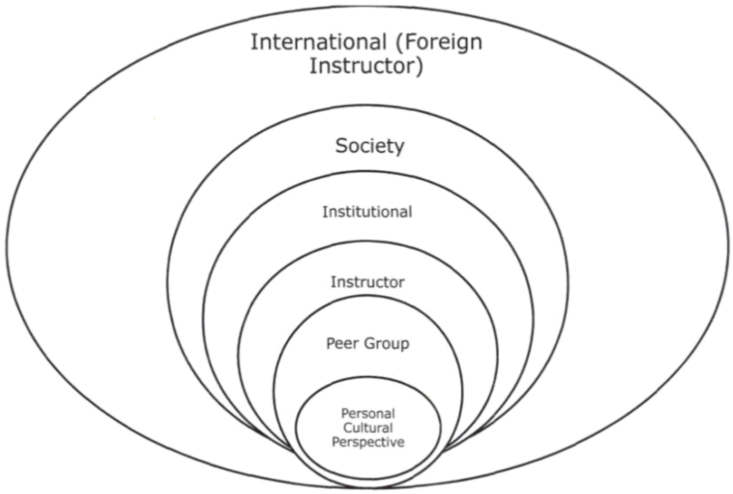

FIGURE 3. Layers of classroom culture.

The reason that we include the term “perspective” is that perspectives are implicit components of culture that Moran (2001) believes “provide meaning and constitute a unique outlook or orientation toward life” (p. 25). Perspectives are what we want to gain as they make both the target culture and native culture relevant. Your PCP impacts how you view and interact with other layers of culture. Each person’s PCP is created through their past cultural experiences and is stored as their biography. This personal culture is utilized during all learning experiences as individuals fluctuate back and forth between their own native culture and the target culture.

From this viewpoint, it is important for the learner to view cultural experiences as learning opportunities and not merely cultural contact that highlights difference. However, in order for this process to be effective, learners need to understand their role in the process of cultural experiences. They need to be active ethnographers rather than simply passive observers. Active ethnographers reflect through the back-and-forth process by synthesizing and comparing their continuing experiences with past experiences. To Roberts et al. (2001), “ethnographers are both participant and learner, both part of and separate from the community that they are studying” (p. 30). This is easier to do when the individual is immersed within the community (ESL context); however, in the case of EFL learners, it is essential for the instructor to create this community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1999) to ensure that learning can be internalized. Watson and Agawa (2011) state that initiating and reinforcing the repeated experiential back-and-forth process between cultural perspectives is a central factor in determining how successful teachers are in developing successful culture and language learners. Once the instructor provides the learners with the skill-set to identify cultural learning opportunities, the learner can then develop greater autonomy throughout the process. Thus, the learner will develop the confidence to repeatedly engage the cultural gap and overall become effective cultural ethnographers.

THE CULTURAL LEARNING EXPERIENCE: BRIDGING THE CULTURAL GAP

Kramsch (1993) suggests that considering language and cultural learning together through interaction in the social world, combined with the contextually defined shared set social practices of the learners, their L1, and target language (TL) creates a shared dual cultural domain. In a similar manner, Kramsch (1993) believes that language is at the "intersection of the individual and the social" (p. 67) and that this intersection both mirrors and interprets the context of the classroom culture. This mirroring and interpreting is an essential process of the learner developing awareness, knowledge, and skills as a language and culture learner in the process of understanding the target culture (see Figure 3).

In addition, approaching and initiating contact at this intersection creates a link between the learner's L1 and L2. Once learners recognize that the gap exists and that they need to actively engage the target culture, they can gain the autonomy to confidently enter the sphere of interculturality individually. Further, learners can then develop the skill of reflecting on those experiences (see Figures 4 & 5). Students can repeatedly cycle back and forth at their own pace and level between their PCP (including their biography) and their cultural experiences.

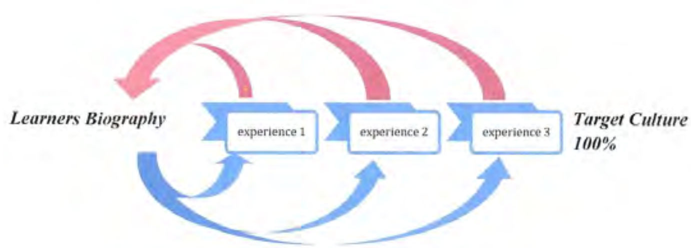

FIGURE 4. Episode reflection and synthesis cycle.

TEACHER ROLES IN THE PROCESS

Teacher ethnographers serve as role models, guiding students towards developing into Mobile Learners within communities of culture. To illustrate this point, Roberts et al. (2001) believe that "language specialists, with some additional training, are best placed to develop the language learner as ethnographer" (p. 35). Essentially, they believe that teachers are in the best position to have an impact on the students, as guides, helping them view cultural learning opportunities with "appropriate guidance and materials to start them off" (p. 35). Moran's (2001) cultural knowings framework (CKF) is an effective example of such materials. On the other hand, language teaching professionals often disagree with this stance and believe that their role is simply giving students exposure to the language and direct, explicit instruction. For this reason, Roberts et al. follow up their claim by stating that it is "important for language staff to develop themselves as ethnographers" (p. 35). In other words, teachers need to model a culturally sensitive, yet proactive and reflective, mindset. This mindset is necessary to be successful as mobile learners and to be able to transfer between communities of practice that have different cultural action and language discourses. This is not limited to large national cultures, but also within smaller layers of culture, as presented above in Figure 2.

For distinct and rich cultural learning experiences, both teachers and learners must understand the working relationship, or process, between the teachers, learners, and target culture in the classroom. In many respects, teachers have not been requested or required to view classroom learning experiences in this way, and in many cases, teachers may not even be aware that it might be beneficial for their students to be exposed to language and culture as a process. Rather, teachers often view the lesson as linear, following standard lesson planning procedures. Furthermore, teachers often believe that they have completed their tasks by simply providing materials and lecturing on explicit language features, without considering the target culture and its relation to the native culture. Moreover, each individual student's PCP (based on prior contact and skill ability level) will also impact the relationship between the teacher and the learner, and the learner and the content (see Figure 5, Moran's cultural experience).

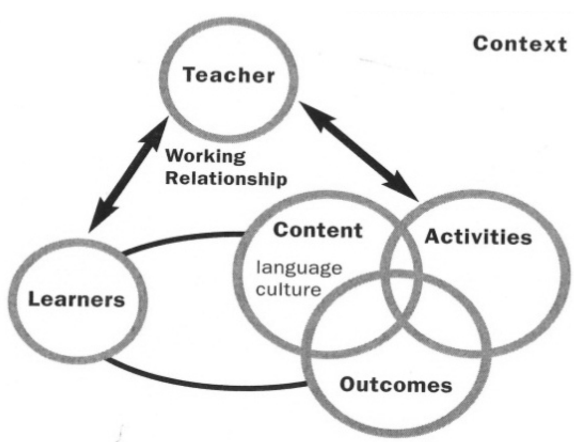

FIGURE 5. The cultural experience (Moran, 2001, p. 14).

Moran (2001) believes that a cultural experience consists of a synergy between the teachers, the learners, and a set of classroom considerations. These three considerations are content, outcomes, and activities. There is a back-and-forth process between the teacher and the set of considerations, and a similar process between the teacher and the learner. Recognizing these connections, and making them explicit to students, can result in unique language and culture experiences.

PCP, THE CULTURE GAP, AND MOBILE LEARNERS

A blueprint is integral for instructors to have as they work toward meeting students at their individual readiness points and assist them across the disparity between the learners' native and target cultures. This gap can be broadly defined as differences identified between two distinct "communities of practice." These communities often have different language and action discourses. They require individuals to have a certain amount of learning acumen toward functionally adapting between different communities of practice. Learners who develop extensive biographies through experiences can be increasingly more effective at moving back and forth across the gap. We term them *mobile learners* (ML). While Byram, Esartes-Sarries, and Taylor (1992) use the term *mobility* to represent language learning that prepares individuals to go abroad, we suggest viewing language and culture learning together as language for mobility. We also contend that language learning for mobility can also be applied more aptly to providing students with skills that they can apply to future learning experiences when they are exposed to differences of culture. In short, this mobility can be described as the ability to transfer knowledge and information within every growing environment through awareness. Moran's (2001) knowledge framework fits appropriately here as a guide for teachers and learners.

Without a framework for teachers, students are unaware of how to effectively cross the gap and become mobile learners. On the other hand, ML exhibit the ability to move effectively back and forth between two cultures, show cultural sensitivity toward set social practices, and can reflect effectively in order to continuously update their biography. Put into terms of general learning experiences, as individuals embark on experiences in the social world, they are armed with their "biography" and it is this collection of previous learning experiences that individuals rely on to give them a frame of reference for new and unknown experiences. These frames of reference ideally contain a flexible mind-frame that allows individuals to adapt and be mobile, regardless of the size of the gap between their prior learning experiences and new ones. There is a simple awareness of the need to have an experience and to then internalize and synthesize the information from their own personal cultural perspective. Unfortunately, people often don't know where to start or how to develop cultural awareness. When encountering larger language communities and cultures, such as Japanese ones, for example, this gap can seem large enough for the learner to not even know how to approach it, so they may not have the appropriate experiences within their biographies to deal with an encounter of this magnitude and, as such, do not have adequate biographies to deal with the difference. Thus, the student often is left wondering how to approach the cultural divide that they encounter as they approach.

HOW DO TEACHERS GUIDE THE STUDENTS?

Teachers need to mentor students towards becoming cultural ethnographers and, as mentioned above, have to be teacher ethnographers. In order to do this effectively, Moran (2001) explains that "teachers need to be versatile. They need to present or elicit cultural information, coach and model cultural behaviors, guide and conduct cultural research and analysis" (p. 138). For example, teachers can show cultural sensitivity by (a) showing their knowledge of students' set social practices, (b) attending to learner affect by providing a non-threatening and reflective environment, (c) offering students opportunities to interpret and articulate what they have experienced, and (d) continually updating their own knowledge and understanding of students' native culture. Encouraging EFL teachers to be ethnographers and to be culturally sensitive is not meant to question a teacher's professional capabilities. Rather, it is meant to add additional depth to their teaching repertoires while also elucidating alternative opportunities to engage students. Teachers are often well trained in their profession and are often very proficient in adhering to established professional practices, or shared set social practices, within an educational institution. However, within this proficiency and professionalism, teachers can very easily overlook students' native cultural shared set social practices. This omission can thereby create complications in planning, implementing, and assessing learning experiences for students.

The first step in guiding students towards being effective language and culture learners is to assist them in developing an awareness of the cultural gap. Hofstede, Pedersen, and Hofstede (2002) identify the three stages of cultural sensitivity as awareness, knowledge, and skills. They maintain that these stages are the basis for the development of intercultural awareness and sensitivity. In order to cope with this, the teacher needs to see their role as being a guide, rather than as an all knowing transmitter of knowledge. However, teachers often don't think that their role encompasses the teaching of culture. Often, teachers focus extensively on language and do not provide enough experiential opportunities for students.

The teacher's job is to model effective cultural learning through experience. This can be done by a teacher showing understanding of the TL and target culture (TC), providing personal cultural narratives (adapted to the level of the student), using realia, and breaking down cultural stereotypes. Students need to feel as though they are on an experiential journey, and not just collecting information (i.e., explicit grammatical rules, or declarative knowledge, among others). Overall, teachers need to make students aware of the bridge and support each individual student as they cross back and forth via valuable classroom experiences. While language and culture can both be studied independently, through combined experience, students can have experiences that can meet their linguistic needs while also providing purposeful and relevant cultural experience. This will give the students the ability to recognize and confidently approach future potential learning experiences in their L2 on their own.

Cultural learning in the classroom is an experiential process with stages. Moran believes cultural learning in the classroom must be "conscious and explicit, and following the stages of the experiential learning cycle" (p. 124). Figure 6 illustrates the culture learning process with stages in the EFL classroom. The four stages are (1) participation, (2) description, (3) interpretation, and (4) response. Moran states that "the process of culture learning consists of an ongoing series of encounters with cultural differences presented through structured participation in the language-and-culture curriculum" (p. 124). Linking this to our contention of the teacher as a mentor in the process, it is clear to see that the students must be active, reflective, and synthesize information.

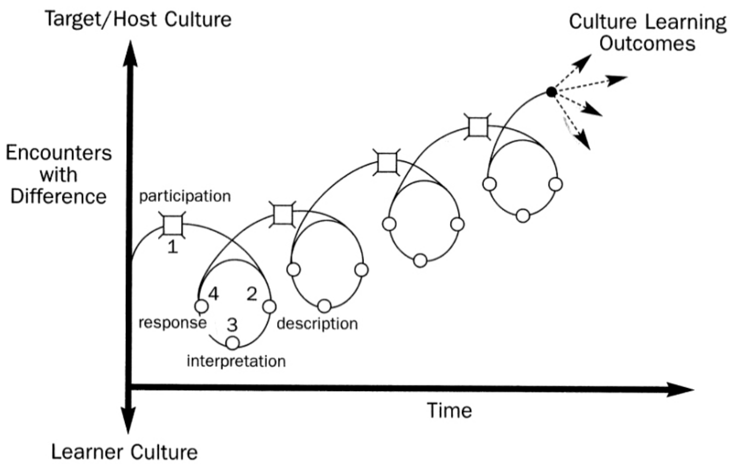

FIGURE 6. Culture learning in the classroom (Moran, 2001, p. 124).

Last, through Figure 6, it is evident that the cultural learning process is cumulative and requires ever increasing biography development. The teacher must be an active participant in this process as well by providing opportunities for target culture engagement through the back-and-forth process over the bridge.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHERS OF JAPANESE LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

Within Japanese compulsory education, Japanese students are rarely required to contend with cultural difference. For example, Japanese set social practices stress conformity of language and action discourse. As a result, there is a lack of meaningful exposure to foreign cultures and languages. This lack of exposure prevents students from gaining purposeful and active experiences that will lead them to become mobile learners. Without understanding the Japanese context (i.e., students' strengths, limitations, and expectations), it is doubtful that a foreign instructor could facilitate wide-scale development of mobile learners of culture. While instructors who do not take these factors into account may produce positive student target language gains, instructors who ignore them may also create unnecessary limitations. Linguistic competence does not necessarily equate to cultural competence or effective cultural learners. We suggest that the development of a culturally aware language learner within a Japanese context necessitates four specific considerations for the teacher.

1. Set social practices (i.e., sempai-kohai relations, wa, *tatemae-honne*, *uchi-soto*, *amaeru*)
2. Japanese limited exposure to difference (i.e., outside of shared set social practices and layers of culture)
3. Expectation of traditional instruction (i.e., passively receiving information, reliance on teacher and textbook)
4. Not understanding their role as cultural learners (i.e., lack of awareness of a need for active participation, lack of self-regulated learning opportunities)

This is not an exhaustive list; however, simply being aware of these considerations does allow teachers to initiate one of Moran's (2001) criteria for being an effective mentor. Moran suggests the teacher ethnographer must conduct cultural research. Overall, understanding the Japanese student will start the teacher on a path toward modeling effective cultural learning. In addition, this process should activate the teacher's ability to become a better learner of cultures.

CONCLUSION

By bridging the cultural gap, teachers gain the opportunity to break the largely systemic pattern of "learned helplessness" (i.e., reliance on teacher, reliance on textbooks) of typical Japanese students. This experience of crossing the cultural bridge in continuously varying increments defines the "new identity of the language learner" (Roberts et al., 2001, p. 30). Essentially, learners who embrace cultural learning as a back-and-forth process are able to not only have valuable cultural experiences to add to their biography, but also to autonomously and effectively move between different cultural perspectives. Awareness is key. Our hope is that teachers can use this paper as a springboard to become more effective teacher ethnographers by conducting further research and analysis of their own particular teaching environments, specifically with regard to the teaching and learning of culture.

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English for Specific or Academic Purposes

Connecting Disciplines at a Japanese University: Adapting EAP to Local Academic Culture

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This paper outlines a proposed two-level perspective on EAP syllabus design in contexts where content courses are taught in English by local faculty. In English for Local Academic Purposes (ELAP), teachers should understand the academic norms of their local context to meet the needs of students studying in English-medium classes. In English for Specific Local Academic Purposes (ESLAP), teachers should go deeper to understand the specific needs of the actual students studying in English at their institution. Applying the ELAP / ESLAP perspective to a Japanese case, the researchers found some overlap with western norms including the importance of intertextuality and multimodality, but also some areas where English for Academic Purposes (EAP) practice can benefit from localization, such as through the addition of translanguaging.

INTRODUCTION

EAP courses are often seen as preparation for study in a western university. Usually then, the EAP class follows western academic norms and Anglophone EAP teachers, whether consciously or not, prepare students to interact with faculty, classmates, and materials in a western pattern. The norms of studying and teaching which non-Anglophone students have been accustomed to previously are regarded as irrelevant in the new context, which is termed as the "center scholarship" (Canagarajah, 2005, xxvii).

In contrast, increasingly around the world, EAP is becoming important for local use as more content is taught in English in non-Anglophone university contexts (Stewart, Sagliano, & Sagliano, 2002) where EAP students may be faced with different academic norms to those practiced under center scholarship. The language of instruction may be English, but the academic community and context of learning remain grounded in the home culture. In particular, the expectations of faculty members for how students are to perform are based on "local norms of relevance" (Canagarajah, 2005, xxvii).

Considering this spread of English-medium instruction in local contexts, there is potential for mismatch between the objectives of western-focused EAP courses and those of local content faculty. Therefore, the aims of EAP courses in these contexts need to be reexamined and may benefit from localization.

VIEWS OF EAP

The Standard View of EAP

Jordan (1997) discusses EAP through a two-level perspective making a distinction between English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP). In EGAP, students may be a mixed-major group or may have no particularly defined EAP needs, so the course covers skills presumed as helpful in a wide variety of academic settings, but the language teacher, due to "ignorance of the specialist subject" (Jordan, 1997, p. 252), may fail to meet students' specific needs.

In ESAP, however, students may be preparing for the same, or at least a similar major. In this case, the language teacher can provide more materials, possibly authentic, from the subject field. There is also a need for the ESAP teacher to learn about the target subject itself and how it is taught and assessed (Lucietto, 2008). This implies a need for consultation with the content teacher in ESAP contexts.

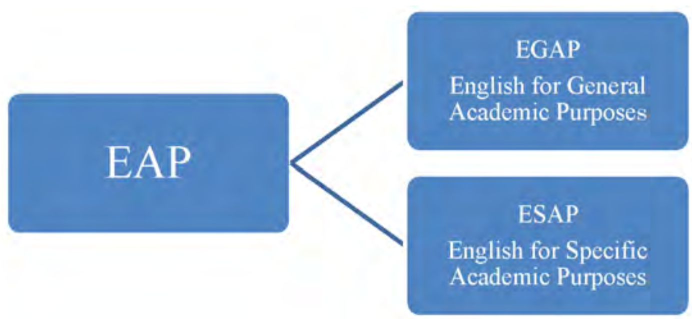

FIGURE 1. Jordan's (1997) two-stage framework for EAP.

A Proposed Local View of EAP

Following Jordan (1997) a new, localized view of EAP can be proposed which parallels the specific EGAP-ESAP perspective (see Figure 1) but adds an element of localized understanding. The result is a two-level perspective on EAP (see Figure 2) – English for Local Academic Purposes (ELAP) and English for Specific Local Academic Purposes (ESLAP).

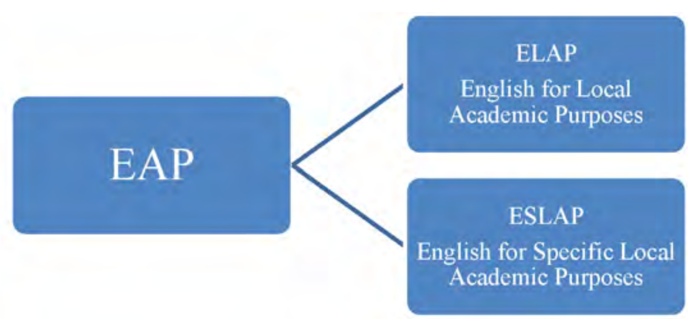

FIGURE 2. Proposed ELAP-ESLAP framework.

At the general level, ELAP helps language teachers localize their practice. In English-medium content classes, classroom culture, faculty expectations, patterns of interaction, standards of assessment, types of learning activities, and teacher-student relationships all depend on the local academic context. Therefore, in ELAP, the language teacher needs to understand the home academic culture of their students and colleagues, and apply it in practice.

At the second, more specific level, ESLAP helps language teachers focus on actual student needs. Along with the understanding of the local academic culture gained by working in ELAP, specific disciplinary or institutional norms emerge as an important influence on practice. Thus, perhaps just as in western contexts with a need for ESAP, language teachers also need to understand the specific content and classroom environment of the English-medium content classes at their institution. This implies that ESLAP teachers would benefit from consultation with English-medium content faculty.

APPLYING THE ELAP-ESLAP PERSPECTIVE: ONE EXAMPLE FROM JAPAN

The ELAP-ESLAP framework has evolved out of one example program in Japan.

English-Medium Content in Japan

Worldwide, the use of English for L2-medium content instruction is not new, but in Japan, this is fairly recent, other than in a few elite schools. This puts EAP practitioners on a steep learning curve in terms of localizing EAP courses.

One reason for the growth of English-medium courses is government support. The Ministry of Education (MEXT) funds larger elite universities to adopt L2-medium courses, especially in English. These courses are taught by local Japanese faculty rather than imported experts. As a recent MEXT position paper states:

> It is very important for Japanese universities to conduct not a few lessons in English or to develop courses where students can obtain academic degrees by taking only lessons conducted in English. (MEXT, 2009, p. 15)

Other universities are following suit. Now, 46% of universities in Japan offer some content courses in L2, primarily English (MEXT, 2004), due possibly to pedagogical trends, with smaller schools following the innovations of larger institutions. Additionally, because Japanese society is aging, the number of university-age students is dropping, creating market pressure for schools to innovate and distinguish themselves. English-medium classes are a competitive advantage for schools that implement them.

Context of the Study

This study was conducted at a small, semi-rural university in northern Japan which has joined the trend towards English-medium content classes. The English-medium program is currently small-scale and emergent. Of a department faculty of 45, six faculty members deliver courses in English. Another six are moving towards partial English-medium, using English-language materials (supplementary readings, videos, etc.).

It is significant that there is some resistance to adopting English as a medium of instruction. There are questions of language ability, concerning Japanese teachers' competence in English and students' ability to cope in English-medium classes. There are also ethical questions about the appropriacy of a Japanese university teaching Japanese students in English.

With these concerns in mind, whilst supporting the adoption of English as a medium of instruction, the university has implemented an official working group, the Teaching Lab, which coordinates training in L2-medium instruction skills (Iyobe, Brown, & Coulson, 2011).

Researching ELAP: Understanding Local Norms

The first round of data collection was aimed at developing a general understanding of the academic culture of Japan in order to inform decision-making in ELAP courses. While much has been written about Japanese academic norms in terms of how faculty members relate to content or interact with each other (see Sato & Kleinasser, 2004), the ELAP decision-making process needed more practical understanding of faculty expectations for student performance. *Kiso semi* was a logical place to find it.

Kiso semi, the Fundamental Seminar, is a half-year credit class designed to teach incoming students academic skills for university. There are no *Kiso semi* specialists per se, so classes are taught by content specialists with their own materials and orientations.

The underlying premise of this phase of the study was based on the fact that *Kiso semi* teachers are part of the local academic community and prepare students for local norms. Thus, by talking to them, Anglophone language teachers may gain insights into students' needs for ELAP.

Data was collected through open-ended questionnaires of *Kiso semi* teachers (N = 16), follow-up interviews, and ongoing informal communications over the course of one academic year. This was a simple gathering of information, termed as a "crossdisciplinary" venture (Klein, 1996) where the language teacher approached the *Kiso semi* teacher to generally inform the EAP syllabus. This process did not challenge the *Kiso semi* teachers' views or involve mutual exchange of *Kiso semi* and EAP goals since crossdisciplinary research is, by nature, primarily limited to informing one party.

Results and Implications

Data from *Kiso semi* teachers was based on three themes: learning events in *Kiso semi* classes, key skills for university success, and images of good students.

Kiso semi classes featured various learning activities. Specifically, writing formal papers, making presentations, class discussion, and peer feedback were all important. Interestingly, in the Japanese context, there was much student-faculty interaction outside class time. Students met one-on-one with their *Kiso semi* teacher for direct instruction, feedback, and general counseling on academic life.

In this sense, the faculty member took on the role of tutor as well as professor. *Kiso semi* teachers valued long-term, integrated learning experiences where students combined class work, independent reading, and field work, including interviews with specialists, creating what one respondent in the study called "a composed whole." Another respondent talked about the importance of this integration in terms of the students' prior learning experiences:

> Students have a lot of experience just reading (and remembering) books, so I wanted to avoid that kind of task.

The participants also identified certain key skills that students needed at university. Presentation skills were important, as were clear and precise writing and an understanding of academic conventions, especially citation. *Kiso semi* teachers also valued independent research, library skills, and the ability to develop an original thesis based on wide reading. In both reading and listening, summary was seen as a key skill and the teachers wanted students to be more critical of what they read and hear. They wanted students to read more deeply and recognize their own level of understanding. As one respondent put it, "One's feelings of *I understood this topic* and his/her actual level of understanding is not always the same." Since class discussions were key learning events, it was not surprising that *Kiso semi* teachers valued discussion skills, in particular, those needed to move beyond participation into a leadership role. Referring to Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Tedesco's (1996) work, the researchers asked *Kiso semi* teachers for their definition of a "good student." Responses were very consistent. Good students have passion and curiosity for certain topics pursue independent research are self-motivated can reflect on their own learning and go beyond remembering class materials to develop new ideas. *Kiso semi* teachers also thought that good students understand multiple points of view and can devise a range of solutions to problems. But the teachers felt this ability to embrace diversity is a rare quality among students. In the words of one respondent, "This sounds rather elementary but is probably lacking among Japanese (first-year) students due to the teacher-centered approaches to learning typical in high school.

Some of what *Kiso semi* teachers said showed the local Japanese academic norms are aligned with western-focused assumptions of Anglophone EAP teachers. For example, the value placed on papers and presentations is congruent with the current focus on academic writing and speaking skills. Also, the stress on intertextuality and multimodality in EAP classes parallels the *Kiso semi* teachers' stress on integrated learning events.

However, some of what the *Kiso semi* teachers reported may differ from the standard EAP goals of the Anglophone faculty. For example, EAP teachers could encourage students' independent and critical thinking more. The data suggested that *Kiso semi* teachers recognized Japanese students do not yet read critically enough even in their L1. Thus, rather than preparing students to apply critical thinking skills in L2, the EAP course needs to help students develop a sense of criticality in reading and listening in general. One respondent in particular noted that first-year students make a difficult transition from teacher-centered approaches common in Japanese high schools towards the more independent and creative approaches valued at university. EAP classes need to be more supportive of this transition to generic academic skills across students' L1 and L2.

It was also implied that EAP classes need to provide more opportunities for longer-term study on a single topic. Students require more time to work with multiple sources to bring together the "composed whole" mentioned previously. This deepens and strengthens the students' knowledge of, and connection to, the topic and, importantly, results in deeper and more critical analysis and argumentation (Pally, 2001). Since commercially available EAP materials tend to have a wide variety of topics, each covered briefly, a move away from commercial texts may be called for.

In addition, EAP classes should consider the tutoring relationship between faculty and students where one-on-one interaction is a key learning event. At present, the EAP program does not address this pattern of interaction as its teachers do not have responsibility for tutor groups. Therefore, students may be underprepared for tutor sessions conducted in L2.

These findings are interesting and provocative of change, and since they are on a general ELAP level, have relevance for other EAP programs at universities in Japan with English-medium content classes. However, EAP teachers in this study wanted to understand their students' needs more specifically, so the study moved on to the ESLAP stage.

Researching ESLAP: Understanding Specific Local Needs

In the second round of data collection, the researchers collaborated with the Teaching Lab to gather data in a workshop setting. In contrast to the ELAP stage of simple crossdisciplinary information-gathering, the researchers chose to attempt a higher level of collaboration between language and content faculty for the ESLAP stage to instigate the "cross-fertilization" (Klein, 1996, p. 4) of ideas and stances inherent in healthy interdisciplinarity. As successful ESLAP depends on communication about content and teaching processes, this approach was also thought to help develop a long-term relationship between language and content faculty.

Five content teachers using English in class were invited to reflect openly on their experiences and expectations in a workshop attended by EAP teachers and other content faculty members, some of whom use English in class, some of whom do not. The workshop participants spoke about activity types and their expectations for students' abilities. They spoke frankly about their ideal world, "I would be happy if my students could . . . in English," and about their more realistic expectations, "I could deal with it if . . ." They also spoke about activities and patterns of interaction common in their classes and shared some materials they used in English-medium classes.

This forum for open reflection and discussion was more complex than the ELAP stage, as its success required heightened sensitivity and awareness of communication norms in interdisciplinary collaboration. Since this work involved the crossing of disciplinary boundaries, communication was potentially problematic. This was compounded by the fact that communication between differing levels of any institutional hierarchy constitutes a common issue in interdisciplinary work (Heintz & Origgi, 2008). Furthermore, specific to our research context, Japanese teachers commonly show a tendency towards private reflection rather than open interaction in professional development (Sato & Kleinasser, 2004).

Working with the Teaching Lab was critical for the success of the interdisciplinary interaction. In response to the aforementioned common communication difficulties for such collaboration, the organizers of the Teaching Lab workshops were careful to maintain a neutral forum in which neither content nor language issues took precedence. To counter potential hierarchical issues, the five invited speakers were chosen carefully in order to represent gender, ethnic, age, and disciplinary diversity in the institution. The third issue of the tendency towards private reflection was addressed by the encouragement of collaborative dialogue based on mutual respect, developed over the course of a year of relationship-building. The sharing of private practice in the workshop was potentially face-threatening and only possible through the building of trust between the participants and organizers. This stood in stark contrast to the formative stages of the relationships when open sharing of teaching practice was difficult (Iyobe, Brown, & Coulson, 2011).

In analyzing this data, some insights gathered from the stage one research into ELAP were confirmed and deepened. In addition, some new insights into the specific local needs of the students emerged.

The data from the ESLAP stage reinforced the importance of the *Kiso semi* teachers' messages from the ELAP stage. In particular, content faculty members prioritized critical thinking, skills for citation and the avoidance of plagiarism, one-on-one interaction, and multimodality and intertextuality in dealing with materials.

One interesting idea was connected to the faculty prioritization of multimodality and intertextuality. In the specific local context studied here, multimodality and intertextuality were seen to include translanguaging, the strategic shift from one language to another when working in bilingual contexts (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). The English-medium content faculty members wanted students to work in English and synthesize materials from both English and Japanese sources. This was seen as consistent with Canagarajah's call for flexibility in language use:

> Rather than simply joining a speech community, then, we should teach students to shuttle between communities . . . . Not only must we possess a repertoire of codes from the English language, we must also learn to use it in combination with other world languages. (Canagarajah, 2006, p. 26)

One new insight that seems important in this ESLAP context is the class size of the English-medium courses. The content faculty reported very small classes, in most cases fewer than 10 students, in elective classes conducted in English. This raised a lack of mirroring between EAP and content classes, with the EAP program based on larger classes with as many as 92 members.

Further insights from the ESLAP investigation concerned the importance of students' first-year experiences. New university students experience an overall transition into a new set of competencies and learn a new academic repertoire not used in high school. This is not a new or astounding insight, but this workshop fore-grounded this previously silent assumption. It implied that the EAP program may now have an expanded role in the overall development of student competencies, not just their language skills. As one EAP teacher participating in the workshop said, “EAP isn’t only about the ‘E’ anymore. The ‘A’ is emerging as an important factor. It isn’t about English for Academic Purposes it is more about academic purposes in English.”

In a similar vein, content teachers who participated in the workshop called for continued and expanded collaboration in inter- and intradisciplinary ways. Specifically, there was a need for *Kiso semi* teachers and content teachers to work together to establish a shared vision of essential academic skills for first-year students. Furthermore, to implement this vision, the sharing of course objectives among *Kiso semi* teachers was viewed as necessary. Following this, it became apparent that more interdisciplinary collaboration between EAP teachers and content faculty would benefit the student body. Finally, although apparently self-evident, the value of intradisciplinary coordination among EAP teachers themselves was stressed as pivotal to a more effective academic learning experience for the students.

CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have put forward a proposal for a two-level perspective on EAP syllabi in local contexts where content classes are delivered in English. Referring to a small-scale study in a Japanese university, this perspective took the form of two stages of enquiry. Firstly, an ELAP (English for Local Academic Purposes) stage in which we asked the Fundamental Seminar study skills teachers how they perceived the “good” university student in general academic terms. This was followed by an ESLAP (English for Specific Local Academic Purposes) stage in which we delved more deeply into the actual teaching practice of content faculty engaged in English-medium delivery. Both stages revealed insights into how the EAP curriculum could be localized.

In particular, the first ELAP stage was insightful for Anglophone EAP teachers in that, through the responses of *Kiso semi* faculty, we came to a better understanding of general Japanese academic norms. Interestingly, we discovered that some elements of EAP practice were already aligned with these norms, for example, the common emphasis upon intertextuality and multimodality. However, importantly, it became apparent that some common EAP practices did not reflect the actual, local use of English by students and Japanese faculty in English-medium classes. We can conclude that these ELAP findings, focusing on general academic skills, are potentially relevant for other EAP practitioners wishing to align their syllabi with general academic norms in Japan.

At the second stage, the ESLAP stage, of enquiry, insights more specific to our particular local context of L2-medium content instruction came to light; for instance, the addition of translanguaging to intertextuality and multimodality, the surprisingly small classes taught by Japanese content faculty in contrast to the large class sizes in EAP, and the growing realization that EAP should move beyond the teaching of language and concern itself more with the overall development of students’ academic skills. However, the ESLAP findings from this study are possibly less relevant to other EAP practitioners due to their local specificity.

Whether the findings from this particular Japanese context are applicable or not, the actual mechanism of the two-stage enquiry is potentially of wider relevance to EAP practitioners in other contexts. When EAP classes prepare students for English-medium content courses taught by local faculty, the EAP practitioner should consider the local academic norms that influence how those students will interact with content, faculty members, and each other.

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Identity (Learner or Teacher)

Who We Are, What We Think: Teachers Talking About Themselves and Teaching

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Why do teachers of English as a foreign language become teachers? Do they stay in another country for a long time – and, if so, why? Foreign language teachers of English in South Korea and Japan were surveyed (using SurveyMonkey), with questions divided into two broad areas: *who we are* and *what we think*. Of the 70 survey respondents, the EFL teachers were predominantly male (n = 49), from the USA (n = 37), teaching in South Korea (n = 53), and working at universities (n = 52). Among them, 93% had one or more teaching qualifications, and 50% had taught English for more than ten years. Respondents generally described language teachers in terms of their effect on their students, e.g., a good language teacher being someone who *cared*, while a good student was someone who was *motivated*. Immersion – defined as living in a country where the target language was the native language – was regarded as the best way to learn a foreign language, while work conditions were rated as the best thing about working in another country, even though cultural differences made this difficult, and respondents most missed family and familiar food. Most teachers found that living in another country had made them more open-minded and tolerant of “otherness.”

INTRODUCTION

A survey of English language teachers in South Korea and Japan was carried out, via Survey Monkey (www.surveymonkey.com), in partial fulfillment of the requirements of a doctorate in Education currently being completed via the University of Southern Queensland, Australia. Survey respondents answered questions that can be broadly divided into two categories: *who we are*, where they answered questions about their age, nationality, gender, teaching qualifications, teaching background, and workplace, and *what we think*, where they answered open-ended questions about their experiences of living and working in another country: what they liked and what they found most difficult to adjust to, their thoughts on what made a good language teacher a good language learner, the easiest way to learn a language, and how they felt living in another country had changed them. The results of analysis of the survey data are presented in this paper.

METHODOLOGY

Survey Design

There were ten pages to the survey. Survey questions were multiple-choice (thirteen questions allowed only one answer, and seven allowed more than one answer) and open-answer questions. Open-answer questions were formatted as “comment” fields, which allow unlimited space for responses. The multiple-choice questions aimed at profiling EFL teachers: *who we are*, with questions about age, nationality, workplace, teaching background, and teaching experience. The open-ended sections looked for *what we think*, with respondents completing sentences in relation to professional beliefs and cultural responses to living and working long-term in non-English speaking countries: what they thought the characteristics of a good language learner or student were, what they felt was the easiest way to learn a language, and what they liked or did not like about living in another country. The survey questions can be seen in the Appendix.

Administration

The survey was administered via SurveyMonkey and was open between the 29th of January and the 10th of March, 2011. Respondents for the survey were found in two ways: by email and by Facebook link/post. A link to the survey was emailed out by the author to all the teachers she knew who worked in South Korea and Japan. They were asked to forward the link to all teachers they knew working in South Korea and Japan. The author’s Facebook status was also updated to carry a link to the survey, with a request that teachers follow the link and complete the survey. In addition, Facebook messages were sent to people whose addresses were only known through Facebook.

Respondents

There were 84 respondents in total, of whom 70 completed the survey. Of the 14 people who did not complete the survey, the majority completed the first six pages, but did not complete the last few pages, which predominantly contained open-ended questions. Responses for the 70 people who completed the survey were analyzed and are discussed in the following sections of this paper.

The majority of the respondents were from the United States (52.9%), a figure that closely matches the Korea Institute of Statistics (KIS) 2010 figures for American citizens teaching in Korea on an E2 (temporary foreign resident, a one-year teaching) visa (55.9%). The majority of teachers from the USA reflects the close relationship between South Korea and the United States, and also reflects the preference for the teaching of American English in Korean schools.

Table 1 below gives a breakdown of the teachers who completed the survey, by country of origin, and compares the survey figures with the Korea Institute of Statistics figures for 2010, indicating that the survey fairly accurately reflected the foreign EFL teaching population in Korea. [The Japanese Ministry of Justice, which publishes immigration statistics in Japan, provides numbers of registered immigrants by nationality, but not by visa category; and by continent, but not by country, so statistics for Japan are not included.] There were no survey respondents from Ireland or South Africa, while about 7.8% of teachers, in total, come from those two countries to teach in Korea (KIS, 2010).

TABLE 1. Teacher Numbers by Country

Teachers by country	Survey	Survey (%)	**KIS (2010)**	KIS (%)
United States	37	52.9%	25157	55.9%
Canada	19	27.1%	9904	22%
United Kingdom	8	11.4%	4221	9.4%
Ireland	0	0%	1140	2.5%
Australia	3	4.3%	1076	2.4%
New Zealand	3	4.3%	1126	2.5%
South Africa	0	0%	2409	5.3%
TOTAL:	70		45033	

Note: KIS = Korea Institute of Statistics

All respondents were given the choice to be anonymous. To maintain anonymity, specific responses included in the following sections of this paper will be referred to by the system-generated number allocated to the respondent, for example, Respondent 31, or Respondent 70.

Coding Open-Ended Question Answers

Responses to the open-ended questions were downloaded from SurveyMonkey to Excel, and categorized into primary, secondary, and sometimes, tertiary categories, depending on the depth of detail in the response. Where respondents gave one-word answers, the response fell into one, primary category. When respondents gave longer responses, referring to different aspects of their experience, these were coded into more than one category.

For example, in response to the question, “What do you miss the most about your home country?” Respondent 2 wrote, “quality beer.” This was included in a count of the “food and drink” category, and also coded specifically as “drink.”

In response to the question, “What, to you, is the best thing about WORKING in the country where you currently work?” Respondent 57 replied:

> Generally speaking, the people I have met in my work situations have been honest and helpful. It is easy to do the work required in teaching English here. Of course, teachers work under a wide variety of conditions, but overall, in my experience, it has been quite rewarding personally, providing me with sufficient (though not affluent) financial means to live and enjoy life here.

This response was coded into the following categories: “work conditions,” “financial rewards/pay.”

DATA ANALYSIS: WHO WE ARE

This section summarizes the characteristics of the 70 respondents who completed the survey.

Age and Gender of the Respondents

Forty-nine men and 21 women completed the survey. On average, the respondents from South Korea were in their 30s or early 40s, while the respondents from Japan were in their late 40s and early 50s. In both countries, the majority of the respondents were from the USA, followed by Canada, with no more than one or two teachers coming from Australia or the UK. None of the respondents were from South Africa. Table 2 gives a breakdown of respondent characteristics: sorted by gender, age, and the country where they currently work.

TABLE 2. Age and Gender of the Respondents

	Male	Female
Completed survey	49	21
Currently work in South Korea	40	13
Currently work in Japan	9	6
Predominant age range (Korea)	30-34 / 40-44 (8 each)	30-34 / 35-39 (3 each)
Predominant age range (Japan)	50-54 (2)	45-49 (5)
Predominant nationality (Korea)	USA (20), Canada (10)	USA (7), Canada (6)
Predominant nationality (Japan)	USA (3)	USA (4)

As the majority of the respondents were male, and predominantly from the United States, the analysis of the survey data will provide more male viewpoints, and the responses to open-ended questions about the home country will also refer more to American culture and society.

It is not known why greater proportions of males responded to the survey than females: while the Korea Institute of Statistics figures show that more male than female foreign teachers were employed in South Korea on an E2 visa in 2008 and 2010, there were slightly higher numbers of female teachers working in South Korea in 2009 (see Table 3).

TABLE 3. Male and Female Foreign Teachers Working in Korea (KIS statistics, 2008, 2009, 2010)

	2008	2009	2010
Male	20299 (55.8%)	23360 (48.5%)	24072 (53.5%)
Female	16091 (44.2%)	24770 (51.5%)	20961 (46.5%)

Teaching Workplace

Of the 70 respondents who completed the survey, 52 taught English at universities and nine at language schools for adults, with the remaining nine teaching in private after-school programs or in elementary, middle, or high school, or in self-owned schools. Anecdotal evidence from teachers working in these countries shows that, on average, there are far fewer university English teachers than language school teachers in South Korea and Japan. It is assumed that the opposite was seen in survey respondents for two reasons: firstly, because the author works in a university, and therefore, had more acquaintances among university teachers; and secondly, because university teachers generally tend to stay in their workplace for longer, while there is a constant turnover of language school teachers, so teachers who no longer work in Korea or Japan may have chosen not to complete or forward the survey.

Formal Teaching Qualifications

Only five of the 70 respondents had no formal teaching qualifications. Fifteen respondents had a CELTA certificate, 32 had done some sort of TEFL or TESL certificate course, and 37 had a Master of Education, Master of Applied Linguistics, or a Master of Arts (TESOL) degree. Other teaching qualifications included a Bachelor of Education degree (8 respondents), a Doctor of Education degree (4), DELTA (2), and a teaching certificate from their home country, such as the PGCE in the UK (3) (Table 4).

It is likely that the large proportion of respondents with formal teaching qualifications includes more teachers at universities, and lower numbers at language schools. The Korean and Japanese governments only require that native English speakers at language schools have completed an undergraduate degree (ESLHQ, 2005). However, most universities in both countries give preference to master's degree holders when hiring native English speakers (ESLHQ, 2005; Dave's ESL Cafe, n.d.).

TABLE 4. Teaching Qualifications

Teaching qualification	No. of respondents
CELTA	15
TEFL / TESL certificate	32
DELTA	2
Bachelor of Education degree	8
Master of Education degree	37
Doctor of Education degree	4
Teaching cert. (PGCE, US etc.)	3
None	5

Length of Time Teaching English

The majority of the survey respondents regarded English language teaching as a medium to a long-term career option. Thirty five of the 70 teachers had spent more than 10 years teaching English (see Figure 1). Further analysis of the data provided by these 35 teachers revealed that 8 had taught in only one country, 14 in two countries, 8 in three countries, and 5 teachers had taught in four or more countries.

Only 4 of the 70 teachers had taught English for one to two years.

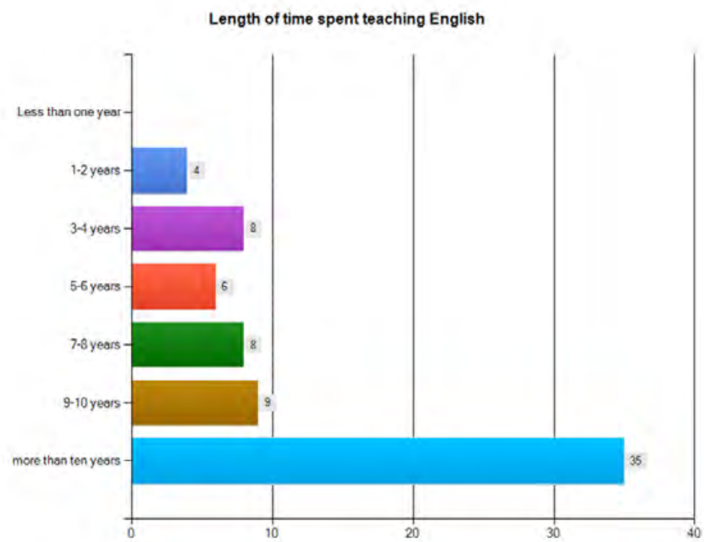

FIGURE 1. Length of Time Spent Teaching English

DATA ANALYSIS: WHAT WE THINK

In this section of the survey, respondents were asked to complete a series of statements or to answer open-ended questions. The response fields in SurveyMonkey, for each of these questions, were "comment" fields, allowing unlimited space for response. The author coded the answers according to the frequency with which words or phrases were repeated by respondents.

A Good Language Teacher Is . . .

Eleven of the 70 respondents completed this sentence with a noun, with the two most popular responses being *a facilitator* (4 respondents) and *a good listener* (3 respondents).

Thirty-three respondents described characteristics or qualities of a good teacher: for example, to Respondent 67, a good teacher was "a good learner" to Respondent 32, a good teacher was "adaptable, well prepared, patient, caring, friendly" while to Respondent 38, a good teacher is "well-organized." A good language teacher *cares* and *understands*, according to the respondents, they also *praise*, *produce results*, and *help students*. And a good language teacher was *flexible* and *patient*, in addition to being well-organized, adaptable, enthusiastic, inspiring and challenging, compassionate, knowledgeable, and open.

Responses to this sentence start were also analyzed in terms of their focus: whether the focus was on the qualities of the teacher on the student-teacher relationship and student needs or on the classroom context. Coding in this way revealed that 35 responses described a good language teacher in terms of their effect on students: for example, Respondent 25 stated that a good teacher was "a learning catalyst." To Respondent 60, a good teacher was "a person who cares about the students and who is good at encouraging students to develop their abilities to their fullest."

A few responses could be coded into more than one category: Respondent 65's response that a good teacher was "one who has knowledge of the subject matter, is skilled in it, is skilled in teaching it, understands the curriculum and the needs of the students, enjoys teaching, and strives for professional development," was coded as 1. classroom context, 2. students' needs, and 3. teacher and self-development.

A Good Student Is . . .

Responses to this sentence start focused on the behavior of the student in the classroom. A good student is *interested in learning*, *hard-working*, *attentive,* and *fearless*. But, most of all, a good student is *motivated*, according to 40 of the 70 respondents.

The Easiest Way to Learn a Language

Despite teaching English as a foreign language, 22 of the respondents stated that the easiest way to learn a language was through immersion. "Immersion," in the EFL context, is defined as living in a language community where the language being learnt by the EFL learner is the first language of the majority of the inhabitants, variously explained as:

by being immersed in the culture, or by experiencing the language in authentic situations. (Respondent 9)

by living and learning the language in a country where the language in question is spoken as a first language. (Respondent 25)

daily usage (Respondent 59)

Thirteen respondents felt that the easiest way to learn a language was through being motivated to learn. Twenty-eight respondents stated that constant practice was the easiest way to learn another language.

Having respondents state that "immersion" was the best way to learn a language was unexpected, for two reasons. Firstly, the majority of students learning English as a *foreign* language do not, and will not, ever be in an English immersion situation.

The second reason this answer was unexpected was because teachers were also asked, in another part of the survey, about their own language learning experiences. In response to the multiple-choice question, "Do you speak the native language of the country where you currently work?" 71.4% of respondents stated that they spoke it sufficiently well for day-to-day interactions (42 responses) or fluently (8 respondents) (see Figure 2). Respondents were also asked if they were studying the language spoken in that country. The majority (67%) were not studying the language but had studied it in the past, while 10% of respondents admitted to never having studied the language. The most common reason given for not studying the language was a lack of time – 13 respondents said that they were too busy to study, or had too many other commitments. These responses show a disconnect between the belief that immersion is the best way to learn a language and teacher behavior, with teachers not taking advantage of the immersion situation they live in to learn the native language.

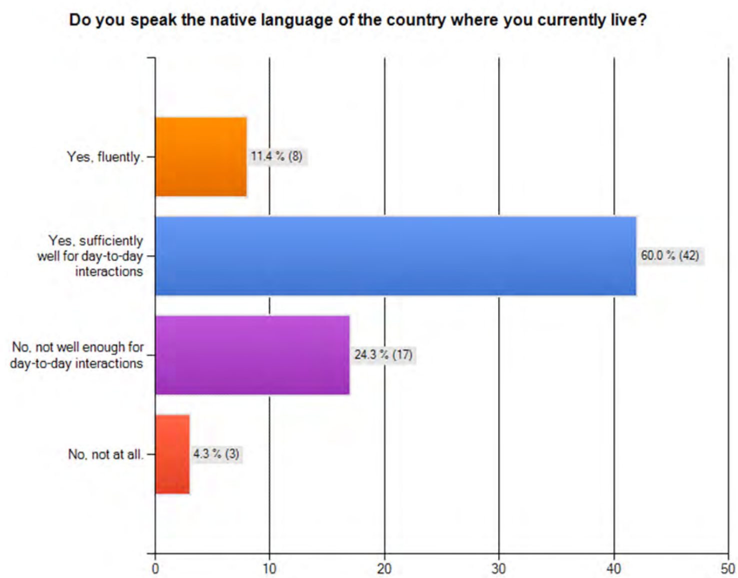

FIGURE 2. Do you speak the native language of the country?

The Best Thing About Living in Another Country

There was a lot of overlap in the answers, with people indicating more than one of the categories discussed below. Twelve respondents felt that the best thing about living in another country was family (it is unknown whether this was because the respondents had formed families in the country, had moved with family members, or because they were in a different country to their family), 9 mentioned that their standard of living had improved, 8 each commented on the safety (finding South Korea and Japan safer than their home countries) and the cost of living, commenting that the cost of living was cheaper in South Korea and Japan than in their home countries, 7 people moved to the country they currently worked in for the people, and 6 for the culture.

More than half the responses to this question were very brief, and even with the longer responses, without knowing the respondent's life history and background, it is not possible to analyze the responses in greater detail.

The Best Thing About Working in Another Country

The best thing about working in another country was the work conditions, according to 24 respondents. Given the high proportion of university teachers who completed the survey, this is unsurprising, because a full-time university workload ranges between 6 and 20 face-to-face hours a week, with two months (or more) of paid vacations a year. As Respondent 11 wrote, "Compared to my friends and family who are teachers at home, I have a dream job – fewer hours, more take-home pay, and students who sometimes even listen to me." To Respondent 31, "The teaching hour requirements are minimal compared to teaching in other countries. This is the best part about working here, as it allows for less burn out and more focus placed on those classes."

Another 12 respondents liked the pay, some specifically mentioning the ability to save money; and the students, who were described as *eager* and *polite* (Respondent 23), and *well-behaved* and *respectful* (Respondent 40). Vacations were the best thing about working in another country for 5 respondents, while having free time or freedom was important to 4, and feeling valued or trusted, and having opportunities for professional development were important to 3 people each.

The Most Challenging Aspect of Living in Another Country

The most challenging aspect of living in another country was, for most people, the cultural differences, with 24 people mentioning this in some way in their responses. When speaking about cultural differences, people mentioned that they found it difficult to cope with cultural expectations, especially in the workplace. They felt that they couldn't participate in work affairs (often because of a language barrier) and that they found that misunderstandings were common.

Cultural differences impacted on respondents in different ways: in the workplace, they created problems in relationships with supervisors, led to misunderstandings about expectations of behavior, or created problems because of documentation that was required in one country but not available in the home country:

> Sometimes there are demands from the local people that are not reasonable. For example, Korean people always ask for documents which I cannot produce because the US or Australia do not have such documents. (Respondent 28)

Four respondents were very judgmental about the country in which they lived, e.g., Respondent 68 found most challenging "*the culture, which is misogynistic, xenophobic, racist, agist* [sic]." Four other respondents found that the cultural differences created problems for self-expression:

> Although the cultures of saving face does carry much peace and calm in group atmospheres, it can also feel suffocating. I sense a deep need for freedom from their own cultural restraints. Because of the cultural belief that it is better to hide your emotions, I often feel constrained to be myself. (Respondent 9)

Twelve respondents stated that the treatment of foreigners was the most challenging issue for them, feeling that not being a native led to them being treated as less professional, and put them in work situations where the conditions changed and/or they were treated disrespectfully, or not supported by administrative staff, and were classed as an outsider forever. Fifteen people mentioned communication barriers as a problem.

Four people felt that there were no challenging aspects to living in another country, while four people felt that the lack of things to do in their free time was the most challenging aspect of living in another country.

Changes to Self

Teachers felt that living and working in another country had changed them by making them more open-minded (17 respondents), more patient (6 respondents), more tolerant (10 respondents), more confident (6 respondents), and less home country-centric (12 respondents). In all, 40 responses used the word *more*, or an equivalent comparative form, to talk about how living and working in another country had helped them grow, with responses ranging from Respondent 59's brief, "listen much more," to Respondent 9's more detailed response: "I know that I am much more considerate towards people. I have become more peaceful and open-minded. I am aware of the concept of culture."

Six people used the word *less*, or an equivalent comparative form, in their responses. Three of these used *less* in a positive way: for example, Respondent 39, who said, "My outlook on humanity is not so American-centered. I've learned how other people in other places do things, which is not necessarily how Americans do things." Two used *less* in a negative way, for example, Respondent 46 said, "I'm not nearly as healthy."

Respondent 20 was one of three people who saw themselves as both *more* and *less* after living and working in another country, saying, "I've become less Eurocentric, open to change, but also more critical of myself and others."

Thirty-two people mentioned that living and working in another country had helped them grow as a person. For example, Respondent 4 responded, "It has helped me grow up. I have learned that my answer is not the only answer. I have to let others decide for themselves. I have also come to recognize how powerless and insignificant I am."

For two people, living in another country had given them their family, while, for another two, the country they worked in had helped them pay off debts in their home country. Four people, however, of the 70 respondents, said that living in another country had not led to any changes within them. Another 4 responses were not coded, as the question "How, in your opinion, has living and working in another country changed you?" was answered with "of course."

Missed the Most About Home Country

Family and food were the two things missed the most. Twenty-four respondents mentioned missing family, and 20 mentioned food and drink (4 specified "beer"). Also missed were features of the home culture (14 respondents) such as cultural and social diversity (Respondents 3 "diversity," 14 "having openly gay friends," and 69 "variety"), a "relaxed approach to life" (Respondent 58), "western logic" (Respondent 59) and friends (12 respondents). Eight respondents each mentioned missing natural features of their home country: for example, "the beach, fishing and free lifestyle" (Respondent 40); and the ease of communication in the first language: "sometimes . . . the ease with which I can get things done in my first language" (Respondent 17).

Three people stated that there was nothing about their home country that they missed, with one person specifying that this was because they returned to their home country every year for a visit (Respondent 36).

CONCLUSION

Who *are* the EFL teachers in South Korea and Japan? From the survey responses, they are predominantly male (n = 49), from the USA (n = 37), teaching in South Korea (n = 53), and working at universities (n = 52). The vast majority (93%) have one or more teaching qualifications, and half of them have taught English for over ten years, thereby showing that they regard English language teaching as, at the least, a medium to long-term career option.

What do EFL teachers think about living and working in different countries? The majority (n = 40) feel that it has helped them grow. It has made them "more" than they were before. What they like best about living in another country is family (however, a limitation of the study was that responses were not elaborate enough to explain this further). What many EFL teachers like about working in another country are the work conditions (n = 24), what they find most challenging are the cultural differences (n = 24), and what they miss the most about their home countries are their family (n = 24) and food (n = 20).

EFL teachers generally describe a good language teacher in terms of their effect on their students (n = 35), and describe characteristics or qualities of a good teacher (n = 33) when asked to define what a good language teacher is, while the most defining characteristic or quality of a good student is motivation (n = 40). Many EFL teachers believe that the easiest way to learn a language is through constant practice (n = 28), or through immersion (n = 20), where immersion means living in a country where the target language is the native language.

The snapshot of native English speaker teachers presented in this survey has provided insight into the factors that lead teachers to stay in EFL, the aspects of culture and society that they find most difficult to cope with, and the challenges they face when they choose to work in another country. The snapshot shows a group of stable, highly-qualified English language teaching professionals, with similarities in their attitudes to life and work in another country. It is hoped that this study provides a starting point for further analysis of the lives and thoughts of EFL teachers.

THE AUTHOR

Maria Pinto *taught in universities in South Korea for six years, from 2005 to 2011. She has also taught English in Australia, El Salvador, and Mexico. She currently teaches at a university in Mexico. She is completing a doctorate in Education through the University of Southern Queensland, Australia. Email: maevid@hotmail.com*

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APPENDIX

The Survey

Page 1

Thank you for choosing to participate in this survey. The data from this survey will be used in part-fulfilment of the requirements to complete a Doctor of Education degree. The thesis title is "Constructing the self: Teachers' narratives of teaching EFL."

The purpose of this survey is to collect preliminary data about English language teachers in Korea and Japan: their backgrounds, current work situations, and their lives and experiences as teachers of English.

There are ten pages to this survey (including this one) and questions are generally multiple choice, or require short answers.

The survey should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. All of the questions require answers, except those on the last page.

Should you have any concern about the conduct of this research project, please contact the USQ Ethics Officer, Office of Research & Higher Degrees, University of Southern Queensland, West Street, Toowoomba QLD 4350, Telephone +61 7 4631 2690, email ethics@usq.edu.au

Thank you again for your help.

Maria Pinto

I have read the information provided above by the researcher, and choose to continue to complete this survey. Yes / No

Page 2

The information you provide on this page will be used in data analysis. No personally identifying details will be used in the dissertation. If individual responses are discussed in the analysis, pseudonyms will be used to protect the identities of the respondents. You are given an opportunity here to choose your own preferred alias.

Preferred alias:

Age: Under 20, 20-24, 25-29, . . ., 60-64, over 65

Gender: Male, Female

Nationality: American, Australian, Canadian, English, Irish, New Zealander, Scottish, South African, Welsh, Other (please specify)

How would you describe your ethnic background? [e.g., black British, third-generation Australian (of Scottish descent), Lebanese American] *[This was a Comment field.]*

Page 3: Current Workplace

This page asks you for information about your current and past work history.

1. Which country do you work in now? Korea, Japan, Other (please specify)
2. How long have you worked in that country?
3. How much longer do you think you will stay (continue to work) in that country?
4. Where do you currently teach English?: I only teach private classes, In a

language school for children (*hakwon* in Korea), in my own (personally owned) language school, in a middle school, in a university, in an elementary school, in a high school, in a language school for adults, other (please specify).
5. How long have you been at this workplace?: Less than 1 year, 1-2 years, 3-4 years, 5-6 years, 7-8 years, 9-10 years, more than 10 years
6. How many other foreign teachers do you work with? (i.e., how many other foreign teachers are there in your school?
7. What is your average class size?
8. Which of the following facilities do you have in the classroom? (Tick all that apply.): Video/DVD watching facilities, Cassette/CD player, Computers for the students, Projector, Teacher's computer, with internet connection, Blackboard or whiteboard, Teacher's computer, no internet connection, Other (please specify) . . .
9. What do you like best about your current job?: Relations with the administrative staff, Relations with work colleagues, The holidays, The students, The teaching hours, The work conditions, The pay, Other (please specify)
10. If you wish to provide further information about any of the questions on this page, please enter the information here. *[This was a Comment field.]*

Page 4: Education

This page collects information about your educational qualifications.

1. What was your undergraduate degree in?
2. Formal teaching qualifications. (Tick all that apply.) I have completed: CELTA, a TEFL/TESL certificate course, DELTA, a Bachelor of Education degree, a Master of Education degree, a Doctor of Education degree, Other (please specify).
3. Did you study any foreign languages at school? (Tick all that apply): Yes, at elementary school, Yes, at secondary school, Yes, at university, Yes, I took private classes, No, I did not study a foreign language at school, No, but my family speaks a language other than English at home, Other (please specify).
4. If you studied foreign languages at school, how were these predominantly taught?: Lectures, Communicative activities and games, Silent reading, Listening activities only, A mix of the above.

Page 5: Past Teaching Experience

This page collects information on your past teaching experience.

1. Have you taught English (or another language) in any other countries?: Yes / No
2. Previous teaching workplaces: Which other countries have you taught English in? For how long did you live in each of those countries? Why did you leave? (E.g., El Salvador – 1 ½ years – better job) *[This was a Comment field.]*
3. How long have you been an English teacher?: Less than one year, 1-2 years, 3-4 years, . . ., 9-10 years, more than 10 years.
4. How many countries have you taught in?: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, more than 5.

Page 6: Language Learning Experiences

This page asks for information about your past and present language study / learning experiences.

1. What is your first language? *[This was a Comment field.]*
2. How many languages, other than English, do you speak?: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 or more
3. How well do you speak the languages you speak? (e.g., English – native speaker, Swahili – basic beginner level proficiency) *[This was a Comment field.]*
4. How old were you when you first started learning a second language (please write down your age in years). *[This was a Comment field.]*
5. Do you speak the native language of the country where you currently live?: Yes, fluently, Yes, sufficiently well for day-to-day interactions, No, not well enough for day-to-day interactions, No, not at all.
6. Are you studying the native language of the country where you live?: Yes, I am, Not right now, but I have taken lessons in the past, No, I'm not and never have.
7. Please explain your answer. *[This was a Comment field.]*

Page 7: Language Learning and Teaching Beliefs

Please complete these three sentences.

1. A good teacher is: *[This was a Comment field.]*
2. A good student is: *[This was a Comment field.]*
3. The easiest way to learn another language is: *[This was a Comment field.]*

Page 8: Living and Working Overseas

The questions on this page ask for your beliefs about living and working overseas.

1. Which of these factors was the most important to you in choosing to work in this country?: Work conditions, Standard of living, Money, Family connections / relationships.
2. What, to you, is the best thing about <u>working</u> in the country where you currently work? *[This was a Comment field.]*
3. What is the best thing about <u>living</u> in the country where you currently work? *[This was a Comment field.]*
4. What is <u>the most challenging aspect</u> of living and working in another country? *[This was a Comment field.]*
5. What do you miss the most about your home country? *[This was a Comment field.]*
6. How, in your opinion, has living and working in another country changed you? *[This was a Comment field.]*
7. Please elaborate on your answers here, if you wish to. *[This was a Comment field.]*

Page 9: Keeping in Touch

This page deals with different forms of technology.

1. As a means of facilitating communication with friends back home and in this country, how important are the following to you: a home landline

phone, a mobile phone, internet access, video-chat facilities on your computer. (Not important, Fairly important, Very important)

2. I use the internet to: (Tick all that apply.): Stay in touch with family (phone, email, etc.), Read newspapers from home/other countries, Watch TV programs from home/other countries, Shop, Do my banking, Book travel, Plan classes, Look for jobs, Other (please specify)
3. I communicate with family and friends back home via: Phone text messages, Phone calls, Online chat (e.g., Skype, Messenger), Emails, Letters, Postcards. (Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Often, Always)

Page 10: Contact Information (confidential)

Please fill out the name and contact email address information on this page if you are willing to be contacted for a follow-up interview. Your name and email address will be kept confidential and not used in any way to identify you.

1. Are you willing to participate in a follow-up interview?: Yes / No
2. Name: *[This was a Comment field.]*
3. Email address: *[This was a Comment field.]*
4. Is there any further information you would like to add? *[This was a Comment field.]*

Learning Preferences / Styles

Peer Teaching: A Strategy for Exploiting Autonomous Learning

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Empowering students with knowledge and responsibility is the most challenging role of lecturers. Peer teaching provides a powerful learning experience since students of the same age group relate to each other. The absence of direct participation in the traditional method of learning has paved the way for extensive research on student-centered learning, as the learner population has become more diverse in terms of needs and expectations. It is, therefore, our belief that teaching methodology should include different practices based on the students' diverse background. Considering that our students' culture encourages mutual interdependence, the basic assumption of our study is that students teaching students could be an effective teaching and learning method. This strategy focuses on constructing knowledge and integrating it with the general skills of critical thinking and problem solving, through student motivation and self-involvement. This, consequently, facilitates the acquisition of a number of skills such as editing and proof-reading, and communicative as well as creative skills. The present study is an inquiry into the students' perceptions of peer-teaching methodology for English language teaching, as an innovative instruction strategy for pre-intermediate level learners. The findings show that high-achievers or tutors developed a sense of responsibility and self-confidence while low-performers or tutees got motivated and inspired to perform. The tutees admitted having a high level of comfort and understanding. The tutors had to face the challenges of stimulating their tutees' interest and increasing their motivation to learn. The tutees had to face the challenges of staying motivated and perseverant.

INTRODUCTION

Classical teacher-centered learning was very formal and direct. The teachers decided how and what the students should learn, what the student should do and even think. This resulted in better control of the class and was suitable for shyer and less confident students who were unwilling to participate, because the teacher took the active role during the class. During the class, the students might have felt that they were attentive and therefore assimilating what was taught, but the risk of forgetting the topics taught outside of class hours was too high. In this method, the teacher set performance criteria for students and the focus was always on having the right answers. In return, the students expected teachers to teach them what they needed to pass the test. Content coverage became the priority for the teachers, passing the tests for the students.

It was soon realized that, since the learner played a key role in learning, he had to be in the centre, with the teacher in the background as facilitator.

Teaching and learning methodology has witnessed a paradigm shift, with the cognitivist perspective of learner-centeredness now taking precedence over what is considered a more classical teacher-oriented learning experience. The concept of learner-centeredness is intrinsically linked with the concept of learner autonomy and with the learner assuming control of their learning within a community.

Being autonomous does not mean learning alone but, rather, having the ability to use metacognitive thinking and make decisions critically about the methods used to learn and develop. Learner autonomy represents a positive interdependence between the feeling of support created within the group and the need for individual accountability, the latter leading to feeling pressure within the group (Murphey & Jacobs, 2000). The learning process is thus made as important as the final product. Group activities foster positive interdependence which, at the same time, promotes individual, autonomous learning. In a group, decisions are taken through cooperation and mediation and the responsibilities lie with all group members. Students like group work and find it motivating, as they are more likely to debate and disagree with their peers than with their teacher (Byers & Wilkins, 2005).

Motivation influences the extent to which learners are ready to learn by themselves. Therefore, the teachers must ensure that students are motivated before they train students to become autonomous. Leon Jakobovits (1970) asserts that "there are four sets of factors which, more than anything else, account for the various degrees of success or failure of a foreign language learner: aptitude, intelligence, perseverance or motivation, and other factors" (p. 120). Thus, motivation to learn is personal, but it could be affected by factors which are external. In this context, positive interdependence and individual responsibility have become necessary rather than optional in the learning process, as employable students are required to be active citizens who exercise both their rights and duties in a society where "cooperation is prized over competition" (Murphey & Jacobs, 2000, p. 235).

RESEARCH BACKGROUND

It is well-known that autonomous learning and a learner-centered methodology are facing numerous challenges all over the world, particularly in Eastern cultures, such as that of Oman. This is due to a series of factors.

The first and most important is a lack of exposure to these, brought about by an education system that, although evolving rapidly, is currently still in its infancy. Most of the students enrolled in higher education institutions in Oman represent merely the second generation of educated individuals. Furthermore, there is a lack of parental involvement in children's learning. This means increased dependence on the teacher's assistance, and it also signifies that these children grow up into adults incapable of taking charge of their own learning. Parent involvement in children's learning is positively related to achievement, and the most effective form of parental involvement is considered to be working directly with children in learning activities at home (Cotton & Wikelund, 2001). Thus, the family background plays an important role in promoting learning autonomy and, unless encouraged and supported in their learning choices, students may shy away from responsibility for their learning. Some may even resent teachers who try to take away some of their power, labeling them as irresponsible or unqualified (Murphey & Jacobs, 2000).

The traditional teacher role through the years has been to *provide* knowledge, rather than to teach how this knowledge should be applied in different situations. Therefore, the lecture approach has been a student favorite as it requires no active involvement on the learner's part. However, the learner population has become more diverse in terms of needs and expectations, and the wider availability of higher education programs has opened the doors for learners coming from different walks of life and different backgrounds. Thus, positive interdependence and individual responsibility have become necessary rather than optional in the learning process, as employable students are required to be active citizens who exercise both their rights and duties in a society where cooperation means more than competition (Murphey & Jacobs, 2000).

In spite of all the challenges mentioned above, autonomous learning, through the support of peers, is the way forward for Omani higher education because it builds on the Arab value of collectivism where loyalty to the group is important (Feghali, 1997). The challenge is to make collectivism work in harmony with individualism, where the latter is defined as taking individual responsibility for learning and developing a sense of accountability to self, peers, and society.

The purpose of this research was to examine the effectiveness of peer-teaching strategy with Omani students, with particular attention paid to their comfort levels during the performance of tasks when assisted by their peers. It is believed that working with peers will have a positive impact on students' academic performance.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The research design was based on the principles of action research, with the aim of "adopting an integrated approach to learning" (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 297). The central idea behind this project was to intervene in a situation in order to bring about changes and to better exploit our students' existing autonomous learning skills. We started with the premise that our students' autonomy did not reflect in their learning strategies and hence needed to be channeled effectively in this direction through the use of different teaching strategies.

The students' reflections on the peer-teaching activities they participated in were qualitatively analyzed. Student reflections were obtained through semi-structured group interviews in coordination with classroom observations. Participants in this study included two groups (of approximately 25 students each) of Foundation Programme Semester I students as well as two groups of Semester II students.

In the initial stage of the research, one group of Semester II students was asked to take part in an error correction activity during an Academic Writing lesson. The students were asked to write a 250-word paragraph on the topic "An ideal student," after which some of the students were divided into pairs of tutor and tutee. The tutors were asked to correct the paragraphs of the tutees by looking at different aspects of the writing, such as relevance to the topic, mechanics, organization, and cohesion. The other students had their paragraphs corrected by the teacher. The students were then interviewed about their perception of the task via a series of open-ended questions such as "How did you feel when your paragraph was corrected by your peer?" and "What was your comfort level?"

The error correction technique was used with all participants in different variations. Students were asked to swap their work with their partner in order to fill the roles of tutor and tutee during the same task. In some cases, the answers had to be written on the board by the teacher in order to give students confidence and motivate them to perform the task. Since the purpose of the task was to promote learning though peer support, the peers were expected to experience a high comfort and confidence level right from the beginning.

Other peer-learning activities used were learning exchanges, study groups, and student partnerships. The learning exchanges were done throughout the semester, and the students were required to teach an already known topic once a week, after being given 15 minutes of revision time. They were asked to read the rules and present them on the board on a voluntary basis, and elicit examples from the others. While one student was teaching, the others were helping elicit responses, discussing the examples and explaining the rules to each other. With the rules on the board, the students started working on their worksheets in groups by referring to the board and the book. The student that understood better or understood how to do the exercises, explained this to the others. During the last 30 minutes of the session, each team was asked to write the answers to the first exercise in their handout on the board, and then compare and discuss results in order to find the right answer. During the student teaching time, the teacher monitored the activity without intervening. The teacher's job was to facilitate both the smooth development of the lesson, and the interaction within the study groups.

As a follow-up, the participants were asked to prepare a final revision lesson in their respective study groups on a given revision topic. They were given one week to prepare a lesson plan and teach it to their peers. At the end of the lesson, they were asked a series of open-ended questions such as: "How did you find this exercise?" "Did you understand the topic better than when the teacher taught it?" and "Do you feel more prepared for the exam?"

Study groups were used as a medium for peer teaching during classes. For outside class work the students were divided into pairs (consisting of a tutor and a tutee) and were asked to meet once a week to study the topics covered or the topics that the tutees found challenging. The students assigned to the role of tutor were considered to be among the high-achievers in the class, based on their test results and in-class performance. The tutors were asked to keep a record of their meetings including date, time, place, and topics covered, as well as comments on the tutees' performance and progress.

E-learning could also be exploited in order to implement the above-mentioned strategies in a more effective manner, as there were no space-time restrictions and the pressure on the tutors as well as the tutees would significantly diminish. In addition, the interest of both tutors and tutees increases considerably when using e-learning tools, as does learning through visual applications. This was experienced by the researchers during a PowerPoint presentation in which the students were divided into groups and were given the task to critically analyze a short story or a fable. Despite occasional grammatical inaccuracies, it was very satisfying to see their mature interpretation and high-order thinking skills manifest.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

When asked how they felt during the learning exchanges, the students stated that they experienced a high comfort level because they were able to relate to each other and at times use Arabic to communicate (the use of Arabic was despite the fact that the two main pre-requisites when going to the board were to speak only English and not use any material but teach from memory). They also thanked the teacher for the opportunity, saying they found it to be a highly enjoyable and interactive experience. Study groups were not a new concept for them as they had been exposed to this learning strategy throughout their study years. However, the study partnerships proved challenging at times, especially for the semester I groups. They admitted that, since the concept had not been applied in an organized framework, they had difficulties in scheduling meetings and keeping records. The tutors had to face the challenges of stimulating their tutees' interest and increasing their motivation to learn. The tutees had to face the challenges of staying motivated and perseverant. These factors, however, created a positive pressure on the tutors, who felt more responsible and, in some cases, arranged more meetings with the tutees than mandated. Tutors also tried reading and researching before teaching and felt the urge to refer to the dictionary in order to be sure of word meanings before asking the tutees. They also tried several teaching methods such as repetition and reinforcement to ensure that their peers understood the topic. Tutors gave tutees written feedback and homework. Below are some excerpts from the tutor reports:

> "Ahmed know who he start the paragraph, he wrote nice in introduction but he has difficulties in the main body he can't organize the point so, I teach him how he organize his point in main body and really he learn quickly and when I give him to wrote paragraph in second time he wrote it nicely so, I think he will improve himself in writing soon."

> "Rahma didn't has any problems in writing but she didn't know how she start writing. I explained to her you start the writing with the main idea of topic after that you talk about the topic and the end you write the conclusion. I think now she know how to write the paragraph step by step."

The tutors mentioned that in spite of their efforts, some tutees were not committed to their study meetings and hence didn't benefit from this strategy. The tutees comments were in turn very positive. They stated that their comfort level was very high, partly because of a lack of pressure to respond within a certain time limit. They didn't feel any sense of embarrassment, at times finding answers while asking questions. They felt that the only possible impediment to their learning by means of this strategy was their lack of confidence in the tutors' ability to guide and to correct them.

Overall, the students' response was positive; however, some of them confessed that the pressure that they faced in keeping the groups or partnerships together generated a decrease in motivation to stay on task. Group or pair cohesion was an important factor in the successful completion of the task, with friction more likely to arise in the case of incompatible pairs or groups. Therefore, groups or pairs of friends or individuals who lived in the same area were more likely to function better. In some cases, where the students were not motivated to act as either a tutor or a tutee in the first place, the partnerships didn't work at all. One student admitted that he even studied better on his own, as he complained that his tutee couldn't pull his own weight, and "it was just too difficult to teach him."

On the other hand, peer-teaching remains one strategy that is intrinsic to student culture and to the learning process, because students have always sought the help of other students in understanding a topic that they found challenging. Furthermore, Arab culture, in general, and Omani culture, in particular, encourage collaboration and reliance on a group structure such as the family, team, or tribe for help. This can be exploited in order to promote learning through peer-teaching, provided the tutors as well as the tutees are trained and that it is done in an organized framework with specific tasks. The desire to learn and a drive for success and its power to improve self-image and interpersonal skills remain the motivating factors for employing peer-teaching as a learning strategy.

CONCLUSION

It is said willingness paves the way. The absence of direct participation and activities in the traditional method of learning was the underlying factor for the extensive research into student-centered learning at present. Compared to the traditional method, student-centered learning focuses on constructing knowledge through searching, gathering, and synthesizing information, and integrating it with the general skills of inquiry, communication, critical thinking, problem-solving, and group work Hence, instead of the focus being on problems, it is on utilizing and transferring knowledge which emerges in a real life context. The teacher's role here does not become passive as he coaches and facilitates, and both students and teachers learn together. Thus, both teachers and students assume an active role in the entire learning process, the focus being on asking better questions and learning from errors. Unlike the traditional method, where students are always pressurized by tests and examinations, here students seem to enjoy papers, projects, performances, and portfolios, since all these seem to involve them in the learning process more, and in addition, giving them a feel for evaluating and testing – the journey of learning thus being more important than the destination. Omani and Arab culture in general encourage peer support and foster collaborative learning. Student peer teaching builds on these already consolidated values. The students are motivated, and learning outcomes are achieved without creating an atmosphere of anxiety. Peer tutors are motivated to teach and feel a high level of confidence, and the peer tutees are motivated to learn. Finally, the lecturers are motivated to facilitate – with complete focus on the achievement of proposed learning outcomes.

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Materials / Course Design

Model United Nations for EFL/ESL Learners: Preparation and Outcomes

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EFL/ESL students participating in a Model United Nations (MUN) must research a chosen nation, and devise and discuss possible solutions to real world problems in a simulated global forum using English as a medium. Student and teacher feedback has shown this to be a motivating and valuable process in which EFL/ESL learners can develop greater language skills as well as cultural awareness and critical thinking ability. Situated in the field of Content/Language Integrated Instruction, this paper outlines how students might be prepared for participation in an MUN and what language outcomes can be expected.

INTRODUCTION

In the twenty years that Kyoto Gaidai Nishi High School has been organizing the Kansai High School Model United Nations (KMUN), the event has grown from an English-language activity for two high schools to an event involving 250 delegates from numerous schools across Japan. Several TESOL educators have recognized the value of exposing students to a global curriculum (Cates, 1990; Darling, 2006) and research has suggested that participating in a model United Nations (MUN) can benefit second-language acquisition (Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008). Although the KMUN has grown to an extent where conference facilities are required, scaled-down versions can easily be held in school gyms or even classrooms. This paper explains how students are prepared for participation in the KMUN and what learning outcomes are expected.

WHAT IS A MODEL UNITED NATIONS (MUN)?

A MUN is designed to assist young people to learn about the complexities of global politics through a simulation of the activities of the United Nations. Participants become delegates of a country and pursue solutions to world issues using the meeting protocols of the U.N. For students in EFL/ESL classes, there is the parallel goal of utilizing learned language skills for contextualized presentations and discussions.

A MUN may be small or large. Some involve meetings of multiple U.N. agencies centered on an ongoing General Assembly. The KMUN is intended to accommodate the language skills of relatively young EFL learners and thus only comprises a simulation of a General Assembly meeting in which delegates debate four thematically related issues. In 2011, the agenda was as follows:

Theme:	Food Security
Topic 1:	Gender, Empowerment, and Access to Food
A.M.	Improving Nutrition, Food Quality, and Safety
P.M.	Managing Access and Control of Food Supply
Topic 2:	Food Shortage
A.M.	Ensuring a Sustainable Food Supply
P.M.	Providing Emergency Food Aid

Stages of a Meeting

To participate in the KMUN, the students must be familiar with the following essential stages:

Day 1: Writing *Draft Resolutions* (DR). The DR is an action plan to resolve the issue. It must be written in advance and should contain 10-15 clauses. At KMUN, each of four *Regional Blocs* collaboratively drafts a DR on the first day. Delegates have already discussed the issues in their classrooms and had practice in writing similar clauses.

Day 2 and 3: *Call to Order* through the Meeting *Chair*.

- Opening the *Speakers List*. This is a list of nations who wish to make a formal speech on the issue. Delegates indicate their intention to the chair who instructs the secretaries to magnetically attach country names to a whiteboard. Countries can add their name until the delegates agree to close the list. The meeting cannot be adjourned until the speakers list is closed and every nation on the list has spoken.
- *Formal debate* is the default format of the meeting. Here, delegations on the speakers list make 90-second speeches on the issue. To deviate from formal debate for any reason, delegates must attract the attention of the chair by saying *Motion* and asking that the meeting enter a different phase for a given time. If there is disagreement, a vote must be taken. For example:

Portugal:	*Motion (raising placard).*
Chair:	*Yes, Portugal.*
Portugal:	*Thank you, Madame Chair. I propose that we enter informal debate for 10 minutes to discuss the Draft Resolution in more detail.*
Chair:	*There is a motion on the floor to enter informal debate for 10 minutes. Are there any objections?*

Delegates must return to formal debate after the agreed time period.
Early in the meeting, a motion to introduce the DR is undertaken by a representative of the authoring bloc. The DR is displayed to the floor on an overhead projector and each delegation also receives a paper copy. The DR may then be discussed, amended, and finally voted on at the conclusion of the session.

- *Informal debate* is the forum in which delegates can discuss the issue. This allows the greatest scope for the use of English. To speak, delegates must first be recognized by the Chair. For example:

India:	*Madame Chair (raising placard).*
Chair:	*Yes, India*
India:	*Thank you, Madame Chair. To Ghana, why do you disagree with clause 6 on the draft resolution? Surely countries should share costs equally?*

  Many delegates may wish to speak, and order must be maintained by the chair. Delegates need not answer questions immediately, but the chair should try to ensure balance between questions and answers.
- *Caucusing*. Delegates can make a motion to briefly adjourn the meeting to discuss strategies, amendments, or other points. At the KMUN, these meetings are held in regional blocs, and delegates may speak in L1 or English.
- *Amendments to the DR*. Delegates may wish to change the DR by adding, removing, or altering clauses. To make an amendment, they should first discuss the idea in caucusing before making a motion to explain the change to the floor. The chair will then ask the original sponsors of the DR if they agree with the amendment (is it *friendly* or *unfriendly*?). If the amendment is friendly, the delegates should immediately amend their copy of the DR accordingly. If it is unfriendly, the DR remains unchanged until the amendment is voted upon at the end of the session.
- *Voting*. Once the speaker's list has been closed and all nations on the list have spoken, a delegate will make a motion for the *closure of debate*. Delegates must then vote on unfriendly amendments and finally on the DR. After this, the meeting is adjourned or closed. In all votes, including motions, it is imperative that all delegates participate. Abstention may be indicated but is discouraged unless the delegation has a genuine reason for doing so.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

Outcomes will vary significantly according to context. The following goals are relevant to the curriculum design and materials development at Kyoto Gaidai Nishi High School and inform formal testing. Students should show improvement in the following areas:

Language

- Vocabulary from input materials and word/phrase lists.
- Grammatical accuracy through noticing structures in input materials, classroom exposition of form, and by writing speeches and other assignments.
- Understanding authentic and scaffolded texts.
- Asking and answering questions (using secondary sources).
- Negotiating (requests, suggestions, agreeing, disagreeing, persuading, compromising).

Skills

- Analysis, criticism, and logical argument in devising and refining solutions to issues.
- Research and taking effective notes.
- Maintaining or refining a point of view in debate.
- Presentation skills.
- Organizing and interacting with peers.

Content

- Knowledge about the operations of the United Nations.
- Knowledge about a chosen country and region.
- Understanding of global problems and possible solutions.
- Understanding of global politics.

PREPARING STUDENTS

The KMUN completes a preparation course of approximately 120 or 100 contact hours, depending on stream. Throughout, there is an attempt to balance content-learning goals with English language-learning goals. Both classes cover the following areas:

- Learning about the UN.
- Initial research and choosing a country. Limiting the regional spread in classes assists the teacher in materials preparation.
- Country research. A balance of teacher-made materials and individual research is recommended. Students may have difficulty locating and discerning good sources of information unless research tasks are adequately structured. Cell phone use in class to answer questions on prepared worksheets has been effective.
- Student presentations on the chosen country. (The following stages are non-linear.)
  - Learning protocols and practicing formal debate, informal debate, and caucusing.
  - Learning about the issue.
  - Preparing four speeches.
  - Writing DRs and amendments. An online bulletin board allows students to communicate with other schools.

KEY ROLES

- The chair runs the meeting and must be organized and confident, with strong English ability.
- Secretaries assist the chair and are responsible for the speakers list, timing speeches, counting votes, filing amendments, and preparing meeting materials. Public speaking is not required, so this may suit students who

want responsibility but lack confidence in speaking. The chair and secretaries are rotated between morning and afternoon sessions so that all students represent a country.
- Bloc leaders coordinate the writing of the DR and amendments, and require a clear understanding of the issue and protocol. They need to be able to take control of bloc meetings, so they should be strong communicators with reasonable English ability.
- Pages. Junior students carry messages between delegates during sessions.

STUDENT PERFORMANCE

Not every student participant excels in the KMUN event, but student feedback overwhelmingly shows satisfaction with the process. Research by Yashima (2009) suggests that participation in an imaginary English-language community such as the MUN may convey some of the gains achieved by participating in an actual English-language community abroad, both in TOEFL scores and through a sense of what can be achieved in English. I got a sense there was a critical moment in these students' learning experience when English, which had just been another subject to be tested and graded, had become a 'language' (Yashima, 2009, p. 153).

Teachers typically attend the KMUN year after year, and the event continues to grow in scale. Teacher feedback supports the view that students are motivated by the experience and show gains in the areas described, particularly in their understanding of the complexities of global issues and their confidence in framing arguments in English to resolve them. Whilst not presented as definitive research, the following two excerpts from a student workbook may illustrate the increased complexity of argument that teachers cite as reasons they bring their students to the event. The first excerpt comes from early in the course, and the second, after several weeks of classroom study.

> Our biggest problem is the female school attendance rate. In Zambia, about half of girls cannot go to school. This is because girls don't have enough money to go to school. Also, they cannot get enough knowledge so they cannot work, take care of children and make food well. Our solution is giving money to girls. We need to receive money from Zambian government and ODA so we'll have a meeting with them.

> Since Zambian women do not own property, it is very hard for them to get loans from a bank. Access to credit is very important for women, so several institutions have been started to help more women get loans. If men and women are equal the country can make more economic progress.

CONCLUSION

Preparing students for a Model United Nations involves extensive preparation on the part of both teacher and student, and the cognitive load for young people may be high, given the added challenge of a second language. However, participation in a MUN is a highly enriching experience that extends the classroom far beyond the usual constraints to give students a chance to develop and use their English language skills in a challenging, realistic, and extremely relevant forum. For these reasons, it is to be recommended.

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Changing the Curriculum Paradigms: Implementing a New Needs Assessment Model for University Language Programs

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As part of the development and implementation of a new English language curriculum, a multiple methods and source needs assessment study was designed and employed at a four-year university in Japan. The needs assessment model incorporated four components for curriculum innovation: (a) preparation, (b) administration, (c) planning, and (d) implementation. Stakeholders in the project included university students (n = 1533), teaching staff (n = 33), university administrators and staff (n = 11), and domain experts (n = 7). Data collection included the use of questionnaires, unstructured and semi-structured interviews, and systems and materials analyses. The processes followed through the development and application of the needs assessment model served to provide a framework for the development of a cohesive language program curriculum.

INTRODUCTION

The Background of the Issue

The field of needs assessment (NA) has received attention in various disciplines over the years. As a part of program and curriculum development, NA plays a recognized role as a valuable source of information from which relevant and informed curricular decisions can be made. However, the collection, analysis, and interpretation of this information involve addressing a number of questions: (a) What are needs and how are they defined? (b) Whose needs are addressed in a needs assessment? (c) What is an appropriate model for needs assessment? (d) How will the data from a needs assessment be analyzed? and (e) How will the results of a needs assessment be used? The process of finding answers to these questions has been the basis for the development of several prominent NA models that have been adopted or adapted by educators and administrators at their own particular institutions (e.g., Brown, 2009; Kaufman & English, 1979; Long, 2005; McClelland, 1995; McKillip, 1987; Munby, 1978; Richterich & Chancerel, 1987; Stufflebeam, McCormick, Brinkerhoff & Nelson, 1985; Witkin, 1984; Witkin & Altschuld, 1995).

As elsewhere, many of the NAs conducted in Japan have been related to ESP (English for Specific Purposes) development (e.g., Cowling, 2007; Iwai, 2004; Tanaka, 2001; Tsuda, 2006). How does the field of NA relate more globally to the current situation faced by administrators and instructors working in university settings in Japan? With a decline in student numbers due to a decrease in the birthrate in Japan, an increasing number of students are enrolling in tertiary education (MEXT, 2006). As the demographics of the student body change, so do the dynamics of the university itself, including its departmental curricula. As four-year universities continue to take over the market previously held by two-year colleges (*tandai*) and vocational institutions (*senmon gakko*), Japan is beginning to see a new accountability in education. There is an increasing rationale for moving away from teaching English merely for the sake of offering English in the curriculum, to addressing more explicitly the pragmatic issues justifying English language study as part of the university curricula.

From this standpoint, it can be argued that university administrators need to address more directly the needs of the learners when designing English curricula and, in particular, the curriculum offered for non-English majors. There are, arguably, many institutions where curriculum decisions are still based on tradition, instructors' intuitions, or quick, one-shot surveys. University administrators must address students' needs more effectively, and one step towards this goal is to identify a system for NA that addresses the multi-faceted roles of and needs for English at the tertiary level.

The present study is centered on the planning and implementation of the second phase of an English language program, referred to as the Option English Course, which was designed for second-, third-, and fourth-year students. It was believed that, rather than providing a continuation of the first-year Basic English Course, offering a variety of classes – or options that were designed to meet the students' interests and needs – would better serve the students, the English language program, and the university as a whole.

While investigating language program development, several issues were identified as crucial to this project. In order to create a language program distinguished by clarity of purpose and self-regulating (through the use of high-quality assessment measures), a systematic approach to the collection of data concerning stakeholder needs was required. A model was needed to incorporate a systematic approach to (a) collecting information about needs and (b) incorporating these data into a framework for making curricular decisions.

Another issue addressed in this study is the accurate identification of the needs of a variety of stakeholders who were invested in the development, success, and continuation of a viable English language program. For the development of the second tier of the English language program, it was essential that a variety of stakeholders have input into how the course was structured. Without the inclusion of these stakeholders, decision-making would be unilateral and subjective, and based on the ideas and opinions of only the few individuals who were charged with developing the course.

In an age of increasing accountability in education, this goal addressed the evolution of a "defensible purpose" (Stufflebeam, et. al., 1985, p. 16) and a "defensible curriculum" (Brown, 1995, p. 36). In this endeavor, it was particularly important to ascertain the differences among various stakeholder groups: to successfully reflect the range of needs expressed by the groups and to incorporate them into a viable working program. It was therefore imperative to discover ways to identify possibly differing needs and to incorporate various components of these needs into the development of the program.

For the purpose of this study, needs assessment is understood to include the collection and analysis of information to inform curriculum development and choices within the context of a learning and teaching institution. Needs encompass a larger framework than the language needs of the learners. Language needs are defined as (a) particular linguistic items and functions, (b) the perceived need for English from the perspectives of learners, instructors, administrators, and domain experts, and (c) goals and expectations for English language learning from the perspectives of learners, instructors, administrators, and domain experts. Stakeholders are defined as "those whose opinions should be considered in forming the purpose, scope, and design of the needs assessment. They include those who will receive, use, and benefit from the results" (Soriano, 1995, p. 6).

METHODS

The Institutional Context

The main site for this study was a four-year private Japanese university. This mid-level liberal arts university had four faculties: Commerce, Economics, Law, and Literature, with a total student population of approximately 6,000 students. The English language program curriculum and current study were located within a Foreign Language Institute at the site university. All students were required to take 8 to 12 credits of foreign language courses during their four years of university study, depending on their faculty and course. Although English was not a required subject, many students elected to take English to fulfill their foreign language requirements. In previous years, students had been divided by faculties into groups and assigned a class based on their enrollment in Basic English (Eigo I and Eigo II) classes.

Student Participants

The majority of the participants involved in this study were students enrolled in the university at the time the data were collected. A number of student groups were included as participants: (a) first-year students (n = 1027); (b) second-year students (n = 497); and (c) third-year (n = 7) and fourth-year students (n = 2) who were in the process of job hunting. Other participants included: (a) Japanese L1, non-language teaching staff, (b) English teaching staff (Japanese L1 and English L1), (c) faculty deans and curriculum chairs, (d) Foreign Language Institute Director, (e) University Career Office staff, (f) University Curriculum Office staff, and (g) other university administrators.

Instrumentation

A variety of data collection methods were used throughout the implementation of the Needs Assessment. Statistical data were collected through the use of questionnaires, which included the collection of biodata, opinion and judgment surveying through open-ended and closed items, test scores from an in-house placement test, and student data (e.g., student enrollment and failure rates). Non-statistical data included information gathered from non-expert and expert practitioner intuition, unstructured and semi-structured interviews, the mining and analysis of existing information (e.g., records and document analyses, systems analyses, means analysis, literature review, correspondence by e-mail and letter), and a variety of meetings including advisory, interest group, planning, and review meetings (Brown, 2001, 2009; Long, 2005).

Components of the Needs Assessment Model

Component 1: Preparing for the Needs Assessment

The farthest-reaching component centered on the preparation phase for the NA, which began three years before the Option English Course was implemented. The purpose of the NA had to be decided upon in order to proceed. Through a series of meetings with the university administrators, the Institute Curriculum Committee, and within the curriculum working group of the English Teachers Committee, the need for a second tier to the English Language Program was clarified, as well as what type of optional class system would be feasible. Through this series of meetings, the stakeholders in the NA as well as the users and possible sources of data and information were discussed and decided upon.

In order to formulate the questions for the NA, data collection began with the collection of printed material. Materials on current and past curricula for the various Eigo I/II programs were useful in a systems analysis, which gave rise to the identification of some of the problems with the previous curricula, and a list of problems and how a new curriculum might help address these problems was drawn up. The university Career Office was a valuable source of records for a document analysis, covering the placement of university graduates, magazines targeting university-level job seekers, samples of English tests, and the Entry Sheet system used in the hiring process. Through planning meetings, the limitations of the needs assessment project were defined in terms of personnel resources, time limitations, and financial resources.

A literature review was conducted, targeting previous work done in needs assessment and evaluation at both EGP (English for General Purposes) and ESP levels, in particular, looking at instrument development. The information from this literature review was essential in establishing the type of methodology that would be employed for the NA, the type of data to be collected, the analytical methods to be employed, and the procedures to be followed when implementing the project. Advisory meetings with the staff involved in the Eigo I/II courses were conducted to explain the goals of the data collection and to keep part-time staff members informed of progress in the data collection.

The main data collection instrument employed in the NA was the questionnaire. One of the first steps in formulating ideas for the content of a questionnaire was a series of unstructured, or conversational (Patton, 2003), interviews with administrators, non-English teachers, and representatives of companies employing university graduates. These interviews served to provide baseline data for the development of semi-structured interview questions as well as questionnaire items.

Semi-structured interviews were then conducted with full-time staff, Career Office administrators, and third- and fourth-year students from all four faculties. The semi-structured interviews conducted with the third- and fourth-year students were built around the previously conducted document analysis and the unstructured interviews, building on keywords and ideas uncovered in the interviews.

These interviews targeted the skills students might need to learn in their second through fourth years of English study, ideas on strategy training, types of optional courses to offer, possible syllabus types, and ideas that might be incorporated into the written questionnaire.

Component 2: Administering the Needs Assessment

As a result of the interview data, materials analysis, and various meetings and discussions that took place over the direction that the Option English Course should take, a list of five constructs was developed for further investigation. These constructs concerned how students and teachers perceived different aspects of the English language curriculum at the university and their own ideas on what English skills students needed. The constructs were then represented by items in a Needs Assessment Questionnaire (Appendix). This final version of the questionnaire consisted of 55 Likert-scale items that were answered on computer mark-sheets. The questionnaire was given to first- and second-year students and English teaching staff.

The data collected from these questionnaires were analyzed using statistical analyses run on the closed-ended items. The closed-answer Likert-scale items were analyzed with Winsteps 3.51 using the five constructs that were built into the construction of the questionnaires. Non-parametric Mann-Whitney U analyses were run on the student pilot data and the accompanying teacher data using SPSS 10.0 to look for differences in perceptions of the different constructs targeted in the questionnaire, and to see if these differences might exhibit statistical significance. Similarly, Differential Item Functioning (DIF) analyses were run on the same data in order to identify any differences in the way that students and teachers were answering the items. The open-ended responses from the teacher questionnaires were made available to the staff. Short answer data were transcribed by hand and then analyzed using AntConc 3.2.1 (Anthony, 2007) to generate word frequency lists.

Component 3: Planning

In preparation for the decision-making and implementation stages of the curriculum, further data were collected from a variety of sources and analyzed. In addition to the curricula materials that had been collected previously, data on student enrollment at the university and in the Basic English Course were incorporated to provide an indication of the student numbers that might be anticipated in the second tier of the program. Basic English Placement Test results and current Basic English Course enrollment numbers were examined to estimate the number of students that could enroll in the English Option Course.

Data collected from the Needs Assessment Questionnaire provided important insight into how students perceived the role of English in their overall class plan while at the university, as well as possible class types they might be interested in taking. Using all of the data, decisions were made concerning what types of classes to offer in the Option Course, how many of each type of class to offer, and how to staff the different class types.

The next step was to integrate the data collected into a useable framework. In addition to informing the structure of the program, the data and ensuing report helped determine objectives for the development of the Option English Course curriculum. Data from the student and faculty questionnaires and interviews indicated what types of skills students were interested in learning. These data were then taken to the English Teachers Committee curriculum working group, where class coordinators worked together to develop the content of the classes, the syllabi, texts, supplementary materials, select suitable classrooms, and select assessment methods. Planning meetings were conducted among the class coordinators, in the working group, and in an annual coordination meeting held in January each year involving the full-time and part-time English staff. Decisions made through this process were then reported through advisory meetings with the administrators, the full Institute membership, the faculty deans, and the head of the Curriculum Office.

Component 4: Implementation

The remaining step in the NA model was to implement the new curriculum. In order to accomplish this task, a series of meetings with the head of the Curriculum Office were necessary to schedule the Option Course classes in with the class scheduling at-large. Meetings and ongoing correspondence with the English part-time staff were conducted for training in the new classes. The new Option Course classes were then implemented in the beginning of the new academic year.

RESULTS

As a result of the use of the Needs Assessment Questionnaire, the needs of a variety of stakeholders were identified and decisions on further elements of the curriculum were then made. The collection of information from a variety of sources allowed for all groups to be represented in the decision-making venues related to the curriculum for the Option English Course (Brown, 2010, p. 227). Each of the groups (i.e., first- and second-year students, third- and fourth-year students, teachers, faculties, Career Office, employees, and materials) was vital in contributing a different aspect of needs for the program. With the identification of these needs, the type and number of classes to offer in the Option English Course were then determined, and information gathered to aid in deciding how these option classes could be a part of the larger curriculum goals of the various faculties at the university.

Drawing from data provided from the scores of an in-house placement test designed around the Core English curriculum, the idea for creating several levels of option classes was supported, with four of the nine option classes having separate introductory and intermediate levels that were offered as separate class types under separate class names.

DISCUSSION

One of the most important facets of the Needs Assessment Model, leading to its successful implementation, is that it is participatory in design, facilitating the active involvement – and thereby investment – of the various stakeholder groups. Through the implementation of a participatory framework (Heron & Reason, 1997), a large number of stakeholders and participants were actively involved in every component and aspect of the NA. This helped ensure that the parameters of what the NA was to cover and the types of information that were to be collected were of sufficient scope to cover the needs of all the stakeholders.

Incorporating the NA in its entirety demanded an enormous amount of time, energy, planning, and personnel, influencing its feasibility in implementation. The instruments that were designed for data collection were rigorously tested for validity and reliability to ensure that the results were representative of the data sources and that the same instruments could produce valid results in upcoming administrations. The reporting of the data and the results, as well as involving the stakeholders in the reporting phase, were all accounted for in the NA.

Implementing the results of the NA required incorporating new aspects of staff cooperation, including teacher training, frequent staff meetings, committed contact with part-time staff, and a commitment to the collection of feedback about the course. In this regard, the implementation of the NA was extremely successful, bringing groups of people to work together that had previously had little need to do so.

Limitations of the study include the selection and participation of stakeholders, in particular, (a) a lack of sufficient input from domain experts, (b) limited access to students outside of class survey time, which resulted in a lack of qualitative data, and (c) a lack of access to teaching staff for further interviews by the end of the second cycle. This highlights issues of selection or of an inadequate database (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991).

Punch (1998), writing on politics and ethics in research, referred to gatekeepers as “crucial in terms of access and funding” (p. 163). One gatekeeping difficulty was encountered in the quest for data outside the campus border as access to employers and university alumni was limited by the office that had the power to provide such access.

As part of data collection for the NA model, access to classrooms through classroom observation is a powerful tool. In this application of this NA, however, the English Teachers Committee deemed this data collection method unfeasible. In a similar vein, no classroom settings or meetings were allowed to be videotaped.

The full and continued implementation of a NA this size requires constant work and effort on the part of all of the stakeholders, in particular, the teaching staff. Teaching staff began to show signs of “questionnaire fatigue” and “meeting fatigue.” The timeliness of gathering the data necessary to compile a comprehensive report is also a factor in the overall success of the NA.

A smaller, yet equally important, facet of the NA concerned the role of the researcher as the main facilitator of its implementation. Unlike a program that employs outside experts or the use of an external evaluatory body, the work on the design of the NA, its implementation, and overall evaluation were done in-house by staff and teachers. It is impossible to escape the realities that such identities can bring to the workplace and to the research field.

The role of teacher came into play as interviewer when speaking with students. In the collection of interview data, the asymmetry of the power relationship can affect the content of the interview and can have a bearing on the language that is used (Nunan, 1986); this issue is particularly relevant to the interviews between teacher and student. The purposeful use of the students' L1 and the employment of the proper pragmatic techniques such as the use of probes familiar in Japanese discourse, e.g., the silent probe, the "uh huh" probe (Bernard, 2000) were also important features in opening doors to the collection of information, encouraging students to express their real feelings on their language education, and not tailor their responses to what they might think the "English teacher" would want to hear.

One of the most important roles that the researcher and other English staff members played was that of "boundary spanners" (Carkin, 1997), or those who work as facilitators between the administration and the teachers. It was crucial to have members of the English Teachers Committee who could function as conduits of information exchange between the English Teachers Committee staff, the faculties, and the administrators, and it is the inclusion of this role that might ultimately help determine the success or failure of the implementation of the program or the major decisions linked to the implementation of the NA.

In the end, however, the most important litmus test of this or any other model concerns how long the effects of the implementation of the model last. Holliday (1992) described this phenomenon as "tissue rejection," which refers to the inability of an ELT project to innovate change that is long term, meaningful, and found acceptable to the institution in which it was employed. Holliday makes the distinction between "formal order," which is the "official" view of what should happen, and "informal order," or what actually happens. In the world of curriculum development and language program innovation, it can be far too easy to fall into the trap of how the program looks "on paper" rather than seeing how it is functioning in the day-to-day world of teaching and learning. The understanding of where and how the changes are coming from is a crucial element in the continued success of any curriculum innovation or language program development project, and involves careful understanding of the context of the proposed innovation, and the careful planning and maintenance of any such program.

In the current study, the impetus for the change came from a combination of top-down bureaucratic needs and the innovation of the Institute staff, particularly the English Teachers Committee. In order for the program to continue to be successful, continued investment by all of the stakeholders is crucial. For the Option English Course, this means continually assessing needed changes and adapting the program as necessary. In particular, annual changes in class enrollments and staffing, and changes in the curriculum as based on class evaluations dictate that the course is constantly evolving and reflecting change in the number of classes offered and in who teaches what in the classes.

Through multiple source-by-method data collection, it was possible to identify the needs of various stakeholders. Because there were a large number of stakeholders involved in different stages of the decision-making process, it was possible to address different needs in the overall program development and in the curriculum. It is hoped that this model may provide a reference point for future needs assessment and language program development projects.

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APPENDIX

Needs Assessment Questionnaire for Students (English Version)

English Section Survey

This questionnaire is designed to help facilitate the improvement of English education at NM University by listening to your ideas on your interests and needs for English. We value your experience and ideas and would like to hear from you by filling out this survey. Thank you for your help with this project.

• Please circle your responses below. •

1. **Year**:	(a) 1	(b) 2	(c) 3	(d) 4
2. **Faculty**:	(a) Literature	(b) Law	(c) Economics	(d) Commerce
3. **Gender:**	(a) Female	(b) Male		
4. **Class:**	(a) Basic	(b) Intermediate	(c) Upper Intermediate	(d) Eigo II

5. **Number of Years Spent Studying English at Special English School, with a Home Tutor, etc.**
(a) 0 (b) Less than 1 year (c) 1-3 years (d) More than 3 years

6. **How much time have you spent in an English-speaking country?**
   (a) I have never been to an English speaking country
   (b) Less than 2 weeks
   (c) Between 2 weeks and 1 year
   (d) More than 1 year

Section 1: Mark the answers that match your interests.
I am studying English:

	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree
7. For future work	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
8. For job hunting	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
9. In order to be able to speak English better	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
10. Because it is necessary for members of society	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
11. Because it is a required course	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
12. To study overseas	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
13. To travel overseas	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
14. To be able to work overseas	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
15. To be able to work in a job where English is required	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
16. Because I like English	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
17. I think English should be a required course in the university curriculum	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
18. I plan to take only the required number of credits in English	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
19. I think English related to my major (e.g., Commerce English for Commerce students) should be a part of the English curriculum	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
20. I plan to take as many English classes as possible by graduation	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)

Section 2: Through the English education curriculum at NM University, what things would you like to be able to do?

	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree
21. Increase TOEIC score	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
22. Increase TOEFL score	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
23. Increase STEP (Eiken) score	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
24. Increase knowledge of specialized vocabulary	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
25. Read English newspapers and magazines	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
26. Read novels in English	(a	(b)	(c)	(d)
27. Read articles and reports in English	(a	(b)	(c)	(d)
28. Read more quickly	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
29. Write letters and e-mail in English	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
30. Write papers and reports in English	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
31. Write business reports in English	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
32. Write a diary/essay in English	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
33. Learn to use PC software to study English	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
34. Use internet sites in English	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
35. Increase conversational English ability	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
36. Give presentations in English	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
37. Discuss a variety of issues in English	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
38. Understand English TV and radio news broadcasts	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
39. Increase comprehension level of English movies, videos, and DVDs	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
40. Understand announcements in English	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
41. Understand academic lectures in English	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)

Section 3: If the following types of classes were available next year in the curriculum for second-year students and above, what classes would you be interested in taking?

	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree
42. Reading (speed reading)	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
43. Reading (reading comprehension)	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
44. Writing	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
45. TOEIC	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
46. TOEFL	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
47. Eiken	(a	(b)	(c)	(d)
48. Comprehensive English (4 skills)	(a	(b)	(c)	(d)
49. Internet English	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
50. News English	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
51. Business English	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
52. English for Teaching License	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
53. Movies and Music in English	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
54. Intensive English (4 times/week)	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
55. Special English by Major	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)

• Thank You •

Multiple Skills

Integrating Skills Through Survey-Based Project Work

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Teaching lower-level learners at university level poses a variety of challenges, not least the dilemma of how to integrate students' need to work on basic language points with the requirement to include a degree of focus on the academic skills appropriate to tertiary education. This paper reports on how a five-week, in-class survey project enabled students to simultaneously work on a variety of skills. Students worked in small groups to plan, compose, implement, analyze, and present the results of surveys on the attitudes and experiences of their classmates. In order to carry out the survey, each student was required to interview every other class member, transforming the project from a small-group to a whole-class activity. Finally, students reported their results to their group members, worked together to analyze these results, and prepared a presentation to give before the whole class.

INTRODUCTION

In Japanese universities, language programs are often divided into classes designated to cover a particular language skill. However, it is my belief that languages are learned more effectively when the four skills are integrated: as both McDonough and Shaw (2003) and Thornbury (2008) note, real world interactions generally require language users to utilize their skills in combination, not separately. Furthermore, while university English courses often require learners to engage with challenging content and to apply unfamiliar academic skills, many first-year students enter university lacking the basic language skills necessary to do this. In short, the expectations of university English programs are not always compatible with the abilities of the students accepted into them. Teachers may thus be caught between the conflicting demands of meeting institutional requirements regarding lesson content and providing lessons they feel appropriate to the language needs of their learners. Incorporating project work into the classroom can go some way toward resolving this conflict.

Stoller (2002, p. 110) summarizes the six key features of project work as used in second language education as follows:

1. Project work focuses on content and topics of interest to the students.
2. Project work is student-centered.
3. Project work is cooperative.
4. Project work involves authentic integration of skills.
5. Project work culminates in an end product.
6. Project work builds autonomy, motivation, language skills, and cognitive

abilities.

The project described in the remainder of this paper was devised and carried out with these features in mind.

BACKGROUND

The project described herein was used with two classes of first-year Japanese university students and occupied five ninety-minute lessons of a course titled *Communication and Writing Two*, which focused on basic academic writing and presentation skills. The students were non-English majors and were taking this course as a compulsory requirement of their degree. Class A comprised 11 students, and class B 12. Overall, the English proficiency of these classes was fairly low, with no student having a TOEIC score above 450.

Most projects described in ELT literature involve students researching a topic outside the classroom, doing either library-based research (for example, see Allen, 2004) or primary research in the community (for example, see Fried-Booth, 1982). While both approaches offer great opportunities for stimulating and rewarding projects, neither is without its drawbacks. Although library research is, of course, a key academic skill, it is a fundamentally solitary pursuit, perhaps even more so now that so much content is available online. While an on-campus library may provide a space for group members to meet, share information, and co-ordinate their work, the digital library resources now offered by most universities mean that students can increasingly do research without leaving the comfort of their own homes. Projects involving students doing primary research in the community are without doubt intrinsically motivating, and, in an ESL learning environment, offer enormous opportunity to experience authentic language in the real world. However, for EFL learners studying in their home countries, the opportunities to engage in such projects are extremely limited. Certainly in my own teaching situation, there are very few such projects I could devise that would not result in the fieldwork component being carried out entirely in Japanese.

In view of these limitations, I opted for the alternative approach of not only keeping the research aspect of the project within the classroom, but also making the students' own experiences and opinions the subject of the research. By focusing on the learners themselves as the subject of the projects, it was possible to ensure that the majority of the research necessary for the project's completion was carried out in L2 in a communicative classroom environment, rather than in L1 by a solitary student researching a topic online. Moreover, giving learners extensive opportunity to share a variety of personal experiences and opinions with their classmates encouraged greater in-class interaction and helped to build a strong classroom rapport.

IMPLEMENTATION

The project was carried out in the final five weeks of the semester. Students worked in groups of three to research their classmates' opinions and experiences with the final goal of presenting their group's findings to the class. The procedure followed is described in more detail below.

Week One

I began with an overview of what the following weeks would entail and an explanation of the steps that students would follow to complete the project. As noted previously, a key element of project work is its culmination in some kind of final product. Thus, in order that students knew from the outset the type of final product they should be aiming for, during this lesson I gave a model presentation on the topic of "Student views on the environment." As well as re-emphasizing specific presentation skills which had been the focus of earlier parts of the course, this demonstrated the main requirements of the final presentation: that each group member should present the results of two survey questions, that these results should be presented graphically, that the presentation should include interpretation and analysis of survey results, not merely description, and that the presentation should follow a logical structure and include a clear introduction and conclusion.

After watching the model presentation, groups then chose the topics of their own projects. Given that the survey questions focus on the experiences and opinions of eighteen-year-olds, and that these must be expressed in their second language, I found it best to keep topics as broad as possible, and therefore offered a choice from the following list: education, entertainment, health, home life, love, money, technology, travel, and work. Although students were also given the chance to suggest additional topics, all groups opted to choose something from this list.

Previous experience has shown that when designing their surveys, learners often include two types of unsuitable questions: firstly, those which ask for factual information (for example, *What is the main cause of global warming?*), and as a result, the surveys come to resemble a quiz rather than a survey; secondly, those which are only likely to generate one answer (for example, *Do you think global warming is a serious problem?*), and which are thus likely to lead to somewhat tedious presentations. To preempt this problem, before writing their own surveys, students were given a list of ten questions and asked to identify which of them were unsuitable for inclusion. Armed with this knowledge, students then worked together in their groups to write eight questions on their topic: questions which focused on investigating their classmates' opinions and experiences, and which they felt would generate interesting survey results.

Week Two

The entire ninety minutes of the second week of the project was devoted to asking and answering the survey questions. Depending on factors such as the level of the students, this could be organized in a variety of different ways. With relatively low-level learners, I have found that a fairly strictly structured approach is most productive. The first step was for each student to choose two questions from their group's eight that they wanted to ask. All the questions chosen were then written on the board and learners given time to check their understanding:

this pre-task activity ensures all class members understand the questions they will be asked during the lesson and helps to prevent confusion, over-reliance on dictionaries, and a resort to the L1 once the surveys begin.

A key feature of this stage of the project is that students are expected to develop each question into a full conversation, with interviewers asking follow-up questions and respondents answering questions in as much detail as possible. Having already seen a model presentation, students are aware that obtaining detailed information is key to the success of their final product, but to reinforce this, I do a model interview with one of the more proficient learners before the session begins, making sure to ask plenty of follow-up questions and note down my partner's answers in some detail. For the remainder of the lesson, students interview each other in pairs, rotating every eight minutes until they have spoken to all their classmates.

Weeks Three and Four

Having obtained the information necessary to create their final product, students spend the next two weeks analyzing and organizing this. These lessons include exercises on the type of language necessary to describe graphs, presentation workshops focusing on PowerPoint slide design and how to structure a group presentation, and the opportunity for learners to practice presentation skills by explaining the results of their part of the survey to their own teammates.

Week Five

In the last week of the semester, students make their presentations in front of the class. Exactly how this is organized will vary according to the specific teaching context, but in general, I ask each group to aim for a 10- to 15-minute presentation delivered without the use of notes. Each presentation is followed by a question-and-answer session, and the class ends with students writing their reflections on the project as a whole: what they learned, what they liked or disliked, and what they would do differently next time.

OUTCOMES

Skills and Language Benefits

The various stages of the survey project provide opportunities for learners to utilizethe full range of their language skills in a task with a clear and meaningful goal. Specific language points which receive particular attention are question formation (an area which many Japanese learners struggle with), use of determiners, and describing graphs. Additionally, oral communication skills such as asking follow-up questions, giving detailed answers, paraphrasing, correcting, and confirming are also an essential component of the projects. Finally, the academic skills of note-taking, summarizing, collating, analyzing, and presenting information are an integral part of the five weeks.

Student Views

One criticism that has been made of using project work in English language classes is that learners, for a variety of reasons, often fail to realize and appreciate its value (Beckett & Slater, 2005). The advantage of including a reflective activity after the final product has been presented is that not only are students more likely to understand what they have learned through completing their projects, but also that teachers are able to use these reflections as one means by which to assess the successes and drawbacks of the activity and work on reducing the latter in future classes (Stoller, 2002).

The reflections followed no set format: I simply asked students to spend ten minutes writing their opinions about the survey projects. Two common threads emerged from these reflections. Firstly, almost all students expressed positive feelings about developing and carrying out their surveys, indicating that both the opportunity for extensive interaction in English (*"Asking questions was very fun for me because I could talk a lot with my classmates in English. I seldom speak English so it was very interesting experience"*), and the content of the discussions (*"I like hearing various persons' opinion. Hearing an opinion extends my world"*) were felt to be valuable. Opinions were more mixed regarding the next stage of the project: while some students acknowledged that learning how to organizeand present information were valuable skills, others commented that making their graphs had been difficult and time-consuming, and that the final presentation was stressful.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the incorporation of project work into language classes enables learners to enhance their language and academic skills in a variety of ways. While the project described in this paper was comparatively small, it could easily be extended if more time was available, or adapted to meet the needs of a different group of learners. Three aspects of this particular project have a particularly positive role in promoting group cohesion: (a) extensive in-group collaboration is necessary in the planning and presentation stages, (b) the entire class is involved in the interview stage, with each student questioning, and being questioned by, every other class member, and finally, (c) the fact that the students themselves are not only the researchers but also the subjects of the research allows them to learn more about the lives and thoughts of their peers than is usually the case in the language classroom.

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Effective Strategies and Methods for Teaching EFL Without a Common Language

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This paper is focused on the most effective strategies and methods a teacher can use when teaching beginner English language learners without a common language. Some teaching methods that will be examined are the Direct Method, which focuses only on English without making use of the first language, and Total Physical Response (TPR), a method in which students listen and physically respond to commands in English. Interviews, observations, and a review of the literature will explore the possibilities for language learning and teaching when the teacher and students come from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Interviews were conducted with teachers who have years of first-hand experience teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) in Korea. Additionally, observations were conducted around the Daegu-Gyeongbuk area, connecting the literature with the pedagogical methods of experienced teachers. This paper gives ideas and strategies for the continual question: How do you teach learners that do not comprehend your input? Whether teaching kindergarteners, middle school students, or adults in the business world, the answer lies in the previous trials and errors of experienced teachers, the detailed observations conducted of beginner English language learners, and a review of the literature that has covered this troublesome topic to date.

INTRODUCTION

Beginning a new teaching contract can be fun, exciting, and even a little nerve-wracking for some. However, beginning a new teaching contract in a different country without knowing the native language can definitely raise some anxious feelings, as many teachers that come to South Korea have experienced. These feelings may arise from a personal, daily-living standpoint, but this paper will focus on the viewpoint of the teacher in the EFL classroom: How do we teach when we don't know our students' language and culture, and our students don't know our own?

This paper examines the most effective strategies and methods a teacher can use when teaching beginner English language learners without a common language. Some teaching methods that are looked at are the Direct Method, which focuses only on English without making use of the first language, and Total Physical Response (TPR), a method in which students listen and physically respond to commands in English (often the method of choice for those teaching learners at the pre-production and early production stage).

A review of the literature will explore the possibilities for language learning and teaching when the teacher and students come from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Interviews were conducted with teachers who have years of first-hand experience teaching in the EFL setting. Additionally, observations were conducted around the Daegu-Gyeongbuk area, connecting the literature with the pedagogical methods of experienced teachers.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The following is by no means an exhaustive literature review, but, in combination with the interviews and observations, is sufficient to provide the necessary background knowledge on this topic. Although learners can fall into the pre-production and early production stages at any age, this paper is focused on young learners at the beginning stages of SLA.

According to an article in *ELT Journal* (Penate Cabrera & Bazo Martinez, 2001), using linguistic and interactional adjustments together can make input more comprehensible for beginning-level learners. Penate Cabrera and Bazo Martinez investigated the listening comprehension of 60 Spanish primary school children, in their second year of learning English as a foreign language, and found that linguistic adjustments alone did not increase comprehension, but linguistic adjustments along with interactional adjustments did. Those adjustments included the following:

- Simplified input: “short length of utterances, restricted use of subordinate clauses, low percentage of different words, exaggerated intonation, etc.” (p. 281).
- Interactional modifications: repetitions, comprehension checks (asking questions or using unfinished sentences) “rhetorical questions, paraphrasing, visual aids (realia, flashcards, body language), etc.” (p. 281).
- Body language: “Body language plays a very important role in the teaching of foreign languages, particularly at beginner and intermediate level[s]” (p. 286).

The adjustments listed in this article are practical and applicable to teachers of all levels, and can be implemented readily.

Tabors (2008) describes strategies to communicate with young ELLs with low proficiency levels. Based on current research, interviews of educators, and personal teaching experiences, the author recommends that the teacher should:

- Use words along with some type of gesture, action, or directed gaze. Additional information offered through body language helps the young learner comprehend the message.
- Use repetition. This gives the learner an opportunity to comprehend what is being said.
- Narrow the field of conversation and the possibilities of what is being discussed by talking about the present moment and shared physical space.
- Expand and extend what the learner already knows. Elaborate on the learner’s message and use parallel grammar constructions.

- Guide the learner from using nonverbal to verbal communication, such as insisting on verbal communication before complying with a request.
- Reiterate and fine-tune messages that were initially too difficult for the language learner to understand.

By combining these strategies, teachers can reduce frustration for the language learner and communicate more quickly and effectively.

Interviews

Interviews were conducted with two professors in a TESOL program at a Midwestern university in the United States. Another interview was conducted with a professor at a private language school in Daegu, South Korea. All interviewees have had first-hand teaching experience in countries in which they did not speak the primary language.

Upon accepting a teaching job in Chile, with no linguistic background in Spanish, Dr. Tammy Gregersen provided these suggestions (personal communication, March 15, 2010) for teachers finding themselves in a similar situation:

- Find a good textbook and use it for help with the structure of the class, activities, and visuals (especially for beginner teachers).
- As teachers become more comfortable and gain more experience, supplement the text by using authentic materials.
- Moderate rate of speech, and simplify syntax so that learners have an opportunity to process incoming information (input).

After 20 years of teaching at various locations within the United States, Dr. Joyce Milambiling found herself teaching at a university in Indonesia (with very little knowledge of Bahasa Indonesian). Drawing from her experience, she suggested (personal communication, March 20, 2010) the following when teaching younger learners:

- Model correct speech instead of resorting to constant error correction.
- Make it fun – use pictures and games.
- Create as many opportunities for spontaneous speech as possible, by using real-life, authentic tasks and activities.
- Use demonstrations and role-plays children enjoy using their imagination and creating their own worlds.
- Use available resources (seek out other teachers for assistance, and utilize advanced learners as peer mentors)

Naomi Baldwin, currently a doctoral degree candidate, started her career as Professor at an American university with a very diverse population. After teaching for a few years at the university level, Baldwin started teaching at a language institute in Daegu, South Korea. In an interview (September 21, 2011), Baldwin made the following recommendations:

- Use body language to model the desired outcome. This is crucial for young learners and helps them associate the new language with “real” things.
- Constant comprehension checks. This goes beyond the basic yes/no questions. To really assess learner comprehension, the students should be able to show what they know (pointing to pictures/matching for very beginner levels).
- Keep “recycling” information and language that has been presented earlier (repetition) to help with learner comprehension.
- Perfection is an unrealistic goal, especially for beginners. Instead, focus on confidence-building and creating a positive learning environment.

Teaching Methods

There are a few methods that naturally lend themselves to this situation, namely, the Direct Method and TPR.

The Direct Method

This method has been somewhat controversial, but, for the monolingual English teacher, being aware of this method and its uses can be very beneficial.

- Translation is not allowed. Instead, “meaning is to be conveyed *directly* in the target language through the use of demonstration and visual aids, with no recourse to the students’ native language” (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 23).
- Lessons should be communicative in nature (preferably using the language in real contexts), since the stated purpose of this method is communication (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).
- Grammar is not taught directly. Instead the teacher uses examples and the students develop the rule on their own inductively (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

Total Physical Response (TPR)

Commands or directions are presented by the teacher through actions (without translation). The students listen to these commands and respond physically. For example:

- The teacher says “Stand up” and models this behavior. Next, it’s the students’ turn; the teacher says “Stand up,” and the students stand up.
- “Students can learn through observing actions as well as by performing the actions themselves . . . language learning is more effective when it is fun” (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 112).

DISCUSSION

There are times when language instructors are not placed in ideal teaching situations. When teaching abroad, instructors often do not share a common language with their students. Communicating and teaching can be difficult when the teachers’ knowledge of the students L1 is low, and especially when the students’ L2 (English) proficiency is low as well. Despite these challenges, the teaching strategies and methods reviewed in this paper are practical and applicable; teachers can implement these methods and strategies in order to communicate with, and educate, their students. As students and teachers work together to negotiate the language, it can become a positive learning experience for both.

It should be noted that many positives can arise from the EFL teacher learning the language of the country in which they are teaching (for example, feeling connected to their community, becoming a more independent individual, and identity validation for their students). However, this paper focuses strictly on the immediate situation for EFL teachers arriving in a new country without the linguistic or cultural knowledge of their students.

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Critical Transformation: Enhancing EFL Textbooks with Critical Thinking

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Pushing our paradigms in the EFL field finds resistance from many instructors who are constrained by curricular and institutional factors "beyond their control." This includes textbooks and curriculums that are heavy on vocabulary, grammar, reading comprehension and inauthentic scripts for speaking and listening, but short on meaningful discussion and critical thinking (CT) activities. Therefore, CT activities should supplement materials already provided.

The goal of this workshop was to offer approaches and examples to enhance and supplement course materials in order to cultivate CT skills. The workshop began with a theoretical background of three models of critical thinking, followed by a discussion and tips for their implementation. We presented some sample exercises, and then attendees worked to create activities that evinced CT skills based on a critical template and Bloom's Taxonomy. Finally, we reflected on the challenges and benefits of this approach in the EFL classroom.

INTRODUCTION

The term "educational reform" has been used somewhat rhetorically to symbolically appease those who believe the current system is fundamentally flawed, while policymakers balk in the face of ambiguity. Unfortunately, as long as the principle aims of reform are situated on objective, quantitative outcomes, and not on pedagogical practice and the heuristic ambition to develop students as living, thinking individuals, the issue of reform will continue to spin its wheels. This holds true for the ESL/EFL teaching landscape as well, where grammar translation methods, reading comprehension, and transactional speaking models, as well as pedantic teaching methods, far outweigh constructive, creative, and critical pedagogy.

This paper represents a workshop given at the KOTESOL International Conference in Seoul, Korea on October 16th, 2011. In light of the theme "Pushing Our Paradigms: Connecting with Culture," this workshop sought to transform the emphasis on lower-order thinking skills in the EFL classroom into a greater focus on critical thinking opportunities.

Three models (Figure 1) that promote higher-order thinking skills were introduced:

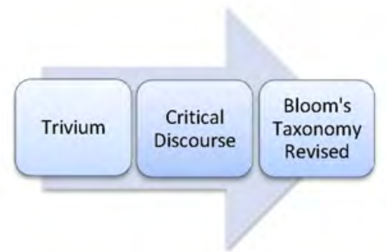

FIGURE 1. Theoretical models of language and learning.

Today's language teachers must equip students with creative and critical capacities that will prepare them for tomorrow. As Ken Robinson (2003, p. 42) posits, "Education is meant to be the process by which we enable people to engage with social and economic change."

The reality in the classroom is that students become proficient in *non-learning strategies* (see Appendix A). These strategies include: playing dumb, process of elimination, methods for solving gap activities, and even asking questions in order to elicit answers from the teacher. These student strategies stand in opposition to "teachable moments" (Bailey & Heritage, 2008), and are devoid of deep meaning and careful, independent thought.

This research and subsequent workshop sought to provide a means to generate more critical thinking in the EFL classroom through a *critical template* based on the models in Figure 1, which could be applied to activities typical in most EFL curricula. The proposed template constitutes a simplification of the three theoretical models of language and learning (shown in Figure 1). These frameworks correlate with each other and integrate into a three-part hierarchical system (Figure 5). This correlation offers the insight that linguistic and social models of language share common typologies and may be simplified with the questions: Who? What? When? Where? Why? and How?

The lower-order questions (who? what? where? when?) serve to establish a firm comprehension of the text, while "why?" and "how?" elicit a higher-order assessment intended not only to evoke a critical analysis of the discourse, but to empower readers to construct their own interpretation and to reconstitute the production of knowledge both objectively and subjectively.

Critical thinking (CT) is important because discovering the truth in discourse gives one the ability to transform it. The renowned educational philosopher, Paulo Freire (2005) astutely noted,

> We must remember that there is a dynamic movement between thought, language, and reality that, if well understood, results in a greater creative capacity. The more we experience the dynamics of such movement, the more we become critical subjects concerning the process of knowing, teaching, learning, reading, writing and studying. (p. 3)

Educating critical and creative pupils requires a paradigm of learning focused not on the transmission of knowledge, but the investigation of it, the dissolution of the impressions it transmits, and the past, present, and future effects of any discourse. We propose the integration of three analytical models to this end.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The three models of language and learning used in this research were chosen for their theoretical compatibility and their explanatory power. First, higher-order thinking skills must consider rhetoric and discourse, which the Trivium promotes as the building blocks for understanding the world. Second, power in language is expressed by ideology and ideological assumptions are often covert. Finally, autonomy and self-efficacy are essential for the L2 learner and are lacking in public education.

Some researchers claim, “The results of the current state of education are: predictability, obedience and apathy” (Veinotte, 2012). There are many engaging materials that teachers and students find interesting, but the current paradigm puts test-taking, rule following, and producing social norms as the primary focus, rather than the cultivation of critical thinking or character-building. These qualities represent self-efficacy and autonomy.

Psychologist Albert Bandura defined self-efficacy as one’s belief in their self to carry something through to a successful completion, whether it is a task or an idea, and this tends to decrease as students go through school (Wiliam, 2011). Self-efficacy and autonomy can also empower learners to interpret texts independently, building their confidence in their own critique, rather than depending on the teacher’s explanation as gospel. Indeed, self-efficacy and independent learning cultivate the provenance of wisdom: to question the conjecture of peers, authority, and oneself.

The Trivium

This methodology, pertaining to *mind,* was part of a medieval classical liberal arts education for an elite class of citizen (Joseph, 2002). These traditions continue at universities such as St. John’s College in Maryland and William and Mary University in Virginia (Bauer & Wise, 2009). The Trivium was to be mastered first; only then could the student begin to understand aspects of reality pertaining to *matter* (Quadrivium) outside the mind (Joseph, 2002).

The Trivium consists of: *grammar*, *logic*, and *rhetoric* (see Figure 2). It was designed to mirror the learning process and provide the critical thinking skills necessary to master all information.

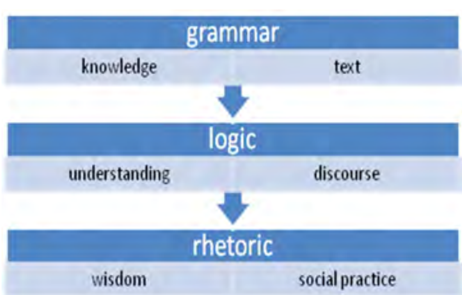

FIGURE 2. The Trivium.

Grammar represents *knowledge* in the Trivium and can be expressed by: Who? What? When? and Where? (the 4 W's). In the EFL context, these questions must be reconciled before a student can have an *understanding* (logic) of any text and begin any critical thinking. Logic represents an *understanding* of *discourse*. The *logic* of a text concerns the proposition in any utterance and how arguments are formed at different levels of complexity. Once attaining an *understanding* of the *logic,* we can ask and answer the question "why" concerning any text.

Rhetoric (wisdom) is the highest level of language, and it expresses what Fairclough (1992) calls "social practice," through beliefs, values, and institutional practices. Speakers and writers propagate ideology through their language choices. The *rhetoric* level asks "how" an author/authors appeal to credibility, logic, and emotions to further an ideological agenda.

The EFL curriculum consists of *grammar* and sometimes *logic* but rarely do we see explicit notions of *rhetoric* taught in the EFL classroom outside of writing classes. Teachers do, however, inadvertently teach some notions of *rhetoric* when introducing authentic language and role-plays, but they often marginalize their significance to social practice. Sister Miriam Joseph (2002, p. 6) wrote,

> Because communication involves the simultaneous exercise of logic, grammar, and rhetoric, these three arts are the fundamental arts of education, of teaching, and of being taught. . . . The same principles of logic, grammar and rhetoric guide writer, reader, speaker, and listener.

These principles need explicit instruction as to how they construct ideologies through discourse.

Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a linguistic endeavor to "denaturalize" ideology. Fairclough (1995) states, "to 'denaturalize' is the objective of discourse analysis with 'critical goals.'" This approach also consists of a three-part hierarchical model (Figure 3), which focuses on linguistic choices representing power in society.

FIGURE 3. Critical discourse analysis.

The CDA model of language begins with the *text* itself (grammar / knowledge). Then *discourse* (logic / understanding) is studied for its features relevant to style, form and usage. *Social practice* (rhetoric / wisdom) constitutes "identities, relationships, and representations constructed in discourse" (Fairclough, 1992).

CDA theory points to how, over time, ideologies become naturalized and assimilated into cultural norms. Martin writes, "In our view, ideology and power run through the whole ensemble of language and culture" (Martin & Rose, 2004, p. 44). Since language and culture are intimately connected, it is important that second language learners (L2) understand how cultural perceptions and ideologies infiltrate discourse and manipulate viewpoints, for example, using the terms *terrorists* or *militants* instead of *freedom-fighters* or *revolutionaries*. This type of CDA semantic analysis provides an understanding of *dominant social practice*, thus lessening its influence and empowering individuals (Fairclough, 1992; Martin & Rose, 2004).

Tools from CDA provide students with insight into how texts, discourse, and social practice are woven in language. In addition, teachers can build their "interactional awareness" in the classroom (Rex & Schiller, 2009). These are achieved, according to Fairclough (1992), by considering "orders of discourse," which emphasize the different levels of authorship and discourse control in the text-making process. These CDA tools represent higher-order thinking skills as articulated by Bloom's Taxonomy.

Bloom's Taxonomy

This model of learning has powerful explicative value but often is misused or misunderstood. Bloom admitted, "The taxonomy's value as a model for moving all students to higher levels of thinking has not been fully explored" (Sousa, 2006, p. 249). This workshop correlated the Trivium and CDA with Bloom's Revised Taxonomy (Krathwohl, 2002), which has six levels of distinction ranging from lowest to the highest-order of thinking skills.

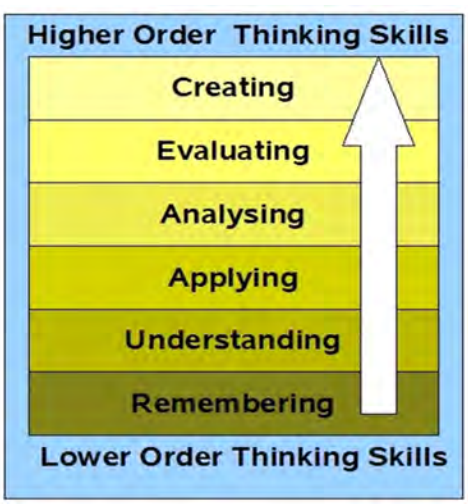

FIGURE 4. Bloom's taxonomy revised.

The lower-order cognitive skills are: *remembering*, *understanding*, and *applying*. Higher-order cognitive skills are: *analyzing*, *evaluating*, and *creating*. *Creating* represents the highest level of cognitive activity because it is the ultimate form of *wisdom* – putting thoughts into action (see Figure 4). These six categories were divided into three categories based on the Trivium for the workshop's *critical template*.

DISCUSSION

The Critical Template

Our proposed template is an extension of Trivium principles applied to Bloom's Taxonomy Revised with critical questions such as: "Who?" "What?" "When?" "Where?" "Why?" and "How?" in that particular order, corresponding with Bloom's lower-order and higher-order thinking skills (see Figure 5).

At the lowest level of grammar on the Trivium, we ask the four W's – constituting *knowledge*. That *knowledge* allows us to understand the *logic* in any text and promotes the question "why?" Finally, *knowledge* and *understanding* allow us to ask "how" a text is created, and "how" its purpose is achieved.

FIGURE 5. Critical template.

"Why" questions are used to evaluate and analyze texts, and can be found in many textbooks; however, "how" questions are lacking in EFL textbooks. Insight for this level of critical thinking can be found in the tools of CDA, which investigates text production, motivation, and purpose. Also, important questions can be asked regarding authors' appeals to credibility, logic, and emotion. These and other critical questions were elicited by workshop participants.

The Workshop

Four textbook activities were chosen (see Appendices 3-6) and participants were asked to consider them and create their own activity using the *critical template* provided. Participants worked in four groups of six participants. The four W questions were asked first in order to reconcile understanding of the material before any higher-order thinking could take place.

Sample Activities

Appendices 3-6 show the sample activities used in the workshop. Below each activity is the *critical template* that participants applied. There was some discussion concerning what Sinclair and Coulthard call "inner" and "outer" discourse (as cited in Willis, 1981).

Inner discourse relates to the actual content provided, and outer discourse relates to activity directions, textbook production, and publisher/author goals and intentions. Outer discourse relates to CDA principles of genre, register, and purpose. This information may seem unimportant in the EFL textbook genre; however, they are necessary concepts to consider for all texts. Table 1 and 2 show the important questions derived from the *critical template*. It is important to note that all of Table 2 (outer discourse) is an extension of "how" questions within the inner discourse. These higher-order thinking questions are based on CDA principles of discourse dimensionality and Trivium principles of rhetorical context.

TABLE 1. Inner Discourse

who	Who are the participants in the text? Refers to people in the subject object position.
what	What are the participants in the text? Refers to all nouns and abstract concepts.
where	Where is the setting of the text? Refers to places concrete and abstract.
when	When is the setting of the text? Refers to time in context and tense.
why	Why do participants do what they do? Why do you think…. (evaluation/judgment)?
how	How is the text portrayed? How are the participants portrayed? How do participants achieve their goals?

TABLE 2. Outer Discourse

who	Who are the participants in the text production and consumption?
what	What kind of text is this?
where	Where is the text produced?
when	When was the text produced?
why	Why does the author present the text?
how	How does the author appeal to credibility, logic, and emotion?

Limitations

Some of the important limitations discussed in the workshop included:

- level of difficulty for young learners
- standardized testing
- low expectations
- mixed skills

- complexity
- time constraints
- difficulty in grading

These limitations were the impetus for this workshop. Future research could address these limitations individually; however, most are mediated by starting with lower-level questions (4 W's) and not advancing to higher levels ("why," "how") until students have understood all data.

CONCLUSION

The nexus of these three models lie in *knowledge*, *understanding*, and *wisdom*, which are the principle components of a liberal education. EFL textbooks, while providing important skills, are generally reinforcing lower-order thinking skills, and need CT enhancement. The *critical template* provided the flexibility to adapt to any activity and enhance the student's and teacher's experience with the material. "Why" and "how" questions should elicit the different dimensions (inner and outer) of discourse and provide more opportunities for independent thought. This amounts to the ability to manifest meaningful change in the world.

The EFL curriculum needs to be fundamentally changed to reflect the growing demand for critical and creative individuals in the professions and organizations of the 21st century and to develop students' understanding of the increasingly complex sociocultural and geopolitical landscape. We need to commute training to learning, learning to thinking, and thinking to creating, which in essence, is wisdom.

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APPENDIX A

Non-learning Strategies

1. playing dumb
2. asking questions
3. cheating
4. group activities / deferring to more cognitively active
5. distraction strategies
6. grammatical cues
7. cross out
8. fill-in-the-blank strategies
9. order-memorization strategies
10. scanning for pertinent words
11. multiple-choice patterns

APPENDIX B

Group Task

1. Look at your group's handout. Consider what age and level it is most likely for.
2. Fill in the critical template.
3. Come up with one activity that requires students to "create."
4. Write possible answers to your own "higher-order thinking" questions.
5. Fill in the "Possible Obstacles" section at the bottom of our handout (what were some of the obstacles you thought of as you prepared the questions and activity?).

Appendix C

Sample Activity 1

Side by Side 1 (S. Molinsky & B. Bliss, 2001)

Lower-order

who	My, Linda, I
what	Name, London, library
where	London, library
when	now

Higher-order

why	Self-introduction
how	Comic book, spoken/written, phonetic alliteration

APPENDIX D

Sample Activity 2

My travel blog

Hi. I'm Ana-Maria. I live in Buenos Aires, Argentina, but right now I'm traveling around Europe. Welcome to my blog!

Day 12

This is my last day in Italy! I'm in the north, near the border with Switzerland. The weather is a bit cooler up here, which is good because it's been so hot this week. I'll be sorry to leave because I've really enjoyed my time here. People are more sociable than in other countries I've been to, so it's been easy to make friends. I *really* enjoyed the south (I think people there are more easygoing than people up here), but for me the best was definitely Rome – it's such a romantic city. Anyway, tonight I'm going to take the train to Switzerland, so bye for now!

Day 13

Well, here I am in Zurich, which is in Switzerland, of course. It isn't the most beautiful city I've ever visited, but it's very

clean, and the buses here are more punctual than at home! I guess people aren't as outgoing as the people I met in Italy, but they are very polite and helpful. This morning a woman helped me to find a cheap hotel near the station. (Warning! I've discovered that things are more expensive here.) I'll have to be more careful with my money from now on ...

Read the blog. Then write T (true), F (false) or D (don't know) for each statement.

Ana-Maria thinks that ...

1 the south of Italy is warmer than the north.
2 Italians are less sociable than in other countries.
3 people in the south of Italy are more easygoing than in the north.
4 Swiss people are more polite than Italians.
5 Switzerland is less expensive than many other countries.

Writing

Write an article about your country.

The best weather is in the east. People here are more outgoing and sociable than ...

Study Guide

Writing about your country

1 List the main regions in your country.
east, south
2 What's the weather like in each region?
east – warm and sunny, south – cool
3 What are people like?
east – outgoing and sociable, south – easygoing
4 What other differences are there?
south – more tourism
5 Write sentences comparing the different regions.

11 Compariso

Breakthrough: Success with English 2 (M. Craven, 2008)

Lower-order

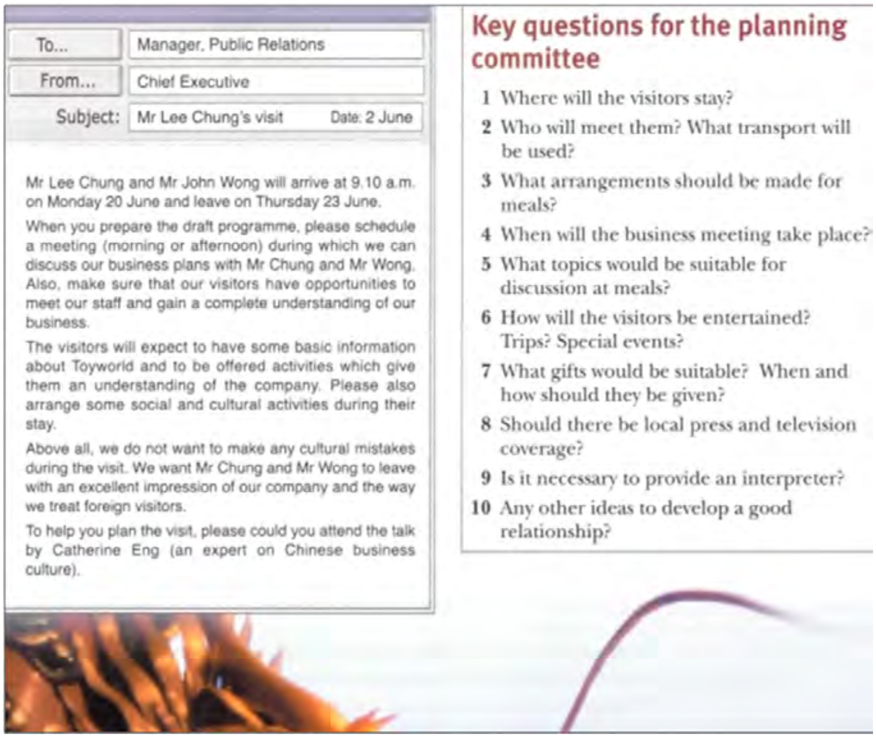
who	I, Ana Marie, I, My, People here/there, friends,
what	Buenos Aires, Argentina, Europe, northern Italy, near Switzerland, weather, here, other countries, friends, people, Rome, romantic city
where	Buenos Aires, Italy, Switzerland
when	Now, Right now, last day, present perfect, tonight, future

Higher-order

why	diary (not personal)
how	blog, written, plans, feelings

APPENDIX E

Sample Activity 3



To...	Manager, Public Relations
From...	Chief Executive
Subject:	Mr Lee Chung's visit Date: 2 June

Mr Lee Chung and Mr John Wong will arrive at 9.10 a.m. on Monday 20 June and leave on Thursday 23 June.

When you prepare the draft programme, please schedule a meeting (morning or afternoon) during which we can discuss our business plans with Mr Chung and Mr Wong. Also, make sure that our visitors have opportunities to meet our staff and gain a complete understanding of our business.

The visitors will expect to have some basic information about Toyworld and to be offered activities which give them an understanding of the company. Please also arrange some social and cultural activities during their stay.

Above all, we do not want to make any cultural mistakes during the visit. We want Mr Chung and Mr Wong to leave with an excellent impression of our company and the way we treat foreign visitors.

To help you plan the visit, please could you attend the talk by Catherine Eng (an expert on Chinese business culture).

Key questions for the planning committee

1 Where will the visitors stay?
2 Who will meet them? What transport will be used?
3 What arrangements should be made for meals?
4 When will the business meeting take place?
5 What topics would be suitable for discussion at meals?
6 How will the visitors be entertained? Trips? Special events?
7 What gifts would be suitable? When and how should they be given?
8 Should there be local press and television coverage?
9 Is it necessary to provide an interpreter?
10 Any other ideas to develop a good relationship?

Market Leader (D. Cotton, D. Falvey, & S. Kent, 2005)

Lower-order

who	townspeople, crowd, people, Minerva Gonzales, everyone
what	town, party, festival, sheets, windows, crowd, people, tomato, trucks, goggles, square, pool, neighbor
where	Bunyol Spain, central square, everywhere
when	once a year, by noon, just after noon

Higher-order

why	informative, teach expressions
how	article, written, metaphorical, emphasis on time

APPENDIX F

Sample Activity 4

Spaniards Paint the Town Red

1. *Quick Reading*
Look at the pictures on page 31.
What is the story about?
Now read quickly to get the main idea.

BUNYOL, SPAIN [1]**Once a year**, the town of Bunyol in Spain **throws a** big **party**. The festival is called "La Tomatina." To **get ready**, townspeople put big plastic sheets over their windows. [2]By noon on the day of the festival, an enormous crowd gathers on the central square. [3]People shout, "Tomato! Tomato!" **at the top of their lungs**. They're **dying to** see the tomatoes. [4]Just after 12:00 noon, the tomatoes arrive—in five big trucks! [5]Some people put on goggles. [6]The trucks dump the tomatoes, and the party begins. [7]People **go bananas**. They dive into the tomatoes and begin throwing them everywhere. [8]**Before long**, the square is a red, juicy pool. "It's wonderful to **let loose** and throw a big wet tomato at a neighbor," says Minerva Gonzalez of Bunyol. "Everyone **has a great time**."

New idioms and expressions

paint the town red .... celebrate wildly
once a year .... one time each year
throw a party .... organize and have a party
get ready .... prepare
at the top of one's lungs .... very loudly
be dying to do something .... want to do something very much
go bananas .... become very excited and act wildly
before long .... soon
let loose .... act freely; release energy
have a great time .... enjoy oneself very much

Can You Believe It? Stories and Idioms from Real Life 2 (J. Huizenga, 2000)

Lower-order

who	townspeople, crowd, people, Minerva Gonzales, everyone
what	town, party, festival, sheets, windows, crowd, people, tomato, trucks, goggles, square, pool, neighbor
where	Bunyol Spain, central square, everywhere
when	once a year, by noon, just after noon

Higher-order

why	informative, teach expressions
how	article, written, metaphorical, emphasis on time

Reflective Teaching Practice

Overcoming the Obstacle of Culture: Integrating Critical Thinking with College English Writing Instruction

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Teaching that fosters critical thinking has occupied a dominant position among instruction objectives across all curricula levels in the West. However, this notion has largely remained an ideal theoretical term specified in curricula in Asian countries. This study targets the feasibility of incorporating CT with college English writing instruction in the Korean EFL context. Data were collected from three EFL classes, made up of 34 students, at a national university in Seoul. To elicit the students' and the teacher's perceptions, student journals were analyzed and a teacher interview was conducted. The findings demonstrated that the students all embraced the importance of fostering CT in their English classes. The teacher also echoed the positive effects of the CT-infused instruction. The study confirmed that, despite cultural barriers, it is necessary to teach CT and English language. Pedagogical implications were discussed together with practical concerns about incorporating CT in the Korean setting.

RATIONALE AND PURPOSE

Critical thinking (hereafter, CT) is that mode of thinking – about any subject, content, or problem – in which the thinker improves the quality of his or her thinking by skillfully analyzing, assessing, and reconstructing it (Elder & Paul, 2007). Teaching that enhances CT development has already permeated most aspects of higher education across curricula. However, the CT appeal has not blended well with the practical ends of English classes and integration of CT remains largely superficial. There is a relative lack of research on combining CT with English education and the corresponding effective instructional strategies. Moreover, many researchers argue that it is unwise to teach CT in Asian contexts because it conflicts with Asian socio-cultural traditions. The present study intends to investigate the feasibility of incorporating CT with college English writing instruction in the Korean EFL context.

RELATED LITERATURE

In the western community, teaching that enhances CT development has been highlighted as an inseparable conceptual benchmark and appears on vision statements when college graduates' qualities, educational ideals, and lifelong learning are discussed (Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2004; Halpern, 1998; Lipman, 2003; Paul & Elder, 2008, 2009; Tsui, 2002). In many government educational reports, such as in the U.S., the U.K., and Australia, CT has been emphasized as a crucial attribute to be developed and evaluated in higher education (Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2005; Hambur, Rowe, & Luc, 2002; Higher Education Quality Council, 1996).

At the same time, some research studies have questioned the endeavor of teaching CT to Asians. Fox (1994) argues that, while Western culture believes in the value of thinking and self-expression, Asian learners are inclined to maintain harmony. Atkinson (1997) suggests that ESL educators should think cautiously and critically about the notion of CT because it is a cultural practice. Silva, Leki, and Carson (1997) point out that the critical pedagogy is culturally specific to the United States, and the question of cultural imperialism arises when these assumptions drive the instruction of ESL students.

With globalization and cultural exchanges, researchers have begun to refute these cliched assumptions about Asian students. Studies, such as Day (2003), have shown that Asian students are open enough to learn Western views of thinking and behaving in the ESL context. Day found that students from Korea, Taiwan, China, and Japan at the University of Hawaii were not only receptive to instruction in CT, but also were engaged in the CT process. Meanwhile, CT education in Asian EFL contexts is gaining momentum. However, the CT movement has not made much headway in Korea, and researchers have tried to understand why. The four principal reasons were summarized by McGuire (2007) as:

1. Korean over-emphasis on college entrance examination (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1998)
2. Koreans' unique communication styles, which have shaped a passive, unquestioning role for students (Kim, 1985)
3. A Korean preference for using ellipsis, which creates sentences with implicit and indirect meanings (Suh, 1996, p. 46)
4. That the Korean way of socialization is designed to promote relationships and bonds, which leads to a reluctance to explicitly express viewpoints and persuade others (Kim, 2003)

According to McGuire (2007), the values underpinning CT pedagogy clash with the guiding features of Korean culture, thus problematizing the implementation of CT pedagogy. Given the confusion over the teachability of CT to Asian learners, and the lack of research and practice in the Korean context, the current study was carried out to examine the feasibility of integrating CT with college English writing classes in Korea.

RESEARCH METHOD

Research Setting and Participants

The data for the current study were collected during the fall semester of 2009 at a national university in Seoul, Korea. All the 34 students registered for the 15-week course, Composition 2, offered by the English Language Education

Department took part in the study. There were 28 English Education majors and 6 non-English majors. Twenty-eight students were female (82.4%) and 6 were male (17.6%). They ranged in age from 20 to 36 years (with a mean age of 23). Eighteen of the students were juniors, and 16 were seniors. None of the students had received any explicit CT-related instructions before. The students met twice a week for 75 minutes each. The instructor was a female Korean-American who had completed her secondary and tertiary education in the United States. She taught all the classes with the same curriculum.

Classroom Activities to Foster CT

Previous researchers have suggested that teachers employ activities rich in resources and opportunities for social interaction and collaboration to help students think critically and construct their own perceptions (De Corte, 1996; McGuinness, 1993). Hence, the effects of peer assessment (PA) are focused on in this paper.

During the semester, two thorough PA sessions were conducted. First, peers were selected by the toss of a coin. Then, an assessment rubric (revised by the researcher and based on a selection of the relevant literature) was provided to the students. The rubric outlines seven aspects for the purpose of assessing both the writing and CT elements of the essay. The instructor explained the format and content of the criteria and checked if there were any questions related with these. The students were asked to read their peer's writing carefully outside of class and provide written assessment based on the rubric. They were also told that their feedback sheets were going to be collected and graded to encourage serious engagement during the process. During the PA session in class, they were expected to go beyond mere grammar and word choice correction, by presenting explanations or justifications of their own paper and comments on their peer's paper. After PA, they also had to submit a guided journal on the effects of the PA on their writing and CT abilities.

One crucial aspect underlying the PA process in this class is that the process of participation was emphasized in the hope that the students would be able to discuss and interpret any feedback more freely and constructively. The students were put in a setting where they were provided with various resources for learning, so that they would engage actively, socially, and critically during their learning.

Data Collection and Analysis

For the purpose of the present study, comprehensive data collection methods were employed. The researcher audited and recorded all the classes during the semester. In order to track the students' CT performance, the Ennis-Weir Critical Thinking Essay Test (Ennis & Weir, 1985) was administered as the pre-test and the post-test. In addition, five reflective journal entries were set as homework to further elicit the students' perceptions of their CT experience. Together with the teacher interview, large amounts of quantitative and qualitative data were collected, which provided solid resources for the discussion of the research. Only the qualitative data which displayed the students' and the teacher's perceptions and the resulting cultural concerns in implementing the CT pedagogy will be focused on in this paper.

MAJOR FINDINGS

Student Perceptions

The students' perceptions were examined by detailed analysis of their journal entries. First of all, the journals revealed an overall positive acceptance of the importance of CT during college life and studies. Take students S12 and S20 for example. They expressed their views in terms of the social role a college student should perform in order to be a responsible and successful citizen.

> CT is one of the key factors to be successful in this society. It is crucial for college students as amateur socially responsible person to learn CT. (S12)

> As a college student, I try to accept social issues not superficially but critically. I firmly believe that CT is one of the important skills we can intensively learn only in college. (S20)

Some students attached an important role to CT in achieving academic success, as shown with student S27:

> I totally agree with the idea [College students should be good at CT] because there are a lot of opportunities to criticize or analyze deeply in college studies. CT is the essential and crucial part of doing it and helps students to be able to bring up their own academic questions in the end. (S27)

Student S28 saw CT as an effective learning strategy, stating that:

> CT is important not only when we write but also when we do others things, such as discussion or reading. Therefore, as a college student, we have to try to improve our ability of CT. It will be also useful when we study in effective way. (S28)

Student S17 extended the value of CT beyond the writing class to everyday life and future workplace.

> CT enables us to think upon a solution to a problem and to find the better way to solve the problem. Accordingly, CT is important not only for writing, but also for living and working. (S17)

Secondly, journal entries demonstrated that most of the students had achieved a better understanding of CT. They realized that CT was a tool through which they could see things from a different or more balanced perspective.

> I began to think about something in a critical and different point of view . . . It is certain that developing CT skills are not as easy as just memorizing knowledge. (S22)

> I know that it [CT] involves looking at an issue from a different perspective than the one that you are normally used to. (S32)

> CT is to see everything from the both sides. (S33)

Thirdly, the favorable effect peer assessment (PA) was predicted to have on CT development was confirmed. To a journal question on whether PA improved their CT ability or not, 29 of the 34 students (85.2%) answered positively. In particular, among the specific CT skills as defined by the American Psychological Association (APA)[1], the first three accumulated 71.8% of the total on the list. These were analysis (33.3%), evaluation (20.5%), and interpretation (17.9%). They were followed by self-regulation (12.8%), explanation (10.3%), and inference skill (5.1%).

In answering what they had learned from PA, the students responded that their ability to generate new ideas was stimulated substantially by peers who varied in their opinions and viewpoints.

> The ability to see the forest. . . . I was a passive reader who just accepts what the writer said. Thanks to assessing my peer's writing, I have become more active to read. (S10)

> Peer assessment surely can improve my CT ability because it gives me the opportunities to think differently and to stand on a different point of view. (S17)

> PA means a lot to me, because I began to think from the view of others when I do my writing assignment. (S20)

> I am interested in peer assessments. Most of all, I love assessing peers' writings. First, because her view on the topic is opposite to mine, I could learn others' ideas and widen my mental view by comparing with my writing. Second, comparing her writing with mine, I naturally could practice the way of critical thinking. Accordingly, English writing class helps me improve my CT abilities especially in the process of peers' assessment (S31).

Meanwhile, while engaging in PA, students found themselves immersed in a situation where they had to exercise self-examination and self-control. There was evidence that students' social communicative skills were improved.

> During the assessment process, I tried to be not only honest but also well-mannered. In other words, I didn't want to hurt my peer's feeling even when I talked about the weak points. (S3)

> I will talk in a much more polite way to the partner. I found it was easy to raise one's voice over some misunderstandings. (S32)

> While doing peer assessment, I also learned how to communicate and negotiate in evaluating. (S34)

> It [peer assessment] was good to share each other's opinions and stimulated my desire to be better at writing. (S22)

The PA strategy provided a reflective platform and the students became more open-minded, inquisitive, and motivated to learn. Such experience is necessary to help students overcome the egocentrism, and the narrowness of perspectives in which most of them often indulge. The mainstream positive responses dovetailed with the existing literature claiming that PA motivated students to become more reflective and independent learners (Ballantyne et al., 2002; Falchikov, 1995; Searby & Ewers, 1997). As a whole, PA provided plenty of opportunities to practice CT skills and bring their thinking alive for the students by making them articulate their thoughts to their peers and engage in a meaningful and interactive exchange of information.

The Teacher's Perceptions

The teacher's perceptions were also elicited through an interview at the end of the semester. She highly embraced the CT-infused instruction as well and, when she was asked about the desirability of teaching CT, she commented:

> Using the concept of CT was a great idea in my writing class, as CT is at the heart of creative writing, thinking, and even in reading comprehension . . . because writing requires a level of CT and the concept of CT is the fundamental basis for any type of writing . . . the concept of CT should be emphasized more, so that students can learn to think more critically and be able to apply this thinking skill not only in writing class, but in all aspects of life.

She talked about the challenge of infusing CT into the classroom and how she coped with the extra workload.

> The barrier was how to plan and manage the class time efficiently to cover both CT materials and the regular classroom teaching. However, planning ahead and learning/understanding the CT materials myself would certainly take care of all the challenges. As the semester developed, my class management improved.

Seeing the enormous positive impact of CT on students in an all-around way, she concluded that, in the future, she would spare no effort in engaging herself with CT instruction. In particular, she shared her experiences and insights as to how to put the CT-related strategies into practice.

> I would definitely emphasize the importance of CT and involve CT materials in my teaching, for the positive benefits mentioned above. Explaining to students how CT helps in reading comprehension and also in writing would be one way to integrate CT with the normal classroom instruction. Just like teaching writing, explaining how to think, the benefits of CT, and most of all giving good examples on what CT is or how it can be applied would be most effective.

In this study, the teachability of CT in college English classes was confirmed in the Korean environment, in particular, the positive effects of PA on CT development was further proved. The findings are enlightening and encouraging for Korean teachers who intend to implement similar strategies.

Problems with Conducting PA in the Korean Context

The PA strategy was not with out its problems during implementation. The following journal scripts shed some lights on the obstacles. A few students mistook CT for "criticism," "fault-finding," and "correcting mistakes." These misunderstandings, in turn, led to some difficulties, especially when the students were involved in peer assessment.

> I think I criticized too much on my peer's work, so I will try not to criticize a lot next time. (S22)

> I did not enjoy peer assessment at all. To criticize or advise to other is too painful and stressful. (S30)

Several students demonstrated a negative attitude towards PA on account of the limited time and experience they had with it. Accordingly, they preferred reading to PA when giving their opinions on the most effective strategy to foster CT.

> I don't think peer assessment can improve my critical thinking ability much. Reading good, professional writings will be more effective for this purpose. (S32)

> I don't believe only twice of peer assessment improved my critical thinking ability dramatically but also in a short time. (S34)

In order to display CT, it is important to question the arguments of others. Ideally, involvement and participation are intended to be emphasized during PA, so that the peers can discuss the piece of writing and interpret feedback more freely and constructively. However, as Korean collectivistic culture attaches importance to group harmony, some students did not actually engage in giving meaningful or constructive feedback. Their comments were mostly social and indirect. The following three excerpts further suggest that harmony maintenance, face preservation, and the norms of social hierarchy should all be considered when giving PA tasks in the Korean setting.

> I don't think I enjoyed the peer assessment that much. One of the main reasons is that I'm not used to saying critical comments to my partner. (S10)

> I guess I could have done it [PA] more harshly, but the fact that the writing was from one of my friends made me hesitated. (S20)

> I think peer assessment is a very new and progressive procedure in terms of gaining diverse perspectives about our work. However, the actual assessment did not seem effective as much as I expected because we know each other and it was very awkward to grade your friend's works objectively considering the culture. We know that we need to be object for one another's true progress but it was never easy (S23).

PA reveals reliable information about the students' thoughts. Honesty in facing one's own biases, prejudices, and egocentric tendencies is one of the important indicators of CT. The following words about the PA experience from student S24 showed that some students were sensitive to perceived injuries to their self-image, and that the pride of being a student at that elite university was not to be injured.

I hate peer assessment because I believe that wound my pride. (S24)

To sum up, in spite of the cultural obstacles reported, the positive effects of PA on CT in the Korean setting were confirmed. At the same time, it is suggested that teachers have an understanding of the practical socio-cultural concerns of implementing PA in order to optimize the desired effects. For example, PA tasks in the Korean setting might be more effective if done anonymously. It is equally important to establish an assessment climate which is as relaxed as possible, to help the students overcome their ego-centrism, to build confidence, and to generate an ethos of collaboration and mutual support.

LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The current study was limited in terms of duration, the convenient sampling procedure used, and the small number of participants, which might all decrease the generalizability of the findings. Despite the limitations, the findings are informative in that they convey crucial information about Korean EFL learners' perceptions of the teacher's CT initiatives. The central implication underlined in this study is that CT-infused instruction in the Korean EFL setting is promising, because it satisfies both the need for developing English language skills and "a critical awareness of the world and the ability to act on it" (Crookes & Lehner, 1998, p. 320). In brief, CT can and should be incorporated along with English language skills education in the Korean EFL context.

CT is accorded worldwide importance. In the current global community, regional, and cultural boundaries are being dismantled by accelerating information exchanges, trade, and economic interactions. Fostering CT across curricula in Korea plays a more strategic role in helping Koreans stay at an advantageous position to compete with their western counterparts. Just as CT pedagogy is not a panacea for all educational problems, Korean educators should not use the socio-cultural barrier between cultures as an excuse to embrace or avoid CT. A trade-off position on CT that both maintains Korean identity and at the same time invites Koreans to embrace the western conceptualization is necessary.

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Footnote

[1]Being one of the most recognized and comprehensive conceptualizations, the APA definition was chosen as the working definition for the current study. According to APA, CT is defined as: purposeful, self-regulatory judgment which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations upon which that judgment is based (Facione, 1990, p. 2).

Author Note

This paper is based on the excerption and revision of the writer's dissertation in 2011. For other related findings, please refer to the presentations on the 7th International Symposium on Teaching English at the Tertiary Level, and the 7th KATE-YBU Joint Conference on English Education.

Second Language Acquisition

Second Language Acquisition Principles for East Asian Students

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This paper examines some of the underlying principles of second language acquisition as they apply to the situation in many East Asian nations. In regions where a second language community is lacking, and washback-oriented (test-driven) teaching methods dominate classrooms, extra effort must be made to properly motivate students and prepare them for life after high-stakes exams. The five key principles of input, output, motivation, fluency development, and autonomy are examined from a modern pedagogical viewpoint, looking at how changes can easily be made in traditional grammar-translation-oriented environments common in East Asia. The final argument will be made that with English as a global language in demand, teachers must prepare students for more than just entrance exams and tests. Our young learners need to acquire language skills necessary for competitive positions in post-graduation international companies.

INTRODUCTION

There are well over one and a half *billion* people living in East Asia, the vast majority of whom have spent hundreds of hours learning English as a foreign language (Crystal, 2003). Yet, as any visitor to this huge region can tell you, finding information in English can be somewhat daunting. Some argue that this is because of an underdeveloped tourism industry, or say that it is the result of a grammar-translation-style education, or reason that perhaps locals are too shy to attempt L2 communication. (Harshburger et al., 1986)

However, Asians spend a great amount of time, money, and energy in pursuit of English language skills, which are regarded (along with education) as a mark of upward mobility and status. Education-minded parents are pushing their children into English classrooms at earlier and earlier ages. Cram schools dot the landscape, drilling English (and other subjects) well into the night, resulting in exhausted students who spend several hours a day studying at a desk. In South Korea alone, about 74% of all students are involved in after-school study, costing an average of $2600 (US) per child per year (Ripley, 2011).

Granted, the value of education cannot be understated in East Asia; for millions of young people in working-class families, there can be little doubt that education is the way to a better life. Even in the wealthier nations, the pressure to get a good job with a respectable company begins at a tender age (WuDunn, 1996). The washback effect from this pressure has resulted, in some cases, of parents competing to get their children into the *right* kindergarten, as this is deemed to be the beginning of a long successful academic career in the *right* schools (WuDunn, 1996).

WASHBACK AND EXAM HELL

The washback effect can be described as the effect of the contents of a test on in-class teaching (Hughes, 2010). With many Asian nations having high-stakes entrance exams and many parents invested in their children's long-term education, it is natural that many schools are under intense pressure to see their graduates get into prestigious universities. In fact, the rate of graduates passing prestigious university entrance exams is often used as a sales point to attract students.

As a result, approaches to EFL in East Asia are often the result of the washback effect on testing (Yildirim, 2010). If prestigious university entrance exams focus on grammar and vocabulary, high schools (and cram schools) are quite likely to follow suit, coaching students in preparation for the all-important day of the biggest test of their young lives. In South Korea, this day is marked by extreme measures, such as rerouting air traffic, special prayers from temples, and delaying rush hour to make way for students traveling to exam centers (Park, 2008).

Unfortunately, this intense pressure creates a lot of unhappy young students. According to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Korean students are the least happy of thirty-four nations (Song, 2011). This is largely due to the test education system which values high test scores above all, putting tremendous pressure on youth in such countries.

In Japan, there are reported cases of children as young as three years old attending cram schools to take practice tests to help them get into high-level kindergartens. Moreover, it is estimated that one in five junior high school students is suffering from some kind of depression (Cutts, 1997; Yoneyama, 1999).

It is likely that the training of students for university entrance exams (which lack communicative elements) results in millions of graduates who are ironically able to pass important tests, but unable to use English effectively (Yildirim, 2010). Given the demographic make-up of many East Asian nations (e.g., Japan, Taiwan, South Korea), the chance of an encounter with an English-speaking foreigner is very low, while the chance of taking a university entrance exam is extremely likely, for the vast majority of young people. Since universities traditionally test areas such as obscure lexical items, academic reading, and listening skills, the grammar-translation teaching method remains popular. Communicative abilities are rarely tested, and therefore of little import in almost all Asian EFL classrooms.

As a result, native-speaking EFL teachers are a staple at many junior and senior high schools, especially in South Korea and Japan. They soon recognize this considerable difference in teaching/learning styles (Zhenhui, 2001), and set off to improve speaking and communication skills. Foreign EFL teachers tend to use a variety of modern language teaching pedagogies (e.g., content-based instruction, CALL applications, extensive reading, project work) in this L2-deprived environment. Unfortunately, many Asian teachers regard such classes as *fun time* for the students, since the activities do not directly relate to the *practical* skills needed to pass entrance exams. Native-speaking EFL teachers often suffer in such an educational environment, not knowing exactly what their role is or how to promote English communication in a system that basically does not support their efforts (Zhenhui, 2001). Even communication between foreign teachers and local (in this case, Japanese) teachers is often found wanting (Collins, 2011).

Local teachers of English (non-native speakers), however, make up the vast majority of EFL instructors in East Asia, and, if concrete advances are to be made in our field, these must start with them. This paper will now focus on pedagogies that can be easily implemented in an EFL classroom by non-native English teachers who would like to teach English as a *skill*, rather than as a purely academic subject for testing purposes.

PEDAGOGIES FOR TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SKILL

Principles for Input

Target language input (reading, listening) is naturally a big part of language acquisition. The teacher's voice is one of the best sources of input for our learners. English teachers spend one to four hours a week (on average) teaching junior or high school classes, creating a lot of opportunities for L2 input. Many students in East Asia rarely hear the target language outside of class, so one could argue that this is as good a reason as any to let students hear as much English as possible during class time.

There is much resistance to the idea of using a lot of English in Japanese classrooms. Despite the Ministry setting the 2001 goal of "cultivating Japanese with English abilities" (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology [MEXT], 2003) little has changed in day-to-day English education. MEXT also proposed an ambitious plan to have all high school English classes taught with English as the language of instruction. This met with widespread resistance since (a) too many Japanese EFL teachers cannot speak English very well and (b) this system would seriously slow down the preparation of students for the entrance exams.

There is much fear from teachers who lack confidence or any real communication skills themselves. They have been teaching English grammar in Japanese for so long that it is purely an academic subject for rote memorization; they have not really used their language skills for actual communication, and when faced with a native-speaker, become anxious and nervous. Research by Yashima (2002) on willingness to communicate (WTC) is an essential element of communication, and has cross-cultural applications. WTC can be generally defined as the intention to initiate communication, given a choice, and has been closely linked with language ego and foreign language anxiety as major sociocultural factors in second language acquisition.

In many East Asian countries, there are strong cultural forces in society that impair learning foreign languages, such as avoiding risks or a loss of face, and (in some countries) the belief that the people are naturally shy. Brown (2007, p. 63) rightly argues that “many instructional contexts do not encourage risk-taking; instead they encourage correctness, right answers, and withholding ‘guesses’ until one is sure to be correct. Most educational research shows the opposite to be more conductive to long-term retention and intrinsic motivation.”

In any case, learners will need massive amounts of input of the foreign language in order to become familiar with rhythm, stress timing, intonation, and linkages. These language features are an often-overlooked element of many EFL curricula. They are important for closing the vast language gap between the structures of English and East Asian languages (Chiswick & Miller, 2004). Because English is so different, extra steps should be taken to make it less *foreign* and more international.

Motivation, which will be discussed later, is a key element necessary to make the language more appealing. Simply put, teaching English must be made interesting, whenever possible. National celebrities who can speak English make excellent role models for young impressionable students. In China, there is Yao Ming and in South Korea, Kim Yu-Na. In Japan, there’s Watanabe Ken, and in Taiwan, Jin Fong Chen.

Moreover, the teacher can be a role model as well. Although our field isn’t as flashy and cool as the entertainment world, non-native teachers can serve as attainable goals for students. They might think, “I’ll never speak English like a native speaker, but I can at least speak as well as my teacher, Ms. Lee.” The central idea is that students create their own realistic and obtainable goals with regard to their language studies through role models.

When choosing topics for the language classroom, teachers should have a good idea as to what is of interest to their learners. Familiar subjects will likely motivate and attract students to the language, while abstract topics tend not to. Martin Luther King’s famous 1963 “I have a dream” speech may motivate the teacher, but the concept of the Black American Civil Rights movement is well outside young Asian learners’ circle of experience. It is unlikely students will ever be able to fully appreciate the spirit and power of that period of American history, and the basic concept is probably alien to them.

Instead, focusing reading topics to the correct age level and region will have a more positive effect on motivation. Teachers have to stay on top of “what’s hot and what’s not” for their learners, and seek out readings and topics that appeal to them.

Principles for Output

In areas like East Asia, where the target language community comes from a completely different culture and lives in a distant foreign land, opportunities for output tend to be generated in an artificial classroom setting. The English native-speaker exists, in most cases, as an assistant language teacher (ALT) at the local junior or senior high school. This is the first opportunity for authentic L2 output for many young Asian students, and in some cases, the first time to meet a Westerner face-to-face.

Typical, badly organized English lessons with ALT’s are rather output deficient. The non-native English teacher guides class through a grammar lesson in the local language, stopping periodically for the ALT to read something in native English, or to ask a question to students in class. This basic model has persisted for decades.

Speaking skills are rarely (if ever) tested and scored, resulting in the above activity being nothing more than a *fun* class for learners, who need not worry if they can string together a simple sentence or not. It is not on the test, and therefore irrelevant. I would suggest there are two reasons for this problem: Firstly, there are not enough local teachers confident and proficient enough in English to feel comfortable measuring and grading student L2 output. Secondly, doing so would take valuable time away from vocabulary and grammar lessons, which will most certainly be tested in future high-stakes entrance exams.

However, it can be argued that limiting opportunities for output may impair student accuracy, processing of the language more deeply, and deny them the chance to develop a personal voice in English. Output is essential for developing interlanguage, getting control of various L2 forms (especially lexical and phonetic), and fulfilling the communicative role of second language acquisition.

With regard to the phonetic aspects of English and the considerably different phonetics of local languages, it should be argued that speaking is even more important. Frequently used phrases need to be automatized, leading to larger *chunks* (or linked phrases) of L2 acquisition. Such fluency is best exercised through speaking practice, or output. It has been argued, "production can contribute more directly and centrally to acquisition . . . the idea that production engages syntactic processing in a way that comprehension does not" (Ellis, 2003, p. 112).

Principles for Motivation

First, it is necessary here to acknowledge the difference between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. The former can be defined as the inclination to behave a certain way to receive some kind of reward (or avoid punishment), while the latter can be explained as exercising choice to do something out of pleasure or curiosity (Dornyei, 2001). These two types of motivation are not mutually exclusive, and often overlap to a certain degree. For example, a Korean student might be keen to learn more English, but primarily motivated by her education-minded mother and an upcoming exam.

The situation in many East Asian countries is that high-stakes entrance exam pressure is overwhelming, and the English section of those tests is substantial. Whether outward looking, intrinsically motivated or not, these exams are a certainty in the lives of nearly all East Asian students. The opportunity to speak authentic English with a foreigner is not. There are very few sizeable target language communities in any of these nations, leading to some unique solutions. In South Korea, Gyeonggi-do has spent over $8 million U.S. to build a (now cash-strapped) English town in Paju City to serve as an artificial L2 community for language learning purposes (Mitchell, 2006). In Taiwan, similar efforts were made with *Happy English Village* in Taoyuan. In these artificial L2 environments, people are asked to speak only in English, as a means of forcing L2 output.

This problem of limited opportunities to use L2 can be addressed by modern-day technology. The Internet is host to hundreds of online English education sites, and more are added every month. In cyberspace, hundreds of thousands of EFL students are communicating in L2 from the comfort of their home. Online, they can find people just like them, young students struggling with the language but actively determined to become a better user. Students need not engage in discourse with a native speaker, just a like-minded motivated English student who is searching for opportunities to communicate in the target language. Some examples of these sites can be found in Appendix A.

At this point, a conscientious teacher might want to point out to students that the number of native speakers is dwarfed by the number of people who are learning English as a second or foreign language (Crystal, 2003). It is important to remind learners that they are far from alone in their efforts to acquire English, and that they are but one of millions. Local teachers might connect more with their students by describing their own struggles to become a good speaker, and eventually a teacher of EFL.

Efforts can also be made to emphasize the post-exam benefits of acquiring English as a skill, English as a language of communication, promotion, and success. In Japan, companies such as Nissan, Uniqlo, and Rakuten have made waves in the business world by making English an in-house language of communication. This is part of an intensive effort to improve the language skills of employees in these international companies. These kinds of drastic measures are necessary to force L2 acquisition in countries where English is a completely foreign language.

In developing nations within East Asia, teachers might want to emphasize the economic benefits of acquiring English as a tangible skill in the global workplace. Promotions, opportunities for postings abroad, and upper-level management positions increasingly require foreign language skills, especially skills in English. For millions of hard-working East Asian students, this is a path to white-collar success and respect in their own social circles.

At the heart of L2 learning motivation lie a number of factors that teachers can directly influence such as generating interest in foreign languages, shaping positive attitudes, and creating a supportive learning environment (Dornyei, 2001). Below is a summary of some of the main concepts with regards to motivation.

- Enhance student autonomy with a framework of choices in assignments.
- Maintain good levels of teacher and student enthusiasm and interest.
- Provide an anxiety-free atmosphere with lots of teacher-student interaction.
- Challenge learners with a variety of interesting projects.
- Build a healthy success-orientation using goals and objectives.

Principles for Fluency Development

For the purposes of this paper, fluency shall be defined as the smooth, message-oriented spoken discourse in L2. In order to become a fluent L2 user (not to be confused with *perfect* L2 user), robust levels of motivation are required. It doesn't matter if such motivation is intrinsic or extrinsic, but fluency demands motivation as a key ingredient. The reality in Japan, South Korea, China, and Taiwan is that students study English for at least six years, but too many lack sufficient levels of fluency (and motivation), despite vocabularies approaching 2,000 words.

This is arguably due to the education system, which focuses on form (grammar) over communicability (fluency), as well as the sheer lack of opportunities to use the L2. Moreover, many grammar-translation activities in traditional Asian classrooms are rather abstract and bear no relation to either student lives or real-life situations. Grammar drills need reinforcement with meaningful communicative activities, which allow students deeper processing (Anderson, 1993) and understanding of how the language is actually used. Students must build ties between items to be learned and their own experience (or something concrete in their lives).

Moreover, fluency development can be improved by orienting efforts towards *chunking*, or linking sounds in larger and larger groups. By building and drilling on these types of activities, chunking will lead eventually to automaticity, the heart of fluency development. A simple example can be given with the question "How are you?" to which most Japanese students automatically reply, "I'm fine, thank you," regardless of their actual feelings or mood. Nonetheless, it is a simple case of automaticity in action. Extensive meaningful language use in class (and out) is required to build this skill to the point where students no longer need to hesitate and translate words in their head.

Skill-based instruction is essential for many language teachers, however, providing regular opportunities for review is often sacrificed in order to complete a textbook. Fluency comes with frequent, regular, meaningful exchanges in L2, and if students are denied these chances, the language will not be acquired sufficiently. Too often, teachers feel outside pressure to complete textbooks within the academic year, pressure from other educators, and perhaps even from the parents of students. However, soon after the chapter quizzes and final exams, much of the language learned is quickly forgotten, thanks to our short-term memories. It is much better for students to complete half the textbook (and know the material very well) rather than speed through at a faster-than-ideal pace. Learning the material in-depth is far more important an objective than the abstract ideal of finishing a state-assigned text.

Fluency development is quite possibly the biggest challenge facing learners in East Asia. Extensive grammar explanations and exercises (focus on form) can block pathways to fluency (Brown, 2007). The free flow of language practice should be encouraged, without fear of mistakes or constant correction. In order to help learners develop fluency, instructors should remember to:

- Structure communicative tasks to be meaningful and age-appropriate.
- Provide opportunities to review material regularly.
- Practice forms in a variety of interesting contexts.
- Apply intrinsic and extrinsic motivational pressure.

Principles for Autonomy

Autonomy, or the art of students taking responsibility for their own L2 goals and objectives, is an often-overlooked element of second language acquisition. East Asian learners are largely educated in a teacher-centered, book-centered, grammar-translation-oriented learning environment (Liu & Littlewood, 1997). Learners are said to be quiet, shy, and reticent in the EFL class (Harshbarger et al., 1986) and less autonomous, more dependent on authority figures (Sue & Kirk, 1972).

However, autonomy is an essential element of second language acquisition, and motivated learners must spend hundreds of hours outside of the class engaged in personally directed study to adequately acquire L2. Teachers should foster motivation and build student autonomy for East Asian students by providing a framework for autonomy. Generally speaking, most students are confused if given complete autonomy with regards to completing an assignment. Rather, a flexible framework might be more successful, allowing a freedom of choice from within an acceptable framework set by the teacher.

For example, if students must practice reading, give them a large selection of texts from which to choose an appealing story at the appropriate level. If writing is called for, prepare a list of age-appropriate meaningful topics to write about. The same can be said for speaking presentations and listening activities. This kind of autonomy can certainly boost motivation by allowing some freedom for students to pursue areas of language study that have personal appeal (Brown, 2007).

Again, the responsibility lies with the language teacher. Students can be encouraged to gradually take responsibility for their own learning if the teacher:

- Encourages students to take the initiative with learning outside the classroom.
- Allows students choices of appealing assignments whenever possible.
- Encourages free and open critical thinking in L2.
- Rewards creativity and innovation.

CONCLUSION

Students studying English in East Asia face significant challenges. While they are forced to spend years studying a completely foreign language (primarily for testing purposes), they have very few opportunities to use English in meaningful authentic situations. English is largely an abstract academic subject with little connection to daily life.

However, efforts can be made by non-native speaking teachers to close this gap by initially boosting motivation, fostering autonomy, building fluency development, and making input/output activities more meaningful. This will require a substantial change to the ways EFL is taught, and a challenge to existing traditional educational methods. The longer institutions delay the implementation of modern language teaching pedagogies, the farther behind students will fall. The washback effect of teaching to high-stakes exams has, for decades, de-motivated students and produced very few young users of the language.

The global workplace is growing, and companies are increasingly demanding that educational institutions graduate more internationally minded bilingual students. In developing Asian countries, these people will be the future political leaders and captains of industry. The choice is ours, as educators, to either protect schools from outside change, or implement modern language teaching pedagogies for the sake of our students' future.

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APPENDIX A

Suggested Websites for Asian Students to Practice English Online

1-Language	http://www.1-language.com/
English Baby	http://www.englishbaby.com/
English Town	http://www.englishtown.com/online/home.aspx
English Central	https://www.englishcentral.com/
English Club Grammar	http://www.englishclub.com/grammar/
Learn English	http://www.learnenglish.de/
Owl English	http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/index2.html
Xtranormal	http://www.xtranormal.com/
For listening:	
BBC English	http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/sport/index.shtml
CNN	http://literacynet.org/cnnsf/archives.html
eChat Vancouver	http://www.echatvancouver.com/eChat/
ESL Podcast	http://www.eslpod.com/website/index_new.html
Famous Speeches	http://historychannel.com/speeches/index.html
National Public Radio	http://www.pbs.org/newshour/
Randall's ESL Listening Lab	http://www.esl-lab.com/
Foreign Culture	http://bjapan.bravehost.com/
VOA News	http://www.voanews.com/specialenglish/topics_summary.cfm

Note. A lengthy list of English learning websites can be found at the following link: http://home.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/flare/EnglishStudySite.html

Sociolinguistics / Language Policy / World Englishes

Korean University Students' Attitudes Towards Varieties of English

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The growth of English education in Korea, and the increasing importance of English language skills have created a demand driven market with high stakes for all involved. Traditionally, American and British models have dominated this market. Recent research, however, has claimed that there has been a paradigm shift in Korean attitudes towards other varieties of English, and a growing acceptance of World Englishes and EIL. However, it has largely ignored university students, to whom such a shift is arguably most relevant. This study investigated the attitudes of 60 Korean university students towards varieties of English. Results indicate that there is a significant preference for inner circle varieties, contradicting recent assertions that Koreans are more accepting of other varieties (Shim, 2002) and do not have a preference (Kim, 2007). It is argued that these preferences are problematic, with potential implications for policy and pedagogy in English language education in Korea.

INTRODUCTION

The concept of World Englishes is a fairly new one. In the last two decades, Kachru's (1985) concentric circles of English usage have been the subject of much debate. Many argue that English as an International Language (EIL) has become a new variety, taking on a "life of its own" (Leung, 2005) and that it can no longer be said to belong to particular nations and "native speakers" (Widdowson, 1994). One group of researchers argue that EIL is, and should be, setting a new agenda in English learning and teaching (Jenkins, 2006). What aren't often discussed are the attitudes of the learners to this agenda. In nations like South Korea, where American English has long dominated the curriculum in public and private education, change may not be as forthcoming as the literature on EIL would have us believe. This study investigated the attitudes of Korean university students to varieties of English, as well as their ability to identify those varieties, and the implications for EIL in Korea.

BACKGROUND

Attitudes

Research in the social sciences contains a great deal of discussion on the concept of "attitudes." Attempts to find a universally acceptable definition have largely been unsuccessful (see Ryan & Giles, 1982; Potter & Wetherell, 1987; Ajzen, 1988; Eiser, 1986). The many and diverse areas under study, and the array of research in those areas, contribute to the ever-evolving definitions of the term. Research, however, continues. In pursuit of appropriate and accurate ways in which to measure participant attitudes, constructs have been developed. Agheyisi and Fishman (1970) provided a list of key common components of the many and varied definitions, including enduring aspects of attitudes, and their relation to behavior. Baker (1992) proposed a three-tier model of cognition, affect, and readiness for action, describing attitudes as "social indicators of changing beliefs." The purpose, then, is to measure those attitudes to gain some understanding of those changing beliefs.

If universally acceptable definitions are hard to come by, universally acceptable methodologies for measurement are more so. Methodologies are usually classified as either direct or indirect (Fasold, 1984). Direct methods ask participants what their attitude is to a particular object, "referent," situation, or event (Gardner, 1988; Cargile et al., 1994). Critics of direct methodologies argue that participants may simply be responding in a socially acceptable way in order to appease the researcher or their peers (Baker, 1992). Osgood's (1964) semantic differential scale, with matched pairs of opposite adjectives on either end of a Likert scale (Likert, 1932), has been used in attitudinal research as a means of indirect measurement (see Baker, 1992). When used in conjunction with other methodologies, such as Lambert et al.'s (1960) matched guise technique, they are designed to overcome the limitations of more direct methods. The matched guise relies on bilingual speakers producing speech samples in both of their languages. Modified versions such as the verbal guise technique, with different speakers for different speech samples, have been used successfully where it was impossible or inappropriate to follow a strict matched guise methodology (Garrett et al., 2003; Alford & Strother, 1990).

Korean Attitudes and Varieties of English

Studies of Korean attitudes towards varieties of English are almost universally defined by their investigation of "native" varieties. Results generally indicate a strong preference for American English (Gibb, 1997, 1999; Jung, 2005) though there is some support for British English (Yook, 2005). Of the "non-native" variety studies, Yook (2005) used a verbal guise test to investigate attitudes to five varieties of English, including "European American" and Korean, but still found a strong preference for American English. Shim (2002) conducted a number of surveys over some years. Her participants in the first survey rejected Pakistani and Korean accents as poor models of English, and noted that there was no need to understand non-native varieties. She did, however, note that these attitudes changed with subsequent surveys (Shim, 2002).

Kim (2007) sought to investigate Korean adults' attitudes towards six varieties of English. Two were selected from each of Kachru's (1985) circles of English usage, and a verbal guise test and qualitative questionnaire were administered to participants. The sample was comprised of 45 Korean adult office workers in Daegu, Korea. Kim (2007) found that (a) Korean adults prefer American English as a model but do not have a preference for native over non-native varieties; (b) participants were not able to correctly identify different varieties of English. The study had its limitations, including the rather homogenous sample. Results, if they could be replicated with other sample groups, would represent a significant change in Korean attitudes. Further investigation was warranted.

This Study

This study was a pilot study for a larger project. Its purpose was twofold: First, it aimed to investigate whether such a change in attitudes was evident among Korean university students (see Shim, 2002; Kim, 2007) or whether the preference for inner circle varieties remained (Gibb, 1997, 1999; Jung, 2005; Yook, 2005). Second, it was designed to fully test the larger project's research instrumentation and methodological framework prior to data collection.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Owing to the scarcity of research on the attitudes of Korean university students towards varieties of English accents, particularly non-native accents in a World Englishes context, this study aimed to investigate the issues outlined above through the administration of a verbal guise test and a qualitative questionnaire. Two distinct, largely exploratory research questions were posed:

1. Do Korean university students prefer particular varieties of English?
2. Are Korean university students aware of, and able to identify, different varieties of English?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Participants for this study were drawn from a class of undergraduate law students at a private university in Seoul, South Korea. There were 17 females and 33 males, aged between 20 and 28. The mean age for the sample was 22.8 years. Having gone through the Korean school system, all participants had received a number of years of English education. Many had supplemented this with private language education and had also been required to take mandatory English language courses as part of the core requirements for their studies at university. Participants had studied English for an average of 9.1 years. Participants were asked to rate their own English language proficiency on a three point scale: 1 = beginner, 2 = intermediate, and 3 = advanced. The mean rating was 1.43 indicating that most participants were either beginner or intermediate.

All participants in the study were required to meet three general criteria for participation:

- They were ethnic Koreans who had completed all of their schooling in South Korea.

- They were non-native speakers of English.
- They had not have lived abroad in any English-speaking country.

Participants who did not meet the general criteria were excluded.

Instruments

The instruments used for data collection in this study were adapted from Kim (2007). Some questions were modified, changed, added, or removed. As the instruments were prepared in both English and Korean, to avoid any confusion or errors caused by misunderstandings, it was necessary to ensure the Korean translations were accurate. To that end, six native Korean speakers reviewed the instruments and translations, and necessary changes were made. There were three components for each participant to complete:

Part A: Basic background information
Part B: Verbal guise test and semantic differential scale
Part C: Qualitative questionnaire

In order to triangulate the data, both direct and indirect data collection methods (see Fasold, 1984) were used. Part A of the instrument required participants to provide basic background data for the purposes of exclusion of participants and data analyses.

In Part B, participants were provided with a semantic differential scale for each speaker (a total of six) in the verbal guise test. The semantic differential scale utilized ten contrasting adjective pairs on a seven-point Likert scale. The adjective pairs were randomly arranged with "positive" and "negative" adjectives on either end. For some adjective pairs, a rating of 1 was most positive, while for others it was most negative. Data analyses therefore required recoding.

Audio for each speaker was obtained from the George Mason University Speech Accent Archive (hereafter, "the Archive"). The Archive is a database of audio samples of English accents collected from participants from around the world. The text used for recording samples in the Archive is designed to show phonological differences between the accents. As each nation represented in this study had a number of available samples in the Archive, it was necessary for appropriate samples to be selected for use in the study. Samples were evaluated for quality, including volume, background noise, speed, and accuracy of speech, and selections were made based on these factors and a subjective "representativeness" analysis. Speaker selections are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1. Speech Accent Archive Sample Selections

Variety	Sample
ChE	mandarin25
InE	hindi6
KrE	korea6
PhE	tagalog1
BrE	english145
AmE	english50

In the final part of the instrument, Part C, participants were asked to rate which varieties of English they wanted to learn, which countries they wanted to learn in, and which country Korea is most connected to. On the first two questions, participants were asked to rank three of the fourteen options in order of preference from one to three. Options included “Other,” with the option to nominate countries not included in the list, and “No Preference.” The third and final question asked participants to choose one country, from a list of eight, which Korea was most connected to. A further option of “Other” was included for this question as well, to allow participants to supply their own answers if they wished to do so.

Analyses

Following the data collection procedure, data, together with answers to the qualitative questionnaire, were analyzed with SPSS (version 16). Descriptive statistics, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA, and paired sample t-tests were run on the data collected from the verbal guise test. Descriptive statistics were also utilized for analysis of the responses to the questionnaire.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Verbal Guise Test and Semantic Differential Scale

To ascertain how participants evaluated each speaker on each trait in the verbal guise test, it was necessary to run descriptive statistics. To accurately access ratings on the same scale, all data from the semantic differential scale was re-coded so that a value of 7 indicated the most positive value for each trait. Mean ratings for each adjective pair for each speaker are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2. Means and (Standard Deviations) of Semantic Differential Scale Ratings

Speaker	Traits								
	Intelligence	Pleasantness	Confidence	Fluency	Gentleness	Familiarity	Clarity	Friendliness	Trustworthiness
ChE	4.65 (1.36)	3.02 (1.38)	4.02 (1.51)	4.35 (1.22)	3.98 (1.49)	3.61 (1.30)	4.08 (1.30)	3.41 (1.41)	4.41 (1.32)
InE	4.24 (1.51)	3.00 (1.29)	3.98 (1.44)	3.96 (1.41)	3.59 (1.43)	4.27 (1.51)	4.18 (1.59)	3.71 (1.29)	4.57 (1.12)
KrE	3.41 (1.43)	3.18 (1.62)	3.00 (1.67)	3.59 (1.51)	3.92 (1.38)	3.71 (1.68)	3.31 (1.66)	3.80 (1.67)	3.59 (1.38)
PhE	3.94 (1.45)	2.53 (1.43)	3.06 (1.42)	3.82 (1.48)	3.33 (1.64)	3.43 (1.50)	3.35 (1.32)	3.37 (1.33)	3.71 (1.28)
BrE	4.76 (1.25)	3.53 (1.36)	4.67 (1.45)	4.53 (1.47)	3.61 (1.41)	4.35 (1.45)	4.67 (1.45)	3.92 (1.26)	4.61 (1.29)
AmE	5.59 (1.44)	5.16 (1.59)	5.71 (1.58)	5.24 (1.90)	5.37 (1.58)	5.65 (1.35)	5.67 (1.41)	4.67 (1.98)	5.53 (1.49)

From the results in Table 2, it is evident that in all traits the American English (AmE) speaker was rated the highest, followed by the British English (BrE) speaker in all but "gentleness." For the "intelligence" trait, AmE was the highest rated with a mean of 5.59, followed by BrE with a mean of 4.76. Chinese English (ChE) ranked third at 4.65, with Indian English (InE), Philippine English (PhE), and Korean English (KrE) rating at the bottom end of the scale. The mean for KrE was 3.41, indicating that of the six languages in the study, participants perceived the speaker of their own variety of English to be the least intelligent. This may be due to the participants' abilities to easily identify the speaker and the "errors" in speech. The trait that had the highest mean overall was confidence. The AmE speaker was ranked the highest with a mean of 5.71, and again, KrE was the lowest with a mean of 3.00.

Of all six varieties in the verbal guise test, it is clear that KrE and PhE were ranked the lowest for most traits, with InE not far off. The fact that InE and PhE were ranked so lowly may be due to participants' lack of exposure to these varieties. Interestingly, ChE was ranked quite highly for most traits, which may be a result of the geographical proximity of Korea to China. These participants in particular had become accustomed to communicating with Chinese foreign exchange students in their classes.

Participants were also asked if each speech sample represented a "good" or "bad" model of English. Mean ratings for each model for each speaker are shown in Table 3. Higher ratings indicate a better model of English.

TABLE 3. Means and (Standard Deviations) of Semantic Differential Scale Ratings for Each Model of English (Good/Bad)

Speaker	Trait
	Good/Bad Model of English
ChE	3.65 (1.61)
InE	3.49 (1.42)
KrE	2.65 (1.55)
PhE	3.10 (1.54)
BrE	4.08 (1.51)
AmE	5.04 (2.31)

Again, results show that participants evaluated the AmE speaker as exhibiting a good model of English with a mean of 5.04, followed by the BrE speaker with a mean of 4.08. The KrE speaker was identified as displaying the worst model of English with a mean of 2.65, possibly due to the fact that the respondents were able to easily identify the Korean speaker and the "errors" in speech. That is, they were aware of their own variety, and were therefore capable of being more critical in their assessment of it.

Descriptive statistics were run for the total means of all ten traits for each variety. Results are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4. Means and (Standard Deviations) of All Ten traits for each Variety

Descriptive Statistics			
Variety	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
ChE	3.92	0.64	49
InE	3.90	0.65	49
KrE	3.42	0.77	49
PhE	3.36	0.78	49
BrE	4.27	0.63	49
AmE	5.37	1.03	49

Again, AmE (5.37) and BrE (4.27) were the highest rated overall, while PhE (3.36) and KrE (3.42) are the lowest.

To investigate whether there were statistically significant differences in the ratings for each variety of English, a one-way repeated-measures ANOVA was run. Mauchly's Test of Sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 = 51.11$, $p < .05$), indicating that the assumption of sphericity had been violated. Degrees of freedom were corrected using Greenhouse-Geisser estimates of sphericity (epsilon = .65). Results indicate that participants' attitudes towards the varieties of English differed significantly: $F(3.22, 154.74) = 44.35$, $p < .001$. To determine where the significant differences were, post hoc tests were run. Pairwise comparisons (Table 5), with Bonferroni adjustments for multiple comparisons, indicate that participants' evaluations of the AmE variety were significantly different to all other varieties ($p < .001$). There were also significant differences between BrE, KrE, and PhE ($p < .001$). The ratings for PhE were also significantly lower than ChE ($p = .001$) and InE ($p = .013$). Interestingly, KrE rated second lowest, and was also significantly lower than ChE ($p = .010$). These results support those studies that have previously found a preference for American English (Gibb 1997, 1999; Jung, 2005; Shim, 2002) and British English (Yook, 2005), and contradict Kim's (2007) findings of a shift in attitudes towards expanding and outer circle varieties of English, where he found no significant differences apart from significant differences between InE and other varieties.

TABLE 5. Pairwise Comparisons for Varieties of English

(I) lang	(J) lang	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.a	95% Confidence Interval for Differencea	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
ChE	InE	.018	.116	1.000	-.340	.377
	KrE	.502*	.138	.010	.077	.927
	PhE	.555*	.129	.001	.155	.955
	BrE	-.355	.126	.102	-.743	.033
	AmE	-1.447*	.170	.000	-1.971	-.923

InE	ChE	-.018	.116	1.000	-.377	.340
	KrE	.484	.161	.065	-.015	.982
	PhE	.537*	.152	.013	.068	1.005
	BrE	-.373	.123	.059	-.754	.007
	AmE	-1.465*	.181	.000	-2.024	-.906
KrE	ChE	-.502*	.138	.010	-.927	-.077
	InE	-.484	.161	.065	-.982	.015
	PhE	.053	.118	1.000	-.311	.417
	BrE	-.857*	.138	.000	-1.284	-.431
	AmE	-1.949*	.215	.000	-2.612	-1.286
PhE	ChE	-.555*	.129	.001	-.955	-.155
	InE	-.537*	.152	.013	-1.005	-.068
	KrE	-.053	.118	1.000	-.417	.311
	BrE	-.910*	.140	.000	-1.344	-.477
	AmE	-2.002*	.221	.000	-2.685	-1.319
BrE	ChE	.355	.126	.102	-.033	.743
	InE	.373	.123	.059	-.007	.754
	KrE	.857*	.138	.000	.431	1.284
	PhE	.910*	.140	.000	.477	1.344
	AmE	-1.092*	.161	.000	-1.589	-.595
AmE	ChE	1.447*	.170	.000	.923	1.971
	InE	1.465*	.181	.000	.906	2.024
	KrE	1.949*	.215	.000	1.286	2.612
	PhE	2.002*	.221	.000	1.319	2.685
	BrE	1.092*	.161	.000	.595	1.589

Note. Based on estimated marginal means.
a Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.
* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Paired sample t-tests were run to compare "native" and "non-native" varieties of English. That is, inner circle varieties were compared with outer and expanding circle varieties (Kachru, 1985). Results showed significant differences between AmE + BrE (M = 4.82, SD = 0.65) and ChE + InE + KrE + PhE (M = 3.65, SD = 0.41); $t(48) = -9.62$, $p < .001$, $d = 2.15$. There was a significant difference between ratings for inner circle varieties and outer + expanding circle varieties with a very large effect size, indicating that Korean university students prefer inner circle varieties, again contradicting Kim's (2007) findings of a shift away from these attitudes.

Participants were also asked to identify the nationality of each speaker. The results are presented in percentage form in Table 6.

Table 6. Respondents Guesses Where the Speakers Were From (N = 49)

Speaker	Guesses (%)					
	China	India	Korea	Philippines	Britain	America
ChE	18.4%	10.2%	28.6%	12.2%	14.3%	16.3%
InE	16.3%	16.3%	10.2%	22.4%	12.2%	22.4%
KrE	12.2%	20.4%	49.0%	10.2%	6.1%	2.0%
PhE	26.5%	14.3%	24.5%	18.4%	8.2%	8.2%
BrE	8.2%	6.1%	2.0%	8.2%	59.2%	16.3%
AmE	2.0%	0%	6.1%	0%	2.0%	89.8%

Percentages for correct identification of the American speaker were high (89.8%). The BrE speaker was correctly identified 59.2% of the time. The Korean speaker was identified by just 49% of the respondents. Percentages of correct identification of the other varieties were very low: ChE = 18.4%, PhE = 18.4%, and InE = 16.3%. Overall, participants were most successful in their identification of the inner circle varieties. They had much less success in correctly identifying speakers of other varieties, suggesting that they were largely unaware of them. Results confirm an awareness of inner circle varieties, which may contribute to overall ratings of those varieties on the verbal guise test.

Participant Choices for English Education and Use

In Part C, participants were asked to rank varieties of English that they wished to learn and use. They were instructed to select three of a possible fourteen options and rank them in order of preference, with 1 being the first preference and 3 the last. Results are shown in Figure 1.

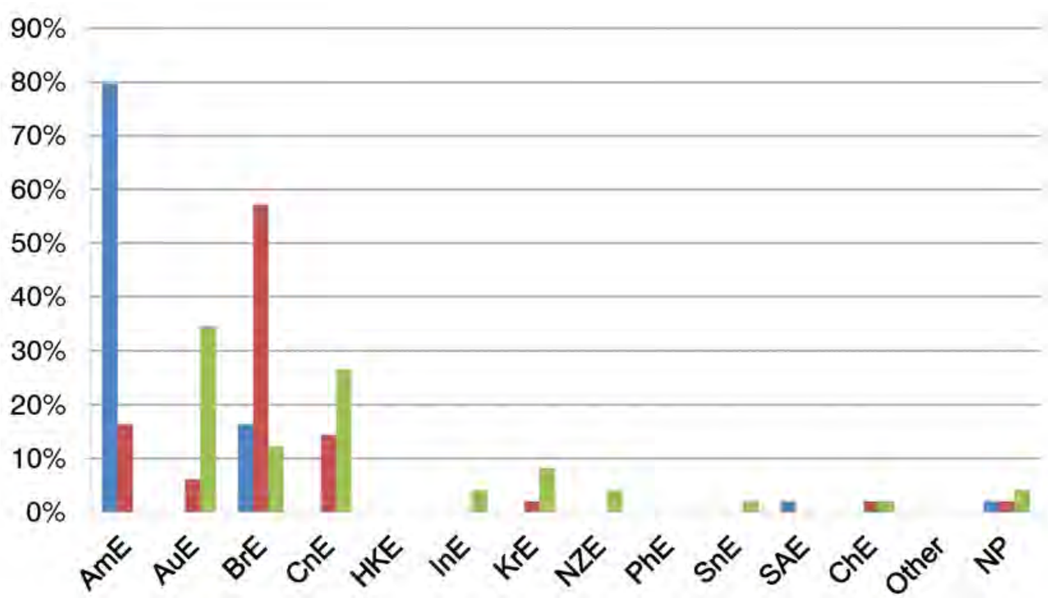

FIGURE 1. Participant choices for English education and use.

Results indicate an overwhelming first preference for American English (79.6%), followed by British English (16.3%). There was one respondent (2%) each for both KrE and No Preference (NP). Second preference results are dominated by British English (57.1%), followed by AmE (16.3%), CnE (14.3%), and AuE (6.1%), respectively. Korean English, CrE, and NP rounded out the results with 1 selection (2%) each. The results for the third preference showed much more variation. Australian (34.7%), Canadian (26.5%), and British (12.2%) varieties made up the majority, with fewer selections for KrE (8.2%), InE (4.1%), NZE (4.1%). There was a small percentage of selections of SnE and ChE (2%). Two respondents (4.1%) had no preference, while 1 respondent (2%) chose North Korea. Findings indicated a preference for "native" varieties of English and corresponded with the results of the verbal guise test.

Participant Country preferences for learning English

Participants were also asked where they would prefer to learn English. Results indicate an overwhelming preference for studying in America (69.4%), followed by Britain (16.3%). There were 4 respondents who selected Australia (8.2%) and one respondent (2%) each for Korea, South Africa, and No Preference. Second preference results were dominated by Britain (40.8%), followed by Canada (20.4%), America (18.4%), Australia (8.2%), and New Zealand (6.1%), respectively. Studying in Korea, China, and No Preference rounded out the results with 1 each. The results for the third country of choice were much more varied. Canada (30.6%), Australia (26.5%), and Britain (16.3%) made up the majority. Here, 12.2% of respondents were interested in studying English in Korea and two in the Philippines (4.1%).

Korean National Connections

In Part C of the research instrument, participants were also asked to select the country that they thought Korea was most connected to. They were instructed to select one country out of a possible eight. There was also an "other country" category, where participants could nominate a country of their choosing.

Again, results indicated an overwhelming preference for America. Of all countries listed, respondents thought that Korea was most connected to America (79.6%). Results were not surprising, given the history of the Korean War, and the continuing presence of the American military in Korea. Of the five respondents who selected Other (10.2%), four stated that Korea is most connected to North Korea. Three respondents said that Korea is most connected to China (6.1%), with the remaining 2 respondents choosing the Philippines (4.1%).

Do Korean university students prefer particular varieties of English?

This study aimed to investigate Korean university students' attitudes towards varieties of English in a World Englishes construct. The verbal guise test and qualitative questionnaire were designed to indirectly and directly elicit participant attitudes. Results indicate that Korean university students do have preferences for particular varieties of English. Mean ratings on the nine traits on the semantic differential scale indicate a strong preference for American and British varieties. Participants rated both of these inner circle varieties as being better models of English than outer and expanding circle varieties. Overall mean comparisons for the verbal guise test confirm the trend. Results of the one-way repeated measures ANOVA indicated that there were statistically significant differences in participants' ratings for each variety of English. The post hoc pairwise comparisons indicate that ratings for AmE were significantly different to all other varieties ($p < .001$). Results also show significant differences between BrE, KrE, and PhE, as well as PhE ChE and InE. KrE rated second-lowest, and was also significantly lower than ChE. A strong preference for inner circle varieties is apparent and is further confirmed by the results of the paired samples t-test. All results are further supported by the qualitative questionnaire, where participants rated inner circle varieties, in particular AmE, as their first preference for language study. America also topped the rankings for choice of country to study in, and connectedness to Korea. These results largely confirm those of previous studies, which also found preferences for AmE and BrE (Gibb, 1997, 1999; Shim, 2002; Jung, 2005; Yook, 2005). They do not support Shim's (2002) assertion of a growing acceptance of World Englishes, nor Kim's (2007) findings of a lack of preference between native and non-native varieties of English.

Are Korean university students aware of, and able to identify, varieties of English?

Participants were asked to select where each speaker was from during the verbal guise test. Overall results indicate that Korean university students had some success in identifying AmE and BrE. Almost half were able to identify their own variety. This has important implications for the results of the verbal guise test, as it is clear that the most identifiable native varieties were most preferred, whilst the most identified non-native variety (KrE) was one of the least preferred. Participants failed to correctly identify other varieties at anything close to those levels, indicating that they were not aware of them.

CONCLUSION

Korean English education has long been dominated by American and, to a lesser extent, British English (Choi, 2006). Recent research has concluded that there is a shift away from these norms, as Koreans become more accepting of other varieties of English. Kim (2007) argues that native speaker norms are considered to be good models for learning, but that Koreans now regard English as an international language. Shim (2002) notes that there are an increasing number of outer circle varieties of English being taught in Korea by Indian and Filipino nationals, and that this indicates changing attitudes towards different varieties. Increasingly, Koreans are also traveling to learn English (Shim, 2002). Kim (2007) concluded that there were positive implications for EIL in Korea, and a desire by Koreans to learn it. Those conclusions cannot be supported by this study. Participants in this study were more aligned with Shim's (2002) original survey sample, in that they appear to have rejected outer and expanding circle varieties in favor of inner circle varieties. It would appear, at least for the participants in this study, that American English is still regarded as much more than just a model, it is the most preferred and most relevant variety of English in Korea. There are obvious implications for language educators and learners in Korea, and how these issues are addressed on a policy level and in the classroom could have significant consequences for all concerned.

There are, of course, limitations to this study. The sample was fairly small and drawn from a homogenous group of students, which limits the degree to which results can be used to generalize about the attitudes of Korean university students, or the public at large, to varieties of English. Further research with more robust samples is necessary. Empirical investigation into other variables, including age and time (and place) abroad that may affect attitudes, is also warranted.

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Speaking Skills

Refraining from Becoming the Next Speaker: A Case Study of Three-Party Second Language Interaction

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When language learners do not want to become a next speaker – even if directly addressed by an interlocutor – how do they avoid taking a turn? Continuing on from the authors' prior studies of turn-taking strategies in small-group talk, this study focuses specifically on two methods that second language learners employed to avoid taking the floor. The overarching objective of the authors' research is to explore learners' interactional competence by analyzing their interactional behaviors. We adopt conversation analysis as our analytical framework and show how language learners are interactionally competent, participating in conversations in sophisticated ways. In addition, this study briefly outlines the pedagogical importance of free-access conversation environments.

INTRODUCTION

Goodwin and Heritage (1990, p. 283) affirm that social interaction is the most basic and primal means through which the business of the social world is transacted. It is through social interaction that the identities of participants are affirmed or denied, and the cultures of the social world are transmitted or made anew. In other words, the development of knowledge and ability occurs through real life interaction and activity within a community (Lantolf, 2000). Thus, from this sociocultural standpoint, more and more tertiary-level learning institutions dedicate free-access centers to conversation, places where language learners are provided not only with opportunities for self-directed (typically private) scholarship, but with opportunities for "conversation-for-learning" (Kasper, 2004) through life-like interaction.

This study serves to continue with and extend the authors' investigations of English learners' small-group interactions. Through conversation analytic (CA) techniques, this study focuses on interactions within a conversation room in an English as a foreign language (EFL) institution in Japan. Among the many possible phenomena to explore, up to this point, the authors have been examining learners' next-speaker self-selection practices. The reason for this is that, among the sets of turn-allocation practices, self-selection is probably the most challenging for second language learners. Without knowing how to self-select as the next speaker, learners cannot break into a conversation.

The authors have already discussed two self-selection practices: "turn-entry devices" and "display of listening" (Otsu & Krug, 2010). In addition, the authors have reported on the learners' use of "progressional overlap," "restarts," and "intra-turn pauses" (Krug & Otsu, 2011). The study reported here is a preliminary attempt to examine turn avoidance techniques that the learners engage in, as part of their overall turn-taking practices. Based on analyses of short video excerpts of small-group conversations conducted between intermediate-level EFL learners, this study forms part of a broader investigation into the interactional competence of language learners.

THE CONVERSATION ROOM

The conversation room at the center of this investigation exists within a tertiary-level institution in Japan. On the whole, it serves the dual purposes of (a) providing a self-access space for students to study and borrow resources (including resource books, study guides, graded readers, newspapers, novels, and DVDs) and (b) making available a permanent place for interested students to meet and practice their second-language (English) conversation skills in small groups. During operation, one member of the university's teaching staff is present in a teacher-as-facilitator role. All in all, the conversation room provides a relaxed, semi-casual study and conversation environment (Krug et al., 2011).

What exactly should be learned is not specified, but the general pedagogical idea behind such environments is that, through target-language exposure and practice, the participating students will improve their second-language fluency. Conversation rooms provide much-needed opportunities for second-language learners to experience more conversation-like talk with peers in EFL settings. Institutional talk, such as occurs in classroom-based learning situations, and ordinary conversation offer different opportunities for language learning (Markee, 2000). Conversation rooms typically have no fixed participant roles, unlike conventional classroom environments, so learners are required to organize and structure entire interactions on their own. Thus, within such settings, learners can develop and display their interactional competence as equal participants in ordinary conversations.

THE DATA

For this study, two small-group interactions were video-recorded in the conversation room. Students are free to talk about anything they like in this room, with no pre-set topic(s). The material for this paper was extracted from one of those interactions, which comprises three intermediate-level English learners, as follows: LA (male Japanese student), LB (male Chinese student), and LC (female Japanese student). The above participants met weekly in the conversation room with assorted and varying other members. Hence, the three interactants could be described as acquaintances rather than close friends.

HOW DO LEARNERS SELF-SELECT TO BECOME THE NEXT SPEAKER?

Before we present the analysis of the data, the important concepts of turn-taking and next-speaker self-selection will be explained briefly. Turn-taking is a basic form of organization for conversation, and it organizes the distribution of opportunities among parties to interaction (Sacks et al., 1974). In order to participate in a conversation, we have to know how turn allocation is managed in conversation: how to bring others into a conversation, how to take a turn at the right moment, and how to keep a conversation going. According to Sacks et al. (1974, p. 703), turn allocation practices are classified into two groups: (a) those in which the next turn is allocated by the current speaker's selection of a next speaker; and (b) those in which a next turn is allocated by self-selection.

The basic principle for self-selecting to become the next speaker is, as Sacks et al. describe, to start as early as possible, at the earliest transition-relevance place (1974, p. 719). Turn is the vehicle for the other practices like sequencing and structuring whole conversations (Wong & Waring, 2010, pp. 7-9). Hence, the ability to self-select and obtain conversational turns by employing various verbal and/or nonverbal resources is an essential component of interactional competence. Without turn-taking techniques in their target language, learners cannot properly start nor remain involved in real-life conversations on their own hence, opportunities for learning may well be reduced.

Before we discuss practices that were engaged in to avoid becoming the next speaker, this paper will briefly review two methods that the second language learners in our study used to take a turn at talk as early as possible, at the first available transition-relevance place. As evidenced in the data, assorted techniques and strategies were deployed by the participants to start as early as possible, at the earliest transition-relevance place, to thus become the next speaker. In addition to (a) "turn-entry devices" and (b) "display of listening," as was discussed in Otsu and Krug (2010), the authors also found that the learners were employing (c) "progressional overlaps," (d) "restarts," and (e) "intra-turn pauses" (Krug & Otsu, 2011). Some of these techniques and strategies have been found in native speaker conversations, while others might be limited to the second language learners in our data (i.e., being situated resources used in the management of the learners' interactions, to compensate for linguistic difficulties). Using supplementary excerpts, two of the practices are outlined below. For the reader new to CA transcripts, an explanation of the transcription conventions employed in this study is provided in the Appendix.

Restarts

By examining several phenomena which may appear to be "false starts" in novice second language interaction, Carroll (2004) demonstrated that what may initially appear to be "disfluencies" in the talk of novice learners are actually skilled interactional achievement. Restart of a turn construction unit (TCU) beginning is utilized to solicit the gaze of a non-gazing recipient (Carroll, 2004, pp. 212-217).

The learners in our data were also employing restart as an attention-getting device. Please refer to Extract 1.

[Extract 1] Restart

01 LB: do you want to marry foreigners?
02 LA: yeah, if I can.
03 LB: hh [hhh hh
04 LA: [yeah of course.
05 LB: $ok, ok [great$
06 → LA: [SO so, to [marry,(.)
07 LB: [( )
08 LA: I need more (0.2) more (0.2) ((continues))

In the talk prior to Extract 1, the participants had been discussing future plans. At line 01, LA is queried about his future plan to (possibly) marry a foreigner. The talk from this point is closely knit, with a high incidence of overlapping speech. At line 06, LA self-selects to take a turn, with use of the turn-entry device 'SO'. The utterance happens while LB is giving his assessment ("great") in line 05, and as a result, an overlap occurs. The "SO" turn-entry device was initially uttered a little louder than the neighboring talk, and was immediately repeated (i.e., the turn was restarted) so as to survive the overlapping and solicit the gaze of co-participants, thereby (better) ensuring the successful taking of the turn. This was achieved, allowing LA to go on and explain his position in more detail in the subsequent talk.

Intra-turn Pauses

Pauses had been thought of as errors in research on fluency in the past (Carroll, 2004, p. 218). However, at times, they are a secondary product of starting to speak as early as possible for next-speaker self-selection. A representative example noted in our data is shown in Extract 2.

[Extract 2] An intra-turn pause

01 LB: it is very useful for the- (.) my futures.
02 ((LB smiles at LA and nods.))
03 LC: hmm. ((nodding))
04 LA: mmm
05 LC: is it (0.4) if you study abroad,
↑ ((LB looked at LC))
06 LB: yes
07 → LC is it (0.4) makes you easier to get a job?

In Extract 2, at line 05, LC starts speaking even though she has not planned the whole sentence yet, a technique deployed to become the next speaker. As a result, there is a 0.4-second pause after she says "is it" having obtained the turn, LC's pause here provides time for her to continue to formulate her utterance and hold the turn. Interestingly, the pause here serves the dual function of attracting LB's gaze (and hence attention); LB having been momentarily gazing at LA at that time. Thus, LC successfully solicited her interlocutor's gaze through pausing, and she restarted her question immediately after it.

HOW DO LEARNERS AVOID BECOMING THE NEXT SPEAKER?

When learners do not wish to become the next speaker, how do they avoid the floor? In this section, learners' practices for avoiding becoming the next speaker will be discussed. As Liddicoat (2007, pp. 1-2) reminds us in his opening chapter, much that is important in conversation is carried out by things *other than* language. As a case in point, we examined LC's deft use of intra-turn pauses in Extract 2, that is, the use of silence as an attention-getting technique and, hence, a tool for turn taking. In the section that follows, we will briefly examine the learners' use of gaze and body posture to regulate turns at talk. Our focus here falls specifically upon the means employed by the learners in our study tominimize, or even evade completely, the provision of a turn at talk.

The following example, Extract 3, shows how LC evades her interlocutor's gaze so that she is not selected as the next speaker.

[Extract 3] Averting one's gaze

01		LA:	how long does (.) it take (.) in toefl test =
02			does toefl test.
03	→	LB:	°I think° (0.8) ((LC is looking at LB))
04	→		three hours ((LB looks to LC for confirmation; LC momentarily averts her gaze from LB))
05			[or
06		LC:	[really.
07		LB:	four [hours
08		LA:	[three hours or \$four hours\$. [really.
09		LB:	[yes
10			I think so.

Extract 3 concerns the topic of the duration of the TOEFL test. At line 01, LA wonders how long the TOEFL test takes to complete, directing his question to LB. However, it appears that LB is not completely sure of the exact duration. LB takes time to consider the matter while providing his response, as evidenced by the 0.8-second pause following LB's utterance of "I think" at line 03. At line 04, LB appears to estimate the test duration by saying "three hours," while at the same time, looking to LC for confirmation or assurance. However, LC also appears to be unsure of the exact duration of the TOEFL test, and instead of providing her own estimate or supporting LB's estimate, she momentarily averts her gaze away from LC. Consequently, LB is left to continueon to try to provide a more complete response (which he does successfully over lines 05 and 07). LC returns to the interaction with a news receipt ("really") at line 06, which expresses receipt of new information without encouraging LB's elaboration, rather than confirming or agreeing with LB. Thus, LC's cursory, yet skillful, diversion of gaze at line 04 removed any obligation for her to be responsible for providing any response at all at the specific point sought by her interlocutor.

The next example, Extract 4, shows how LB avoids self-selecting to become the next speaker, by utilizing the resources available to him in the environment.

[Extract 4] Covering the mouth

01	LB:	be-because I- I don't know where I °work°
02	LC:	yeah.
03	LB:	$I work$.
04	LC:	you could be in America or some(where).
05	LA:	hmmmmm?
06 →	LB:	((Moves cup to cover mouth))
07	LC:	((Glancing between LA and LB))
08	LA:	yeah. but my (.)father and mother said, told me
09		about money prob- problem. ((Continuing))

In the interaction moments prior to Extract 4, LB is attempting to explain his uncertainty about his future work location. Over lines 01 and 03, LB is having difficulty formulating his utterance, as evidenced by disfluencies, repetitions, and even by nervous laughing at line 03. Despite the conversational space being provided for him to continue, following LC's and LA's utterances at lines 04 and 05 respectively, LB instead begins to drink from his coffee mug at line 06. Doing so, in effect, physically removes LB from the group. In other words, LB ceases to be regarded as a potential next speaker at this point in the interaction, leaving the floor wide open for one of the other interlocutors to take a turn at talk. Thus, at this particular moment of difficulty or uncertaintyfor LB, he successfully removed himself from any obligation to provide any further response at this point in the interaction.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

In foreign language settings, it can be extremely difficult for learners to have chances to experience conversations in the target (foreign) language. In such situations, the target language can often be difficult to access, or it may simply be unavailable in the environment outside of the foreign language classroom. In the language classroom itself, teachers can implement meaning-centered activities such as discussions, providing students with chances to use the target language, but even in such activities, there exists intervention and influence from teachers. Conversely, in free-access language interaction environments such as the model at the core of this investigation, the learners are required to organize and structure interactions on their own, *without* intervention from teachers. The learners themselves can take control over (a) participating in, (b) leaving and re-entering, or (c) exiting from conversations. This is the pedagogical value of conversation rooms; they can offer the opportunity to experience second language interactions that are similar to ordinary conversation, encompassing all of the skills of turn taking outlined in this brief study, and more.

Obviously, it is ideal for learners if they have both traditional classrooms *and* conversation rooms as sites for learning. Classroom interaction can be the sitewhere teachers organize the interaction carefully so that learners can learn the target language efficiently, while conversation room interaction offers learners the opportunity of experiencing the management of talk-in-interaction on their own.

CONCLUSION

Through the analysis of learners' turn-taking practices during conversation-room talk, this study revealed that learners utilized resources such as gaze-averting and the covering of the mouth to effectively avoid being selected as the next speaker. As a part of a wider study into the interactional competence of language learners, the authors have identified that second language learners do, in fact, achieve highly skilled interactions. Even despite instances of miscommunication or with, at times, seemingly limited linguistic resources, learners exhibit proficient use of an array of turn-taking techniques, becoming active participants in conversations through securing, re-distributing, and even evading turns at talk. In doing so, the language learners in this study clearly display their interactional competence as equal participants in talk in conversation rooms.

It is often difficult for learners to experience ordinary conversation in the target language on a regular basis. Therefore, if additional educational institutions recognize the value of conversation-for-learning, and facilitate it through conversation rooms, free-access spaces, and so on, this will be extremely beneficial for learners. If such kinds of conversations are combined with classroom-based language learning, they will greatly facilitate language development.

In the future, the authors will continue their investigation of what kinds of practices occur in conversation rooms, so that institutions can make the best use of such learning environments. In addition, each of the practices mentioned in this study needs to be further scrutinized through examining additional data sourced from a larger corpus of multi-party second language interaction.

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APPENDIX

Transcription Conventions

[	Point of overlap onset
]	Point of overlap termination
=	Latched utterances
(0.8)	Interval between utterances (in seconds)
(.)	Very short untimed pause (0.2 seconds or less; a micropause)
e:r the:::	Lengthening of the preceding sound
-	Abrupt cutoff
?	Rising intonation, not necessarily a question
!	Animated or emphatic tone
,	Low-rising intonation, suggesting continuation
.	Falling (final) intonation
CAPITALS	Increased volume relative to surrounding talk
that one	Underlining of (part of) an utterance is used to indicate some form of stress or emphasis, either by increased loudness or higher pitch
° °	Utterances between degree signs are noticeably quieter than surrounding talk
	Marked shifts into higher or lower pitch in the utterance following the arrow
< >	Talk enclosed within angle brackets is produced more slowly or more drawn out than neighboring talk
> <	Talk surrounded by reversed angle brackets is produced more quickly than neighboring talk
.hhh	Inhalation (in-breath)
hhh	Aspiration (out-breath) or laughter
$great$	Smiley voice
( )	A stretch of unclear, inaudible or unintelligible speech
	Marks features of special interest
((nodding))	Non-speech activity or transcriptionist's comment(s)
((here))	An up arrow, along with transcriptionist's comments (enclosed in double brackets), indicates the precise point in the transcript where a noteworthy event occurs and/or is described
LB:	Identified learner (participant or interactant)

Teacher Development

Utilizing ICT Videoconferencing for Pre-service English Teacher Training and Cultural Learning

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As Information Communication Technology (ICT) has evolved, it has become essential for our lives and for various disciplines. ICT videoconferencing has shed light onto foreign language teaching and teacher education. This case study explores the effect of videoconferencing in English education and teacher training, and how it can be implemented to strengthen language proficiency, cultural knowledge, and teaching techniques. The findings indicate that the participants considered this interactive experience extremely rewarding and motivating, owing to the authentic environment: the opportunity to present in front of a live overseas audience and obtain valuable feedback. They view this synchronous interaction as beneficial for improving their language, communication skills, teaching and presentation techniques, content materials, and cultural awareness. Consequently, the implementation of this innovative approach in English language and teacher training programs may have the potential to facilitate unique learning opportunities, and heighten academic and professional growth, which may lead to producing competent individuals for this global era.

INTRODUCTION

The advancement of ICT has opened up various arenas for language learning and teaching. Videoconferencing, in particular, offers opportunities for authentic interaction with people from various cultures that can be incorporated into the classroom environment (Wu & Marek, 2010). A number of studies have explored the benefits and challenges of integrating this technology into foreign language and teacher education programs (Can, 2009; Cziko, 2004; Frey, 2008; Helm, 2005; Hixton & So, 2009; Holstrom & Weller, 2007; Lafford & Lafford, 2005; Lin, 2007; O'Dowd, 2000; Passmore, van Barneveld, & Laing (2005); Wu & Lee, 2004; Wu & Marek, 2010). For instance, O'Dowd (2000) attempted to adopt videoconference-enhanced learning models for effective intercultural exchanges in foreign language classrooms to build global cultural awareness and improve linguistic ability. Lafford and Lafford (2005) showed the importance of students acquiring language in meaningful contexts and actually experiencing the process of negotiation of meaning through crosscultural exchanges utilizing videoconferences. Passmore et al. (2005) employed the device to provide authentic, multiple, and virtual teacher training lessons, so that student teachers acquire effective pedagogical and content knowledge.

With this technology progressively expanding, language and teacher education continue to persevere with exploring the feasibility of virtual environments to facilitate authentic learning experiences. In the context of the wider research mentioned above, the present pilot study endeavors to expand and enrich English language learning and teaching, to enhance pre-service teachers' professional knowledge and growth through authentic videoconferencing and collaborative material development project work.

RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Passmore et al. (2005) indicate that "authenticity is ideal to accommodate in the practicum experience" (p. 81). Through their research they found that a virtual practicum experience, utilizing videoconferences, provides various training opportunities for pre-service teachers and assists with the application of learning theories into practice.

Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, and Zvacek (2003, p. 89) interpret Dale's (1946) cone of experience as "media permit the educator to bring sights and sounds of the real world into the learning environment" (p. 88), and further state that "this approach to learning would be very realistic, effective, and authentic" (p. 90). As illustrated in Figure 1 below, stage I is represented as direct, purposeful experience, which is multisensory and highly concrete. Videoconferencing can be categorized into this stage since it provides authenticity and reality.

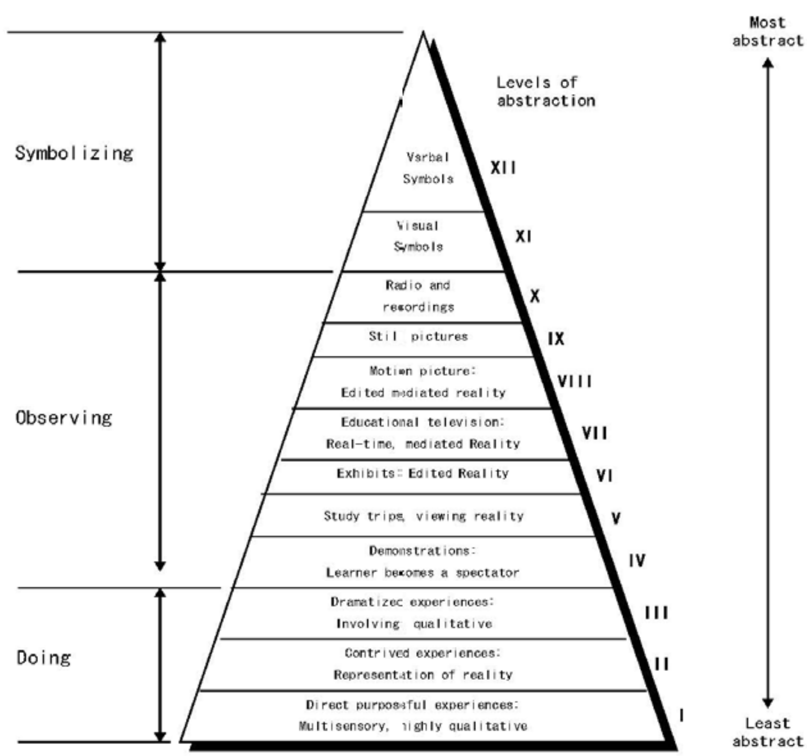

FIGURE 1. Dale's Cone of Experience. Adapted from Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, & Zvacek (2003, p. 89).

Another theory that needs to be highlighted is the constructivist notion that emphasizes the creation of knowledge through experience (Slavin, 2003). Learning in a "constructivists' setting is characterized by active engagement, problem solving, and collaboration with others" (Johnson et al., 2006, p. 60). Through discussion, clarification, and evaluation with peers, students collaboratively develop critical thinking skills and construct new knowledge (Pulkkinen & Ruotsalainen, 2001).

Specifically focusing on supplementing technology to language teaching, Butler-Pascoe and Wiburg (2003, pp. 15-19) compiled the following guidelines as "attributes of successful technology-enhanced language learning environment (TELLE)":

Attributes of a Successful Technology-Enhanced Language Learning Environment (TELLE)

1. Provide interaction, communicative activities, and real audiences.
2. Supply comprehensible input.
3. Support development of cognitive activities.
4. Utilize task-based and problem-solving activities.
5. Conduct student-centered class to promote autonomy.
6. Provide technology to support language and academic development.
7. Facilitate the development of English language skills.
8. Use multiple modalities to support various learning styles and strategies.
9. Support collaborative learning.
10. Meet the affective needs of students.
11. Foster understanding and appreciation of the target and native language.
12. Provide appropriate/encouraging feedback and assessment.

In Yogi (2009), the author described the primary implementation of the videoconference, connecting elementary classrooms in Okinawa and Hawaii. The pupils' reflections from both sides indicate that the collaboration was a success. Students were fascinated by sharing information at the same moment in a different time zone being exposed to a cross-cultural exchange and learning about their counterparts' language, culture, customs, schools, and living environments and they enjoyed expressing themselves, and finding similarities and differences in their respective contexts. The collaboration became a memorable event that made a great impact on the students.

In addition, evidence of the following perspectives of the goals of international understanding advocated by the Japanese Central Council for Education (1997) were observable in the students' reflection and growth.

The Goals of International Understanding

1. Open-mindedness and understanding regarding other cultures, as well as the development of an attitude that is respectful of these cultures and qualities, and the development of the abilities necessary for living together with people from different cultures.
2. Establishment of a strong sense of self and sense of being Japanese to better appreciate the concept of international understanding.
3. Development of basic foreign language skills: the ability of self-expression

> and other communication skills for the purpose of expressing one's own thoughts and intentions, while respecting the positions of others in an international society.
> (Translated and adapted from the Report of the 15th Japanese Central Council for Education, July 19, 1996.)

Blending the various theories discussed above, and on the basis of the first experience with videoconferencing (Yogi, 2009), the present study explores a videoconference-enhanced micro-teaching project that offers pre-service teachers opportunities to develop and present their original teaching materials in a realistic context, to interact and gain feedback from their counterpart participants, and to stimulate their pedagogical skills and cultural knowledge, improve their language and teaching ability, and an opportunity for professional growth.

THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to implement videoconferencing in a teacher training course, to provide student teachers with an authentic environment, and to deepen professional pedagogical understandings. Specifically, it aimed to cultivate language and communication skills, improve teaching and presentation techniques, collaboratively create teaching materials, and focus cultural awareness.

The author explored ways to elaborate on micro-teaching in methodology classes, to provide an authentic learning environment, and to test the effects and outcomes of videoconference-enhanced collaborations. Based on the constructivist viewpoint, the TELLE model, the cone of experience, and the primary empirical study referred to above, the author organized a pilot program in a teaching methodology class, with the aim of producing an effective and motivating event to provide a genuine context for student teachers to introduce teaching materials related to their regional culture.

METHODS

Procedure

Table 1 shows information on schools, classes, schedule, and devices of the videoconference for the pre-service student teachers. A total of twelve collaborations were realized with four institutions. The synchronous interactive teleconference, using audio and video communication via desk-top computer and freeware (Skype), and a video conference system (Sony) made interactive communication possible in different physical locations, echoing Johnson et al. (2006, p. 59): "with audio and visual clarity, it allows the creation of partnerships between distant locations while maintaining various facets of face-to-face communication crucial for quality educational experiences."

TABLE 1. Secondary Engagement-Videoconference Project in Pre-service Teacher Training Class

	Videoconference collaboration
Schools	*Univ. of the Ryukyus (English majors) *Univ. of Hawaii (Telecommunications faculty and staff) *Wien & Budapest Japanese Schools (Junior High School) *Budapest Public High School (Japanese Class Students)
Classes / Subjects	*Junior High School English *International Understanding *University English Language Teaching Methodology *Hungary Senior High School Japanese Language Course
Schedule	Dec. 8, 15, 22, Jan. 12,19, 26, Feb. 2, 9 (12 sessions)
Time	*Wien & Budapest: 10:00-10:50 am, *Hawaii: 3:30-4:30 pm *Okinawa: Morning Session: 10:30-11:30 am *Okinawa: Night Session: 6:00-6:50 pm
Technology / Device	*Desk-top computer, Logitec desktop web camera, Freeware (Skype), Screen, Digital video camera, Sony video conference system (SONY PCS-11)

The instructor provided specific tasks and clear instructions on how to prepare content for the collaboration. Students gathered information on topics including life styles, culture, language, school life, nature, festivals, arts and crafts, music, food, animals, tourist attractions, traditions, dance, and stories. Then, in pairs, students created and prepared manuscripts of introduction to school and culture, a cultural quiz, a self-introduction show-and-tell, cultural reading materials, activity worksheets related to Okinawa, PowerPoint presentations slides, and Q-and-A quizzes. The due date for the student product was usually a week before the videoconference collaboration. That gave time for the instructor to check the materials for organization, content, expression, and grammar. The created materials and PowerPoint slides were sent to the counterpart a couple of days before the videoconference to allow time for preparation. After each teleconference session, students were asked to write in reflective journals their impressions and what they learned through the various interactions. The instructor exchanged emails with counterpart teachers to gain comments for improving the program. All the sessions were recorded for reflective learning. At the end of the semester, questionnaires were administered to obtain student feedback. The detailed information of the student project work's tasks and procedures is listed below:

TABLE 2. Contents of Videoconference-Enhanced Micro-teaching Project Work

Content	Introduction to school, cultural quiz, self-introduction show & tell, cultural reading material, activity worksheet, PowerPoint presentation, Q&A: topics on life styles, culture, language, school life, etc.
Tasks	University students created reading materials and questions on topics related to Okinawa, PowerPoint presentation slides, reflective journal, thank-you letters, university introduction slides.
Topics / Categories	Nature, festivals, arts & crafts, music, food, animals, tourist attractions, culture & tradition, dance, stories, etc.

Material Development Project Work Procedures

1. Brainstorm possible topics related to the regional culture.
2. Gather information on the content and collect supplementary materials.
3. Discuss and negotiate with partners to collaborate ideas of content materials.
4. Create teaching materials and questions related to the content of the manuscript (reading passages or dialogues), create original PowerPoint slides.
5. Organize the presentation procedure and content, practice and rehearse the English expressions, infer possible questions from the counterpart audience.
6. Experience the actual live presentation of the teleconference (an extension of microteaching).
7. Presentations are evaluated by the members of the whole class (peer evaluation).
8. Hand in reflective journals (comments, improvements, and future applications).
9. Write thank you letters to email at the end of the semester.

Note. A sample of student-developed material (reading script) and PowerPoint slides are introduced in Appendix B.

PARTICIPANTS

The following were the participants involved in this pilot study: 29 University of the Ryukyus junior and senior English majors who were enrolled in the undergraduate English teaching methodology course (2010-11 Fall academic year), 10 University of Hawaii Telecommunications faculty, staff, and students 6 junior high school students and 2 English teachers in the Austria Wien Japanese School, 7 junior high school students and 1 English teacher in the Hungary Budapest Japanese School, 15 high school students and 1 Japanese language teacher in Budapest Public High School. Due to limited space, for the present article, the University of Ryukyus student data will be the main focus of discussion. Data from the counterpart participants may be referred to in future studies.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A questionnaire was developed by the author to obtain the overall evaluation of the videoconference, pre-service teachers' self-assessment of their presentations and teaching materials, and how the videoconference influenced their learning, knowledge, and perspectives. Specifically, it was designed to obtain insight into: videoconference evaluation, global and cultural awareness, process and outcome of the collaborative material development project work, effects of interaction with the counterpart (e.g., positive mentoring), issues on language and teaching skills, change in attitude and notion (e.g., raising a sense of consciousness, motivation, commitment, etc.), and a career model and paths.

The questionnaire consisted of 30 questions and the items were formatted in a four-point response scale (1 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree). Complete results of the university students' reflection are listed in Appendix A. The percentage under each question shows the sum of the students who responded with *agree* or *strongly agree* to each item.

Table 3 gives an outline of the positive effects found in the present study, including the elements of A to G with examples from the questionnaire results.

TABLE 3. Effects of Videoconference-Enhanced Micro-teaching and Project Work

A) Promote autonomy, reflection, interpretation, and application through implementing student-centered collaborative project work:
Q28) The collaborative pair work was challenging and stimulating that built reflective skills and autonomy. 90%
B) Foster awareness and appreciation of language, culture, and global issues and broaden perspectives:
Q3) I strongly realized the importance of introducing one's own culture as well as absorbing others.100%
Q5) The teleconference exchange broadened my perspective globally. 97%
C) Provide an authentic context with real audiences that raise consciousness and gain professional content knowledge, and enhance understanding and growth:
Q9) It was a wonderful opportunity to develop my knowledge and teaching skills through this practical and authentic experience. 93%
D) Cultivate language, communication, presentation, and teaching skills:
Q17) I think the multiple interactions with the counterpart enhanced my pedagogical knowledge and skills. 100%
E) Obtain appropriate and encouraging feedback, positive mentoring from the counterpart participants:
Q14) Having direct feedback from the audience, stimulated my mind and raised consciousness to look at my material in multiple angles. 90%
F) Transformation of attitude and notions motivation, confidence, stimulation, satisfaction, accomplishment, responsibility, commitment:
Q20) A sense of mission and responsibility toward a future teaching career was reinforced through this event. 96%
G) Expand models, goals, ideas of future teaching profession:
Q8) It gave me a chance to look into my potential talent for a teaching career. 96%

The students' remarks shown below are some extracts gathered from reflective journals and are representative of the positive reflections that the participants has about the videoconferencing project.

Students' Written Reflection on the Videoconference

- It was so exciting to interact with a live enthusiastic audience. I am glad that my presentation went well and the students seemed interested in my topic. I am thankful for their thoughtful comments and questions.
- It was inspiring to see the junior high school students exposed in another culture and can communicate in English much better than us. I was embarrassed by my poor vocabulary and expressions. I must brush up my English skills to become a better speaker and a teacher. Also, I really appreciate the English teacher's valuable advice on our teaching materials. *(sic)*

- The counterpart was very considerate and warm. It felt like we were communicating next to each other. It's really fascinating to think that we actually shared the same time and space together. A strong determination arouse for wanting to learn English to become a better communicator for my future profession as a teacher. *(sic)*
- I was astonished and fascinated by the technology and was thrilled to have the spontaneous exchange. It felt like a dream to be able to speak to people in far away locations and share the same moment with them. It was such a motivating experience for me. I would like to try this kind of teleconference when I become a teacher in the future to contribute to global education.
- The cultural exchange was very beneficial. I enjoyed preparing for my presentation since the audience was live and eager to learn from us. I appreciate their valuable comments and questions. I must work hard to improve my English language skills so that I can communicate better next time.
- It was very educational to do research about our own culture and create a teaching material in English. It was a wonderful opportunity to send our important cultural message to the counterpart. My motivation to learn and become a teacher strengthened. *(sic)*

TABLE 4. Excerpt of Partial Questionnaire Results of the Videoconference Counterpart

Counterpart: Wien (n = 6), Budapest (n = 6), and Hawaii (n = 10). Total N = 22 (percentage of *agree* and *strongly agree*).
1) Did you enjoy participating in the interactive videoconference with Univ. of Ryukyus students? Agree (18%, n = 4) Strongly agree (82%, n = 18).
2) Did you become interested in Okinawan culture after hearing the university students' presentation? Agree (32%, n = 7) Strongly Agree (68%, n = 15).

As is evident from Table 4, the results of the questionnaire and comments of the university students and the counterpart participants reveal that the majority of the participants were satisfied with the content, task, and outcome of the videoconference collaboration. Through the positive reflection of a large proportion of the respondents, we can also infer that videoconferencing is an effective and motivating event that increases learning opportunities, and thus may be ideal to implement in language teacher education programs.

Traditional micro-teaching is beneficial as a preparation stage, to build foundations to connect theory and practice. However, in addition to the traditional approach, videoconferencing may serve as a means for bridging the various theories to practice and extending traditional micro-teaching practices. It familiarizes student teachers with teaching, deepens cultural knowledge of multiple cultures, aids them in obtaining mentoring support, insures guidance for reflective practice, helps student teachers develop creative presentations, builds communication skills, and helps student teachers improve teaching techniques. It could be considered one of the supplementary approaches that may stimulate students' learning and reinforce their professional knowledge and potential.

As student teachers proceed through the multiple phases of the present project, they made progress through layers of positive affect provided by the videoconferencing interaction and materials development experience, and accumulated knowledge and skills crucial for their future teaching career. The following describes the activities, processes, and outcomes of the videoconference-enhanced micro-teaching model:

- Authentic contexts and tasks
- Research and materials development (of home culture)
- Presentation (served as extended micro-teaching)
- Feedback and mentoring
- Reflection, interpretation, application
- Acquisition of professional knowledge
- Transformation of attitude and notions (awareness, motivation, commitment, etc.)
- Models and goals for a future teaching profession

Through the videoconference-enhanced micro-teaching opportunity, student teachers experienced various rewarding cycles and expanded their potential toward a teaching profession. In the words of Wallace (1991): “it provides a safe, progressive, and experimental opportunity before student teachers go into the real teaching environment” (p. 88). It also gives teachers a chance to “examine the student teachers’ ability, values, relations with students, and their successes and failures in a realistic context and aid the path toward becoming an expert teacher” (Lange, 1990, p. 248).

Furthermore, Beattie (2006) illustrates the teacher training procedure as: “(a) experience, (b) reflection, (c) interpretation, and (d) application” (p. 17). We could see evidence of student teachers going through this productive cycle throughout the whole project.

With appropriate implementation, videoconferencing can “facilitate knowledge transfer and foster the enactment of newly acquired knowledge” (Dal Bello, Knowlton & Chaffin 2007, p. 40). Through this experience, student teachers can build “the foundation of professional identity, goals, responsibilities, teaching styles, effectiveness, level of satisfaction, and career paths” (Kosnik & Beck, 2009, p. 130). Accordingly, as Kent (2007) emphasizes, “Interactive videoconferencing is a powerful tool that teacher education programs can utilize to help prepare new teachers to meet the many challenges inherent with educating students today” (p. 51).

From the findings of the present pilot study the advantages of videoconferences can be summarized as follows:

- Videoconferences provide presentation opportunities in an authentic environment.
- They give a specific purpose for the task; to develop effective and creative teaching materials.
- Students will be committed to the task and the project throughout the whole process and make progress in becoming capable, reliable, responsible individuals. They increase their enthusiasm toward teaching.
- Students can improve their communication and presentation skills, and test out their teaching materials through actual classroom simulation.

- Students consciousness of the teaching profession is raised and cultural and professional awareness is also raised.
- Students gain effective teaching skills and pedagogical knowledge.
- Students can obtain valuable feedback, encouragement, and advice from the enthusiastic live audience which may serve as a mentor.
- Interaction with the counterpart is beneficial for building effective communication skills, which will maximize their future teaching techniques.
- It can provide models or ideas for a future teaching career.
- It is a stimulating and motivating alternative to the traditional artificial micro-teaching environment.

CONCLUSION

An important objective of this study was to implement an authentic, interactive, and collaborative environment through videoconferencing and materials development project work, to improve the quality of the micro-teaching experience in the English teacher training program, and enhance student teachers' professional growth.

As shown in the students' reflections (Appendix A), the majority of the participants reacted extremely favorably and were satisfied with the activities and outcomes of the project. Owing to this precious experience, they seem to have made progress in building their language and cultural knowledge, communication, teaching, and presentation skills, which are all inevitable components for becoming a successful language teacher.

However, in conjunction with the positive outcomes of the project, the author faced various challenges and limitations through the organization of this pilot study. Below are some considerations that are suggested to be reviewed before planning such an event.

Considerations for Organizing Videoconference-Enhanced Collaborations

- Finding a counterpart (inquiries and approaches)
- Scheduling (time difference)
- Setting the theme (common aims and goals)
- Negotiation and discussion (compromising beneficial content for both or multiple ends)
- Preparation and organization (thoroughly checking student product, the outline of the collaboration)
- Frequency of collaboration (single, multiple, or continuous)
- Technical issues (quality of visuals and sounds)

On the basis of the findings of the present study, it is possible to conclude that videoconferencing in a teacher training course may be highly effective and applicable to facilitate unique learning opportunities and enhance professional growth, which may lead to producing competent language teachers. Since the present study was a venture project, further studies are necessary to gather additional data applicable to teacher training programs in general. The findings suggest that since "improved teacher quality is directly linked to student success, it is imperative that universities provide an immersion of optimal learning experiences for pre-service candidates" (Kent, 2007, p. 47). Moreover, the present study focused mainly on the results of the Japanese university students. Therefore, the reflections from the overseas institutions will be the focus of future discussion.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire Results of the Videoconference and Project

Pre-service Student Teachers' Reflection: (Percentage of agreed and strongly agreed) N = 29
(Translated from the original version)

1) Teleconference was a valuable experience that provided an authentic context. 100%
2) I felt the significance of English language in this global society. 100%
3) I strongly realized the importance of introducing one's own culture as well as absorbing others.100%
4) I became interested in the language and culture of the counterpart. 97%
5) The teleconference exchange broadened my perspective globally. 97%
6) My motivation heightened for learning English and other content knowledge essential for becoming an English teacher. 89%
7) My interests for a teaching profession arouse tremendously. 93%
8) It gave me a chance to look into my potential talent for a teaching career. 96%
9) It was a wonderful opportunity to develop my knowledge and teaching skills through this practical and authentic experience. 93%
10) I realized the necessity for thoroughly planning and creating teaching materials for effective teaching. 97%
11) I was able to utilize the English and the content knowledge that I learned to organize and conduct the presentation. 93%
12) I felt a sense of achievement having a chance to present my materials in front of a live native English speaking audience. 90%
13) I felt a sense of happiness, accomplishment, and commitment since I had a chance to present my original teaching material in front of the counterpart and was able to have direct responses. 90%
14) Having direct feedback from the audience, stimulated my mind and raised consciousness to look at my material in multiple angles. 90%
15) I was encouraged and motivated by the questions and comments from the counterpart. 100%
16) My motivation heightened during material preparation stage, just to imagine the native English speaking audience. 93%
17) I think the multiple interactions with the counterpart enhanced my pedagogical knowledge and skills. 100%
18) I felt a sense of joy though the various interaction and sending the cultural message across to the counterpart. 96%
19) Preparing for this event, organizing my presentation and performing, lead to improve my oral presentation skills and instructional knowledge. 97%
20) A sense of mission and responsibility toward a future teaching career was reinforced through this event. 96%
21) There were various discoveries during the preparation stage that broadened my professional knowledge. 86%
22) I can definitely utilize this experience in my future teaching career. 89%
23) The interaction with the native English speakers gave me a foundation for improving oral English expressions that can be applied to my future teaching career. 93%
24) I would like to organize and realize this type of teleconference in the future. 86%
25) The teleconference experience provided me to test my teaching materials and simulate effective teaching techniques. 93%
26) I felt the need to build my vocabulary and to develop the ability to respond spontaneously and skillfully in English. 96%
27) I was impressed by the advanced technology that made this authentic interactive learning experience possible. 100%
28) The collaborative pair work was challenging and stimulating that built reflective skills and autonomy. 90%
29) The process of collaborative project work was valuable to create original teaching materials with my partner and deepen my understandings. 93%
30) I am satisfied with the material we developed through collaborative project work that can be applied in future teaching situations. 89%

APPENDIX B

A sample of student-developed material (reading script) and power point slides

1) The First Birthday

Look at the picture. Do you know what they are doing? This is the very first birthday of the baby boy, and his family is having a traditional party for celebration called as "Tanka-su-ji-" or " Tanka-yu-e-" in Okinawan language.

As in other places around the world, in Okinawa, family members and relatives get together and hold a big celebration when their baby turns to be one-year-old. Although there are some differences in a way of celebration from one region to another, people traditionally report to their ancestors about this happy day with local dishes on the family altar and do an interesting event like fortune-telling.

In the event, various items are put in front of a baby. There is no rule about the items to be used, but it seems common to set an inkstone or a writing brush, a book or a notebook, an abacus, money, red bean rice, and sewing tools (only for girls). A baby is supposed to choose one or some of the items, each of which has different meanings. With the item picked up, family members could predict the baby's character, field of interest, or future career. For example, if a baby takes a writing brush in his or her hand, adults might be pleased to know that their baby would be intelligent or become a scholar in the future. If a baby selects money, it means that he will be rich. If red bean rice is chosen, the baby will be satisfied with food in his or her whole life.

Okinawan people enjoy Tanka-su-ji- in their own way, celebrating that their baby has reached his or her first birthday without any big troubles. Although the origin of the event is not clear, it is said that similar convention can be seen in some other places in Japan as well as other parts of Asia, such as Korea and China.

Representation

1. an inkstone or a writing brush →intelligence / high ability in writing / scholar
2. a book or a notebook → intelligence / scholar
3. an abacus → intelligence / high ability in calculation / scholar
4. money → rich
5. red bean rice → no problem in food
6. sewing tools (scissors or a scale) → high ability in sewing
7. musical instruments (a recorder, sanshin, etc.) → high ability in music / musician

Questions

1. What is Tanka-su-ji-?
2. Traditionally, how do Okinawan people carry out Tanka-su-ji-?
3. What do you expect if your baby selects sanshin in the event of fortune-telling?

Technology-Enhanced Instruction / CALL / CMI

Using Social Media to Extend the Language Classroom

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Students in EFL university settings may have limited opportunities to use English outside the classroom. To make class more meaningful, students can be provided with English-language tasks at regular intervals when away from class. However, this should be done in a way that does not create a burden for either the teacher or the student. Social media, in particular, Twitter, can provide an easy way for teachers to give students additional English language input on a regular basis. The author reviews different types of social media platforms, explains why Twitter is a useful solution for many educational settings, and provides example activities teachers can use.

INTRODUCTION

A continuing problem for some students in university-level EFL classes is a lack of exposure to meaningful English when away from the classroom. While it is true that English material is readily available online, students may lose motivation after dredging through the search results for “English learning material,” “English listening,” or “English practice” to find material that is both of an appropriate level and of appropriate content, as this can be time consuming. Searching for these terms will bring back pages of results, much of it designed for ESL/EFL instructors rather than students looking to consume more English material.

Teachers, then, can provide students with additional English material for outside the classroom, but this should be done in a way that is not burdensome for either the teacher or the student. One way to provide students with meaningful content on a regular basis is to use social media. It may seem that students and teachers already have a number of ways to communicate outside the classroom – for example, most universities have school-based email as well as classroom-management software such as Blackboard. So, why use social media?

School-based communication systems have two weaknesses: First, they are time consuming to use. Second, students may not access these services on a regular basis. Since these platforms are associated with school life, students may use them only while on campus or when they have a question for a professor. School email, in particular seems to be under-utilized by students.

Social media platforms can fill the gap. By using social media, teachers can take advantage of communication systems that students are connected to all the time. Students view these platforms as an extension of their social lives. It’s their always-on, ready accessibility that make social media sites a useful part of the language curriculum. But, how to decide what platform to use and then how best to use it?

PARAMETERS FOR CHOOSING A SOCIAL MEDIA PLATFORM

In order to decide on a social media platform, some criteria need to be established to rate the usability of these platforms. Three criteria should be considered when choosing a social media option.

Easy to Use or Already in Use

Students have different comfort levels regarding technology (as do teachers); therefore, any social media platform should be intuitive to use. If accessing or using the site or software is challenging, students will simply ignore it.

As mentioned previously, students already have a number of ways to communicate with each other. If fact, a typical student may have school email, multiple personal email accounts, and cell phone-based email. Additionally, students often use one or more forms of instant messaging, texting, and some form of social media. Students will be reticent to adopt another platform, in particular one that is useful only in the classroom context. Ideally, teachers should co-opt a platform that is already part of students' daily routines rather than try to add yet one more thing students need to be connected to.

Easy to Control

Both students and teachers have an expectation of privacy and will want to limit access to their personal information, and many schools have regulations regarding student information. It is important, then, to use a system in which there are simple controls for posting messages and reading messages. This includes controls that can limit who has access to these messages. Additionally, users should not need to make any information about themselves public in order to use the service.

Provides a Rich User Experience

You will want to send students a variety of media, including video, links to articles, and images. Teachers and students should have the opportunity to share what they see outside the classroom. So, the ability to easily share media as well as text is important.

The Contenders

In Japan, Mixi, Facebook, and Twitter are three leading social media sites. Mixi has long been the leading social media site in Japan. However, recently, Twitter has seen incredible growth and now exceeds Mixi in the number of unique visitors per month (comScore Data Mine, 2011). Facebook has seen far slower growth in Japan than Twitter and has less than half the number of unique visitors of either Twitter or Mixi (comScore Data Mine, 2011). Twitter and Mixi, then, both have a large number of visitors and are popular among college-age individuals. This familiarity makes them both possible options for classroom use. However, Twitter has several aspects that make it a superior choice for many classroom situations.

WHAT IS TWITTER?

Twitter is a micro-blogging site that allows individuals to write messages of up to 140 characters as well as link to images or other media. Once an account is created, users can write messages that can be seen by anyone or choose to make messages private.

One of Twitter's greatest strengths is its forced brevity. The 140-character limit reduces the total time commitment needed to create or read messages. Additionally, unlike with email, there is not the expectation that each message will be responded to. The brevity also forces both students and teachers to be on point. With just 140 characters, students must choose language carefully. This limit also keeps teachers from using Twitter as a way to pass on information that is best said in class. Essentially, anything that can't be said in 140 characters is best saved for class.

HOW TO USE IT

Three types of messages seem to benefit students. The first are simple housekeeping messages such as: "Remember to buy the textbook before you come to class next week" or "Quiz on Monday. Please read chapter 1." Some may argue that students, particularly university students, should not be given these types of reminders. But, these messages may be the only English some of them get outside of the classroom, and the benefit of getting even a short amount of English regularly outweighs the downsides.

Next are messages that help guide or direct in-class activities or have students think about what they have learned in class. Here are three examples:

> Homework assignment: Read "Learning Languages."
> Think of three things you can do to help you learn a new language.
>
> One way to learn a language is by watching TV or movies.
> What movies or TV shows have you watched in English?
>
> Why do some businesses choose English names?
> Does having an English name portray a certain image?
> Look for some examples near you.

Each of these messages asks students to interact with in-class work, and each has a different time commitment. The first task might take students five minutes to complete; the second, maybe a bit longer. The final message requires a greater commitment. Will all students complete these tasks? No. But, in a discussion class, if even a small percentage of students do this additional work, everyone in the class will benefit from the ideas that are brought to the table.

Finally, you can take advantage of sending images via Twitter. A sample message: "What comes into your mind when you hear the word 'starvation'? How does it relate to this business?" (The image included with this message is of a children's clothing store named Starvations.) This task asks students to do a number of things: (a) determine the meaning of the word "starvation," and then

(b) determine how it could relate to something as unlikely as a children's clothing store.

Again, this type of activity will require some time to complete and it can be further expanded by asking students to look for examples on their own, take photos of them, and then tweet them to their classmates. By doing this, students will begin to use Twitter as a means to communicate in English with one another rather than simply be consumers of English provided by an instructor.

CONCERNS

Twitter is most successful when used as a means of extending the classroom, not simply as a way to assign additional required work. One of the biggest concerns when using any type of social media is that of fairness. Since students have different levels of online access, anything shared via Twitter (or any social media) should be viewed as ungraded work that can benefit the class as a whole. This can be accomplished most easily in a discussion-based class, where students will bring in ideas to classroom discussion. These ideas, spurred on by what they have done outside of class, will benefit everyone involved in the discussion. And, because students have different responsibilities outside of class, tasks should have a variety of time commitments, so students can choose activities that fit their schedules.

Finally, school privacy regulations must be adhered to. Before using any type of communication outside of official avenues such as school email, it would be best to check what limitations are placed on how students can be contacted outside of class.

Although there are some problems to be worked out with social media and language learning, Twitter does provide an avenue to extend the language classroom, and at a very small time commitment for both teachers and students.

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Language Learning Through Multilingual Wiki Creation: Embracing Technology and Culture

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The paper reports on a multilingual and multicultural language learning project. Seven adult language learners representing eight different additional languages at various levels of proficiency created multilingual and multimodal web pages through the use of a wiki-based website. The analysis of the project and interview data show how the creation of the website facilitated language learning as well as helped develop expertise in digital literacies.

INTRODUCTION

Canadian classrooms, particularly in urban centers like Toronto, have become sites of ethnolinguistic diversity. These classrooms may reflect numerous first languages (L1) and cultures. Yet, due to this cultural and linguistic diversity, teachers may not know the L1 of their students nor be familiar with the diverse cultures. This then creates a need for school projects that not only lead to English language learning but also facilitate the acquisition and maintenance of the students' home languages and validate their home cultures. This has led to innovative projects such as the identity texts of Cumminset al. (2005), where elementary students created dual-language textbooks that showcased their home languages and cultures, and Lotherington's (2007) work with teachers and children who have rewritten traditional narratives into multilingual versions that reflect the children's diverse cultures. These projects have been highly successful with young learners; however, there has been very little work done with adult language learners. This paper reports on a final project in a graduate-level class in multilingual education, based on the New London Group's notion (1996) of multiliteracies, where adult language learners used Web 2.0 and related technologies to create a multilingual and multimodal website. This paper first overviews the theoretical and practical influences on the project this is followed by an overview of the project and a discussion of how Web 2.0 facilitated language learning.

THEORETICAL INFLUENCES

Multiliteracies

The New London Group's pedagogy of multiliteracies seeks to extend literacy pedagogy "to account for the context of our culturally and linguistically diverse and increasing globalized societies, for the multifarious cultures that interrelate and the plurality of texts that circulate" (1996, p. 61). They further argue that multiliteracies must account for the "increasing multiplicity and integration of significant modes of meaning-making" (p. 64) of the information age. In this light, a pedagogy of multiliteracies is inclusive of the ethnolinguistic diversity of the classroom and the diverse text forms that are available from the written word to images, videos, web pages, audio among others, as well as multimodal combinations consisting of different text forms.

Importance of the L1 and Identity in Learning

The L1 is a fundamental part of the students' identity, which is linked to their community, family, and culture. Cummins (2001, 2006) characterizes, based on his academic expertise framework, "*identity investment* as a central component of learning for deep understanding and *the negotiation of identities* as a primary determinant of whether or not students engage cognitively in the learning process" (2006, p. 53; italics in original). He further elaborates:

> Within the interpersonal space of teacher-student interactions, students' cognitive engagement must be maximized if they are to progress academically. Similarly, teacher-student interactions must *affirm* students' cultural, linguistic, and personal identities in order to create classroom conditions for maximum identity investment in the learning process. (2001, p. 126; italics in original)

Therefore, based on Cummins (2000, 2001, 2006), it is crucial that the students' linguistic and cultural identity is affirmed; yet, this appears to be a daunting task when the language of the student is not the language of instruction or even spoken by the teacher or by their peers. However, innovative teachers and researchers have devised novel projects that attempt to incorporate the students' home languages and cultures based on the New London Group's (1996) notion of multiliteracies.

Theory into Practice

Dual Language Textbooks

Cummins et al. (2005) report on a project extending the pedagogy of multiliteracies called identity texts. Typically, created by bilingual or multilingual students, identity texts are "products, which can be written, spoken, visual, musical, dramatic, or multimodal combinations, [that] are positive statements that students make about themselves" (Cummins et al., 2005, p. 40). Cummins further notes that students "invest their identities in these texts . . . that then hold a mirror up to students in which their identities are reflected back in a positive light" (2006, p. 60). The dual-language textbooks created by grade 1 students at Thornwood Public School, a school representing over 40 different languages and cultures, best illustrate the concept. These texts, described in Chow and Cummins (2003), and more recent additions may be viewed on the Thornwood Public School Dual Language Showcase website (http://www.thornwoodps.ca/dual/index.htm). In some cases, the students wrote their texts first in English and the texts were then translated by their parents or siblings into their home language. In other instances, students created texts in either English or their home language, whichever language they felt comfortable with, and then with the help of a more capable peer or parent, the students translated the text into the other language (Cummins et al., 2005). The result is then a text that validates and reflects the students' identity, including their home languages and cultures while at the same time facilitating literacy education.

Multimodal Collaborative Storytelling

Lotherington, Holland, Sotoudeh, and Zentena (2008; see also Lotherington, 2007) recreated multilingual narratives that built on their students' home languages and incorporated their culture into the classroom while at the same time incorporating digital technologies in their creation. For example, in the case of one teacher, the students retold the story of *The Three Little Pigs*. The students made plasticine models of their version of the story. The different scenes were then photographed and uploaded to IMovie and the children then narrated the story in English and in their different home languages. This project allowed students to develop digital literacy in English and in their home languages as well.

The use of multilingual story-retelling in Lotherington et al. (2008) and the process of creating identity texts in Cummins et al. (2005) and Cummins (2006) show how learners' home languages may be included in ethnolinguistically diverse classrooms. However, there are limitations to the work that has been done. First, the projects have been limited to younger learners since the teachers involved in the projects are typically from public elementary school settings. Second, while Lotherington (2007) and Lotherington et al. (2008) have explored digital text forms through various forms of software and identity texts have been published online (Cummins, 2006 Cummins et al., 2005), neither project has embraced Web 2.0 such as through the use of wikis or blogs. Web 2.0, developed after the New London Group's (1996) paper, is reflective of the text forms of the information age and as such should be included in any pedagogy of multiliteracies. It is with these limitations in mind that the idea of creating online identity texts, which were named *identity pages*, came to light.

IDENTITY PAGES

The primary goal of the project was to create an online space where adult language learners could create their own multilingual and multimodal identity page(s) reflecting their linguistic and cultural identities. Additionally, the project had to accommodate varying levels of language proficiency so that relative beginners as well as more proficient language learners could participate. It was felt that through the use of Web 2.0, specifically the creation of a wiki-based website, this goal could be achieved.

The Task

The project used Wetpaint (www.wetpaint.com), an online company that provides wiki-based websites, where access to the site could be limited to registered members. The website was set up so that each learner had a web page that was formatted with a single table, similar to a table in word-processing programs, in which they would create their identity page. It should be noted that the table did not place any restrictions on the creation of the page with the exception of how wide the user could make their pages. This was done so that the pages could be easily viewed through a monitor with an 800 x 600 resolution display. The participants were then invited to become a member of the website where they would register their free account and password. After registering, the participants were then able to create and edit the website however they pleased.

The participants were then asked to create their own multilingual and multimodal identity page(s) which reflected their language(s) and culture using any freely available digital technologies. The task was set up so that the participants were given complete freedom to create their page(s) however they wished. In this sense, it was hoped that the participants would become invested in the creation of their online identity page(s). As well, it was felt that the participants may come up with innovative identity pages in ways that may not have been considered.

Participants

The participants consisted of seven graduate students who spoke at least one additional language at varying levels of proficiency. The additional language(s) of the project include heritage languages and second languages. Slovak, Italian, and German are the heritage languages, in that they are spoken by the participants' parents but not spoken in daily life outside the home. The term, second language is used to refer to any language(s) that a participant learned outside of the home, most typically in school. The second languages are: English, German, Chinese (written), Korean, and Spanish.

With regards to Web 2.0 and digital technologies, all of the participants had varying levels of experience. The participants were all familiar with Web 2.0 such as YouTube (www.youtube.com), social networking sites like Facebook (www.facebook.com) and all had visited wikis such as Wikipedia (www.wikipedia.com). However, none of the participants had created or edited wikis prior to the start of the project.

Analysis/Discussion

All of the identity pages were unique, consisting of a combination of text, images, video, or slideshows to express the participant's ethnolinguistic identities. One of the consistencies was the use of English where either English was the participant's additional language or L1. How the participants deployed language varied, depending on the individual. In some cases, the participants created a page that alternated between their additional language and L1. In other cases the participants created a page entirely in their additional language and then created a duplicate page in their L1 with hyperlinks connecting the two pages.

While each participant created unique identity pages, due to length considerations, this analysis only provides an overview of the salient features of four of the participants' identity pages. This overview is further supplemented with the participants' own reflections. Please note that all names are pseudonyms and any identifying information has been changed to ensure the participants' anonymity.

Eli

Eli is a native English speaker, and she created two pages reflecting her additional languages: Spanish, which she learned in university, and French, which she learned through French immersion.

Eli's Spanish page consists of an embedded video which is a slideshow that she created using Windows Movie Maker. The slideshow consists of an 8-minute narrative, entirely in Spanish, discussing how she developed her Spanish language identity through her experiences learning Spanish as well as traveling and teaching in Peru and Mexico. Eli describes the use of images in the slideshow as a background to go along with her narrative. In this sense, the images, rather than being the dominant part of the slideshow, are instead supporting the spoken narrative. For example, in one part, Eli talks about learning Spanish in university and recounts the story of when she visited a friend in Mexico. Here, she uses a number of different images, which were pictures of Spanish language books, pictures of her and her friends at university, and pictures of her trip to Mexico. This way, the pictures supplement the text and add a greater depth and richness to her narrative that would not have been possible based on her Spanish proficiency. Additionally, under the slideshow, Eli also included a written version of her narrative in Spanish along with an English translation for the other participants.

Eli's French page consists of three images with a paragraph of French text and an English translation accompanying each image. The first paragraph reveals that she is shy when speaking French because she speaks "immersion" French in contrast to her Francophone family members. Next to the text is a picture of the Franco-Ontarian flag, which is used to represent where she grew up in Ontario. Her story then continues with her experiences using French outside of the classroom through life-guarding and traveling with a francophone Catholic group to Peru. This text is paired with the logo of the Catholic group. She then discusses taking French as a second language courses at university. This text was matched with the image of a French book. To complete her page, she embedded a music video of a Francophone artist linked from YouTube. She notes that the book and video reflect her desire and efforts to improve her French and learn about French culture.

Eli's comments reveal how she invested herself and enjoyed creating her pages and how they were a language learning opportunity:

> What I loved about it was the editing, the struggling, the hours of "am I saying this right," of looking up vocabulary words in a paragraph in the dictionary, you know erasing a paragraph and starting over . . . I was interested in it because I had the freedom to write about anything I wanted, and it was the chance to show the importance of my second languages and how much I value them.

The only potential limitation that surfaced was the effect of the audience, as there was a native Spanish speaking participant and Eli felt pressure to create a "perfect" text. While the stress of an audience could act as a constraint if it were to cause Eli to shorten her Spanish text or even decide not to create a Spanish page, that was not the case. Eli had a friend, a native Spanish speaker, proofread her slideshow narration. She said her friend's advice was helpful which focused on wording rather than on grammatical errors. In this case, the stress of the audience appears to have facilitated language learning and increased participation rather than serving a marginalizing role (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). Furthermore, David, a native Spanish speaking participant, left feedback on Eli's Spanish page saying that she had done a great job. When asked about David's feedback, Eli commented, "It really made me feel proud and having people comment on it, it validated what I did . . . it makes me want to write more."

David

David is a native Spanish speaker and is fluent in English. David's identity page consists of an embedded slideshow that he created using Windows Movie Maker. The visual modes used in the slides vary, consisting of images or images and Spanish text, or only Spanish text, and the slides are narrated in English. The slideshow reflects David's academic background, specifically his graduate degree in literature. According to David, through his slideshow based on book covers and related images, he strives to reflect his "intertextual Spanish/English bilingual identity." The result is an impressive presentation where he connects works of literature with his life. He focuses on the work he completed as part of his university education, life in the United States where he lived while completing a master's degree in literature as well as developing an appreciation for micro-breweries, commenting on the politics of his home country, Colombia, and life in Canada while studying for a master's degree in applied linguistics. The use of the different modes of expression, written Spanish text, book covers, photographs, and the English narration leads to a very engaging and interesting presentation that expresses a complex bilingual and multicultural identity.

David highlights that he enjoyed the process of creating his identity page, namely the slideshow. He also notes that creating his slideshow was at times frustrating. In contrast to Eli's slideshow where the slides were used as a background to her spoken narrative, David narrated the slides. He found that he was unable to adjust the interval time between slides to match the timing of his speech. As a result, David's rate of speech changes when he has to keep pace with the slides on occasion, although this did not have a great impact on his presentation. David further notes after his experience that he would like to have had more time with Windows Movie Maker. This observation is important for language learners that may be trying to create a slideshow, particularly if they are trying to narrate the slides like David. They may want to instead consider a slideshow like Eli's where the pictures support the narrative. This would give learners more freedom to focus on what they are saying rather than on how fast or slow they are speaking.

What was perhaps most interesting is that David's experience led to learning opportunities surrounding Web 2.0. He commented that the process allowed him an opportunity to express his bilingual identity in a way never done before. Furthermore, he became more comfortable using Web 2.0 including WetPaint, using Windows Movie Maker and the process of uploading his slideshow to

YouTube, and embedding it in his identity page.

Janice

Janice is multilingual as she learned English, Slovak, and Italian from the time she was born; however, at the time of the project she would typically only speak English in day-to-day life. Janice's page is trilingual where she uses English, Slovak, and Italian, although English is the dominant language of the page. What is unique about Janice's page is that she uses a different genre than the other participants. She uses a recipe format to describe her Slovak and Italian heritage. She starts with her Italian heritage by listing seven characteristics in different quantities that she feels come from her Italian heritage, for example, *1kg volere bene la famiglia – 1kg love for family*. The way the recipe is set up on the page is through a three column table where Italian is on the left; English is on the right, and an image of the Italian flag is between them. Janice follows the same format for her Slovak heritage using Slovak on the left, English on the right, and an image of a Slovak flag in the middle, for example, *20dg dobromyselnot – 20dg goodnaturedness*. Under the recipe, she shows how her two heritages are combined through an explanation of a tattoo. She explains, in English, how she incorporated parts of Slovak and Italian pottery traditions into a tattoo. Under the explanation are images of the two types of pottery side by side with an image of her tattoo underneath.

Janice's page highlights that participants are able to create multimodal pages using not only images and multilingual texts but also different genres. When asked why she chose the recipe genre, Janice said that it was because she wanted to represent her Italian and Slovak heritages equally and that she would be able to do that by writing two recipes. The process of creating the two recipes also led to learning opportunities for Janice. She noted that even though she could speak Slovak and Italian, there were certain words, such as the Slovak word for good-naturedness, which she had never learned and was able to learn through her recipes. As well, Janice found that she was able to learn from the other participants' pages. She knows a little bit of Spanish and she was able to read Eli's Spanish page. Although Janice did not understand every Spanish word, she was able to understand most, especially with the help of the English translation.

Mike

Mike speaks English and German with equal fluency from growing up in a bilingual household, although his written German did not develop as much as his English because his schooling was only in English. He also can write Chinese and speak Mandarin, which he learned while living in China for ten years. Mike created two pages – one in Chinese and the other in German – as well as translation pages of both.

The Chinese page is an extended text describing his decision to go to China, his experiences as an actor, and working as a teacher. He uses images to highlight some of the key events in China, such as his role in a Chinese television show and cycling to Tibet. Mike's German page is also an extended text describing how he learned German and a trip to Germany when he was 12 years old. What is interesting about this page is that he wrote it through the eyes of a 12-year-old rather than as a graduate student reflecting back on his experiences. As well, the images of him and his grandfather in Germany reflect that time period.

Mike's pages follow a magazine-like format in which a few images support the written text. Where Web 2.0 has an advantage over the written medium is the ease with which it allowed Mike to create duplicate pages to use for English translations. In this case, readers could click a link for an identical page that was written in English. As for learning experiences, Mike said he benefited from the creation of both pages. In each case, he was able to write an extended text through his additional languages, which he rarely has an opportunity to do. He further notes that in the past when writing in German, he would be "chastised for getting genders wrong or conjugating a verb incorrectly," which may have led him to feeling that he could not write competently in German. However, for the project, he said that he was able to sit down and "write in a natural way," and when he was finished, he found that he was able to create a coherent written piece and that he was a lot more competent than he had previously thought.

SUMMARY

All of the participants thoroughly enjoyed and fully invested their linguistic and cultural identities in the creation of their identity pages. The affordances provided by Web 2.0 and related digital technologies were that the participants were able to create their pages using a number of different modalities including text, images, slideshows, and videos. The use of different modalities not only allowed participants to create unique, personalized, in-depth identity pages, but also allowed the participants the opportunity to use their additional languages regardless of language proficiency. For example, Eli and David's slideshows reflect different levels of proficiency. Furthermore, as access to the website was restricted to invited members only, it created a space where the participants were willing to take risks. Mike, for example, felt confident enough to write extended texts in both of his additional languages without fear of being chastised for grammatical errors. And Janice was able to experiment with a different genre, which she said she would not have done if the website were public. There were also some constraints with the use of digital technologies, in particular, David's difficulties synchronizing his spoken narrative with the slides. As well, one potential limitation was an audience effect, which led to some participants having their content proofread by a native speaker of the additional language. Although, as argued, this appears to have been more of an affordance as the participants were able to learn from their discussions with the native speakers.

The project also allowed for a number of different learning opportunities depending on the participant. Some participants were able to work on the written form of their additional languages by creating extended texts, such as Eli and Mike did. In other cases, participants were able to practice speaking in the additional language, such as Eli did through her slideshow. Furthermore, participants were able to benefit not only from the creation of their pages but also through the other participants' pages, such as Janice, who was able to practice reading Spanish. And in the case of David, who was fluent in both Spanish and English, he felt that even though the process was not necessarily a language learning experience, he was still able to build his expertise, along with the other participants, with Web 2.0 and the related technologies.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

This project has a number of implications for language teaching. This type of project may be used in classes where learners speak a common first language or in contexts that are linguistically and culturally diverse. In either case, the project can be set up so the learners create a page entirely in one language and then create a duplicate in the other language, or alternatively, they may want to create a single bi/multilingual page. The students can create their pages in the language they feel comfortable with first and then switch to their other language(s). One of the potential benefits of wiki-based web pages is that it is very easy to provide feedback and contribute to individual pages. In this sense, learners may want to work in pairs or in small groups when creating the second language versions of their pages by collaborating with each other. This may also help reduce some of the pressure on individual students to create the "perfect" second language page.

In conclusion, the identity pages project extended the pedagogies of multiliteracies and Cummins' (2006) identity texts to adult learners through the use of Web 2.0. The use of a wiki-based website afforded participants the opportunity to create multimodal and multilingual web pages that showcased the learners' ethnolinguistic identities. The project also allowed a number of learning opportunities, including reading, writing, and speaking in the learners' additional languages, as well as gaining expertise using Web 2.0 and related digital technologies. While the identity pages project was relatively small, it highlights the affordances of Web 2.0 and how identity pages may be extended across contexts of relative ethnolinguistic diversity or homogeneity.

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Vocabulary

Building on a Coordinated Vocabulary Program

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Within the repertoire of English language instruction, it is common knowledge that studying the top 2000 high-frequency vocabulary words will increase students' basic ability to communicate in English. Over the course of four years, the English program at Kyushu Sangyo University has been guided by an effort to increase students' vocabulary knowledge through an ongoing integrated coordinated program. This paper will report upon changes to our program regarding vocabulary instruction. This year the program has installed several treatment activities that were used to gauge which activities best support vocabulary acquisition. Future analysis may reveal that one or more of the treatment activities that were conducted this year may be more conducive to learning and teaching vocabulary.

INTRODUCTION

After reviewing studies on previous research reported internationally on appropriate vocabulary instruction, and from what has been gathered from research conducted at Kyushu Sangyo University (KSU), our program has attempted to research effective ways to instruct the learning of vocabulary. The aim has always been the need to instruct vocabulary learning explicitly in order to increase our students' basic ability to communicate in English. The "what" part of vocabulary learning is clear. Increasing students' vocabulary acquisition increases their ability to communicate and understand in English. Having this knowledge alone has not yet equipped this program with the tools needed to assist students, nor instructors with the skill set necessary in order to design a coordinated vocabulary program and curricula that will increase students' ability to speak English.

Over the past four years the program has taken steps to close the gap between what was known about vocabulary learning and what may now be the best practices to use when instructing students learning English. Having this knowledge has driven our program towards the following question: How does a tertiary program best go about effectively teaching and designing a coordinated vocabulary program with activities that will increase students' basic ability to communicate in English?

The following paper is an ongoing status report on the longitudinal, coordinated vocabulary curriculum program that has taken place at KSU over the past four years. Previous program developments and implementations can be viewed in Stewart, Anderson, Bovee, and Gibson (2010). The aim of this report will be to briefly outline where the program has come from, what has been said about vocabulary learning, what is known, the current status of the program, and what questions regarding vocabulary instruction the program has tried to address. In addition, brief outlines of current research being conducted by professors here at KSU will be shared.

PROGRAM ROOTS

The primary aim of this program has always been to increase students' ability to communicate in Basic English. Over the past four years, we have developed a coordinated program design where first and second year non English major students continue to study compulsory English, using what most believe to be the top 2000 high frequency words (Nation, 2001).

The grass roots efforts that it has taken to put together a coordinated vocabulary program has provided our university and research learning center with a wealth of knowledge that has guided the program to its current status. Four years of work have been put into developing and building a program that has attempted to integrate program areas. Our work-in-progress program will hopefully lead us towards a more effective coordinated vocabulary program that will empower students, giving them the skill set needed in order to increase their ability to communicate in English.

WHAT HAS BEEN SAID

Wilkins (1972) has long acknowledged the need for vocabulary instruction, pointing out, "Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (p. 111). According to Folse (2004), a "lack of grammar knowledge can limit conversation; a lack of vocabulary knowledge can stop conversation" (p. 3). The importance of vocabulary instruction in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching is common knowledge and has long been acknowledged in the field of English as a Second Language (ESL) and EFL instruction and teaching.

However, teachers hold conflicting views on how to efficiently and effectively teach vocabulary in the classroom, and often, vocabulary has not been taught sufficiently or covered in EFL courses. It is now becoming the norm to teach vocabulary explicitly, guided by codified word lists and bilingual dictionaries, and incorporating activities into the classroom that allow students to productively use words in engaging activities, supported by e-learning activities, and by encouraging students to use multiple strategies when learning words (Folse, 2004; Fryer et al., 2010). The issue still remains: What activities work best in providing our students with the best opportunities to retain vocabulary knowledge when studying English?

WHAT IS KNOWN?

Approaches to teaching ESL and EFL have traditionally taken several forms. In the past, students have traditionally learned EFL here in Japan, and in many other countries, in classrooms without communicative opportunities, where grammar was the main focus, and where rote memorization of words taught in isolation was the norm, with the aim of passing university entrance examinations or mandated government licensing programs. Meara (1980) points out that a very large proportion of the work on vocabulary acquisition has been concerned with vocabulary *teaching* rather than with vocabulary *learning*, and though this work is not without interest, it does not shed much light on how words are learned. This knowledge again draws us back to the "how": How do we teach the top 2000 words most effectively?

AN OVERVIEW OF OUR CURRENT PROGRAM

Undertaking a program of this magnitude has taken a coordinated effort from all involved here at KSU. The program is moving towards more integration. Over the course of a year, nine teachers are now involved in our program goals and follow our control curriculum guidelines. In the past, teachers had the option of doing as they pleased in the classroom or of opting to participate in our program guidelines. With over 890 non-English major students participating in this study, it has taken a coordinated effort to get teachers into the program. Teachers have come on board and classes have been randomized in an effort to control treatment activities undertaken in this study, which will be discussed later.

CURRENT AND MODIFIED CHANGES TO THE PROGRAM

Word Lists

Students continue to study 40 words a week by creating personalized vocabulary notebooks. Vocabulary word lists have been integrated into student textbooks for easier access. This has been guided by the use of their bilingual Longman Eiwa Jiten dictionary. The 2011 word list has been redesigned in a way that students study the first 15 breadth words that they are least likely to know and then the final 25 depth words they most likely know. As a means of refocusing student learning and taking advantage of the time on task that it takes to create weekly notebooks, the program has decided to redesign the weekly vocabulary lists to initially focus more on words students are likely to know. An illustration of one student's weekly vocabulary notebook can be found in Appendix A.

Testing and Time on Task

At KSU, our teachers routinely administer weekly vocabulary quizzes that test student knowledge of vocabulary words. Mandatory pre- and post-tests have been implemented in order to guide current and future program developments and goals. Over the past year, more control of time on task has been created by having students spend the first 45 minutes of each class in the first two weeks of each semester working on how to productively produce a vocabulary notebook that will allow them to meaningfully refer back to words studied. After the first two weeks of class, students spend 15 minutes in class working on treatment activities and 25 minutes on out-of-class vocabulary homework. In addition, formal midterm exams with an active format have been used to chart student progress. In the next section, current vocabulary treatment studies conducted by professors at KSU will be briefly shared.

What We Have Tried to Address

Understanding what words need to be learned is not enough to solely support vocabulary acquisition. Narrowing down which classroom activities best equip students with the ability to increase their basic vocabulary knowledge and communicative skills has been our focus over the past year. Teachers previously sat down and came up with four treatment activities to test out theories regarding which activities best provided students with the ability to increase vocabulary knowledge. The four treatment activities were: writing original sentences, drawing pictures, listening to words, and creating word groupings. This study involved approximately 15 control groups, 15 treatment groups, 15 first-year classes, and 15 second-year classes. The treatment activities required 15 minutes of in-class activities and 25 minutes of out-of-class homework assignments.

CURRENT RESEARCH BEING CONDUCTED

Writing Original Sentences

Several teachers are currently involved in researching how writing original sentences impacts upon vocabulary learning. Writing original sentences has been shown to influence vocabulary learning and retention (Baicheng, 2009). Students that write their own original personalized sentences are more likely to recall vocabulary because it is meaning-focused output (Nation, 2001). After studying words weekly, four teachers and six classes of 175 first- and second-year students participated in writing original sentences. Students were required to write two mastery sentences in addition to creating their weekly notebooks.

Drawing Pictures

Within this treatment students were required to draw original pictures using weekly vocabulary words, as research has shown that imaging and word-processing can be more effective than studying words alone (Dewhurst & Conway, 1994). Drawing pictures increases opportunities for feedback and deeper internal processing, because it is highly personalized. Four teachers and five low-level proficiency classes of 138 second-year students participated in this treatment. Students spent the first two weeks of class training for this treatment. Teachers assisted students by illustrating how action symbols, such as arrows and body expressions, could help in graphically depicting words. A student sample of drawing pictures for vocabulary study can be found in Appendix B.

Listening to Words

Three teachers and 83 first-year students participated in a listening treatment. The aim of this activity was to gauge the effect of auditory support on high-frequency vocabulary acquisition. Audio-supported learning approaches have been shown to lead to higher rates of vocabulary acquisition.

Word Grouping

Several teachers are currently involved in researching how the graphic arrangements of words show how new words and ideas are related to each other in a text. Students were required to group words together and justify their categories in groups.

Future steps

Several steps have been taken in an attempt to narrow down which of these treatment activities best support vocabulary acquisition. It is hoped that analysis of current data from these treatment activities will reveal that one or more of these activities best supports vocabulary learning.

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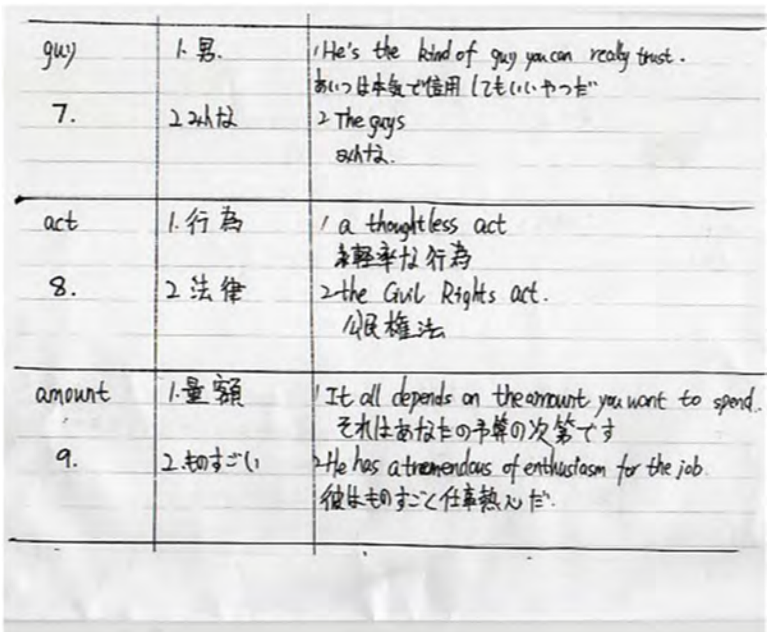
APPENDIX A

Weekly Vocabulary Notebook



APPENDIX B

Original Student Drawings

Writing

A Review and Guide for Self-Assessment in Second Language Writing

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In the past thirty years, a growing number of scholars have recognized the importance of using self-assessment in second and foreign language contexts. Its recognition seems warranted particularly because studies have shown that self-assessment can improve student performance and increase self-awareness and motivation. However, problems exist in how self-assessment is perceived and applied, which have undermined its use and effectiveness. The following paper gives an overview of the major pedagogical issues surrounding self-assessment in second and foreign language learning, and offers guidelines for teachers who wish to implement self-assessment effectively, particularly in their writing courses. In addition, data collected from a survey concerning attitudes about self-assessment and its effectiveness are presented to provide a glimpse at how students perceive the value of self-assessment in writing and to show whether these perceptions change after repeatedly rating their performance on expository essays.

INTRODUCTION

Self-assessment has received much attention in recent years due to the emphasis on learner-centered approaches to language teaching. A growing body of research in mainstream education and second language learning supports claims that self-assessment is an effective practice for improving student performance in writing (Brantmeier, 2005; O'Malley & Valdez Pierce, 1996) and developing learner autonomy (Sambell, McDowell, & Sambell, 2006). Based on principles in second language acquisition (Brown, 2004) and theories on motivation and learning, self-assessment practices are considered to be an essential component of formative assessment. The process of self-assessment can be defined as the involvement of learners in identifying standards or criteria to apply to their work and making judgments about the extent to which they have met these standards or criteria. In respect to writing, checklists, rubrics, and progress reports are often used to help learners rate and track their performance. Kavaliauskiene (2004) argues that this process gives learners opportunities to think about their own progress and find ways to change, adapt, or improve it. Black and Wiliam (1998) argue that the primary reason for utilizing self-assessment is that "the desired goal, evidence about present position, and some understanding of a way to close the gap between the two" (p. 143) is a critical process for future learning.

Despite the widespread recognition of self-assessment as a valuable pedagogical tool, traditional assessment still dominates most foreign language writing programs, especially those in Asia, where the onus still largely rests on teachers to evaluate student performance. Contexts where learners are asked to assess their performance on a particular piece of writing or task are quite rare (Luoma & Tarnanen, 2003). As a result, the concept of assessment in these settings is still largely one-dimensional leaving largely ignored recommendations by scholars (Huba & Freed, 2000; Shohamy, 1992) for teachers to draw on a variety of assessment measures to rate language performance.

In response to these developments, the following paper provides an overview of the pedagogical issues surrounding self-assessment and offers guidance for teachers who wish to implement self-assessment in a writing course. In addition, this paper reports on one aspect of an ongoing study that investigated student perceptions regarding a method of self-assessment that was implemented in two writing courses.

THE EFFECTIVENESS OF SELF-ASSESSMENT IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING

A number of scholars have argued that self-assessment is a vital step in learning, and that teachers should provide opportunities for students to assess their language learning (Blanche, 1988; Blue, 1994; Dickinson, 1987; Harris, 1997 Henner-Stanchina & Holec, 1985; Oscarson, 1989). The motives for self-assessment are extensive, including increased levels of effort and self-confidence, and a heightened awareness of one's strengths and weaknesses (Blue, 1994). Some scholars insist that self-assessment is a precondition to learner autonomy and leads to higher motivation (Dickinson, 1987; Harris, 1997; Oscarson, 1989).

In respect to second language writing, self-assessment can provide learners with a greater awareness of how they are writing and more control over their rhetorical agency (Schendel & O'Neill, 1999). By regularly examining one's strengths and weaknesses on written assignments, learners have the opportunity to see what needs to be learned and infer how well they have reached their goals. One of the most important functions of self-assessment as seen by Black and Wiliam (1998) and Oscarson (1980) is that of giving individual learners continuous feedback on what they have learned.

Despite the benefits, self-assessment is seldom practiced in foreign language writing contexts. This negligence seems counterproductive, particularly for writing courses that espouse the process-oriented approach, since self-assessment practices have similar goals, such as an emphasis on continuous feedback and reflection. One obstacle is that doubts remain whether learners have the ability to assess themselves accurately and reliably. These doubts are somewhat warranted, since a number of studies that have investigated the reliability of self-assessment have reported contradictory findings (Oscarson, 1989; Patri, 2002). Success, in many studies, hinged on how well the students were trained in conducting self-assessment. In considering the foundation on which self-assessment is grounded, it seems clear that it is a worthy practice that teachers should consider implementing. Thus, the more important question is not if learners can rate themselves reliably but how self-assessment can be used effectively in developing more autonomous learners. To answer this question, it is relevant to review some of the obstacles that hinder its effectiveness.

SELF-ASSESSMENT ISSUES

Various issues surrounding self-assessment have limited its impact in language teaching. These issues have been categorized into three areas: student-related issues, institutional and teacher-related issues, and research-related issues.

Student beliefs and attitudes concerning self-assessment can be a major problem for teachers who wish to implement self-assessment into a writing program. Some learners, for instance, think they lack the ability to evaluate themselves, or consider self-assessment dull and a waste of time (Ross, Rolheiser, & Hogaboam-Gray, 1998). Boud (1995) found that other problems exist: in some cases, learners do not refer to the assessment criteria when evaluating themselves, and believe they are doing the teacher's job. This may be especially true in certain foreign language contexts where students have a strong expectation that teachers should be responsible for the assessment of learning (Littlewood, 1999). Students may be reluctant to help teachers share the burden of assessment. Lastly, there is a general belief among teachers and students alike that grade inflation will occur, especially if the assessment is included in the overall grade.

Teachers may also have reservations about using self-assessment. As with students, doubts exist among teachers regarding the sincerity of learners (Dickinson, 1987). Teachers are concerned that learners will inflate marks given on self-assessment activities, or pay little attention to the assessment criteria. There is also a general belief that if learners are not committed to the process, self-assessment will not work.

Another problem regarding self-assessment can be seen in its application. Discrepancies have been reported between the goals of the learners and those of the instructor or institution (Blanche, 1988; Oscarson, 1997). Often times when this occurs, the institutional-based directives and traditional pedagogical approaches take precedence, leaving learners with few opportunities to control aspects of the evaluative process (Dickinson, 1978). The option to include self-assessment in the overall grade is an additional issue teachers must consider. If self-assessment is not utilized in the determination of a grade, teachers may not be enthusiastic about using it and students may be less motivated and committed in completing their assessments. Self-assessment rubrics and checklists are also time-consuming to produce and are often riddled with problems related to content, such as criteria items which are too general or too numerous, and levels and descriptors that are too brief or too long (Dornisch & Sabatini McLoughlin, 2006).

The issue that has received the most attention is the lack of consistent findings concerning the reliability and validity of self-assessment in the research to date (Dickinson, 1987; Blue, 1994). Much of the inconsistency has come from the variability in previous studies in how self-assessment is carried out, defined, and rated. Gardner (2000) argues that "undoubtedly, reliability is an issue that needs to be kept in mind, but it is not one which should prevent self-assessments from being tried" (p. 53). It would be helpful for teachers to make their own conclusions about self-assessment by conducting research on its effectiveness in their own contexts. Their findings can be used to confirm or dispute existing beliefs and add to the research base regarding self-assessment.

GUIDELINES FOR IMPLEMENTING A MODEL OF SELF-ASSESSMENT

Implementing self-assessment is a process that requires considerable attention to a variety of issues. Simply requiring self-assessment is unlikely to have an effect on achievement or autonomy if its implementation is misguided. Ross and Rolheiser (2005) offer a comprehensive model guiding instructors who wish to implement a process for self-assessment in their classrooms. Their model has four stages and can easily be applied to second language or foreign language writing contexts. The following process is largely based on their work.

A crucial first step is for teachers to consider a model of self-assessment that reflects both learner goals and course goals. Success at this stage hinges on a number of underlying conditions. First, students need to be involved in determining the standards of assessment. To help learners commit to the process, teachers need to introduce standards in a language intelligible to students, address competencies that are familiar to students, and include performance features they perceive to be important (Rolheiser & Ross, 2005). This ensures that students will understand and value the assessment criteria, and apply it more effectively. Rolheiser and Ross (2000) describe this process as "neither imposing school goals nor acquiescing to student preferences" (p. 33). In addition, this process should be ongoing, allowing learners to make additions or revise existing criteria throughout the course. Teachers need to explain assessment tasks, invite students to contribute to the choice of these, and to the scoring procedure. Allowing students to work cooperatively with teachers in these areas appears to help students internalize the standards and feel more ownership of the assessment process (Ross, Rolheiser, & Hogaboam-Gray, 2000). In respect to the construction of rubrics, the criteria should be to produce goals for writing that are specific, understandable, and appropriately challenging (Rolheiser & Ross, 2000).

Second, training is needed for students to learn how to apply the criteria to specific writing samples. This process contributes to the credibility of the assessment standards and is helpful in checking how well students understand the rubric. This can be achieved by explaining each criterion, modeling the application of the criterion, and allowing ample time for learners to practice applying the rubric to their writing. Rolheiser and Ross (2005) maintain that teacher involvement is important at this stage because it can link instructional episodes and writing assignments to the assessment criteria, which reinforces student understanding. This can be seen on the rubric presented in the Appendix. Specific handouts are referenced to help students address the assessment criteria.

Third, giving students feedback on their writing and self-assessments is an important step in evaluating how students are performing in relation to the criteria. Conferencing with individuals and groups to resolve discrepancies can heighten attention to evidence and resolve grade inflation issues. Rolheiser and Ross (2005) maintain that a key issue is to help students move from holistic to analytic scoring of their work. For example, student self-assessments are frequently driven by their perception of grammatical features or the amount of effort in composing their essays. While these are important elements to consider, other dimensions should not be overlooked. Student-teacher conferences are also a valuable tool, to review gaps between ratings given by the instructor and the student on writing assignments. They can also support goal setting and clarify teacher feedback on assignments.

Fourth, students need help in using the information collected from previous self-assessments to set or change future goals. Progress reports are helpful in enhancing goal-setting strategies by allow learners to track performance and analyze how earlier goals were achieved. Student-teacher conferencing can also be a useful practice, thereby opening a dialogue where suggestions can be made on student progress and learning. All of these practices have learners seeking help, and imply an expanding role for learners to be independent and autonomous.

INVESTIGATING STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF SELF-ASSESSMENT

The following report presents data collected from an ongoing study investigating self-assessment in a Japanese university writing context. One aspect of the study examines student perceptions regarding self-assessment, and if and how these perceptions change after a prolonged period of using self-assessment. A questionnaire was utilized to collect data. The questionnaire targeted six aspects that may hinder the impact of self-assessment among students. The questionnaire was translated into Japanese to ensure comprehension, and administered twice, in two separate writing classes, once near the beginning of the writing course (class 3) and again in the last class (class 28). Students in the two writing courses followed the same schedule and met once a week for 90 minutes. The primary goal of the writing course was to familiarize students with a process-approach to writing, and to teach basic academic writing skills. There were two types of writing assignments: expository writing (4 essays), to acquaint students with the organizational styles common to academic environments, and journal writing (13 entries), to enhance fluency and self-expression. Self-assessment was integrated into a multiple-draft revision process for the expository essays, and several classes were allocated to enabling students to negotiate an assessment criterion, and to training students to apply it on their writing.

Sixty-two students (36 females and 26 males) participated in the study. Of these, 3 males and 1 female did not participate in the second questionnaire. All participants were English majors in their second year and had previously taken a year-long writing course in their first year. When the questionnaire was administered, most students had been studying English for 7 years (84%) and a few as long as 13 years. Despite their English language learning experience, no students reported having to write academic prose before entering university or experience with assessing their own writing and progress. Both classes were grouped and classified by the university as intermediate: students in these classes had a TOEIC score ranging from 375 to 480.

The assessment components applied in this study were developed by the instructor and the students collaboratively, after the instructor introduced the concept of self-assessment to the students. This was followed by a group discussion to select the assessment procedure and criteria. The assessment criteria included five categories to be rated after the first and third drafts were submitted (main ideas, organization, support, grammar, and vocabulary). Each category had two subcategories to be evaluated. Students assessed themselves by assigning a value between 1 (not well at all) and 5 (very well) for each subcategory. [See the

Appendix for details of the self-assessment rubric used for rating the expository essays.]

The assessment procedure in both classes was conducted in several steps. Students were first taught what the assessment categories meant and later met in groups to assign and discuss the scores given on several sample essays. The students and teacher worked together to determine scoring standards for each category and the corresponding subcategories. The subcategories had minor revisions over the course to focus students' attention on related areas and address material covered in class. Teacher feedback was given on how well the students assessed the sample essays. In line with student wishes, scores on students' self-assessments were included as part of the overall assessment (25% of the grade was based on the students' ratings, with the other 75% coming from the instructor). When essays were assigned, students and the teacher rated the essays independently using the same rubric. The teacher also provided comments addressing the same categories. This process was repeated for the first and third drafts for all the expository writing assignments. Student-teacher conferencing was also conducted at the middle and end of the course to assess student progress.

RESULTS

Table 1 presents the questions regarding student perceptions and how the students responded near the beginning of the course and at the end of the course. While a detailed analysis was not undertaken in this preliminary investigation, an examination of the student perceptions revealed some interesting results that add insight on student perceptions and attitudes. For the first item, students became less likely to perceive that self-assessment leads to cheating. This is evident in the number of students who later disagreed with this statement (from roughly 15% to 45%). A major shift also occurred in the responses for the second item, which concerned the responsibility of assessment. The data reveals that students had strong opinions on this statement with only 11% reporting "no idea," and almost 80% of the respondents believing that the burden of assessment rests on the teacher. While almost half of the students held similar views on the post-course questionnaire, a much greater percentage were undecided (roughly 36%). The third item on the questionnaire concerns student perceptions of students' ability to self-assess. Very few respondents were confident at the start of the course (only 8% agreed), but over the course, these beliefs became more dispersed, with the greatest number of participants choosing "agree" (39.7%).

For the fifth item, over 55% of the participants were undecided, and 30% thought the process of assessing their own essays would be boring. This is not surprising, since students reported having little or no experience in self-assessment. Perceptions were more optimistic, however, at the end of the course, where roughly 45% of the respondents viewed the process favorably. The last item asked if the ratings given by students on their self-assessment rubrics should be included in overall assessment. Perceptions were generally positive for its inclusion, and these views only changed slightly over the writing course.

TABLE 1. Student Perceptions of Self-Assessment

Questionnaire item		Strongly disagree	Disagree	No idea	Agree	Strongly agree
1. Self-assessment encourages some students to cheat.	Pre-course (N=62)	2 (3.2%)	7 (11.3%)	26 (41.9%)	16 (25.8%)	11 (17.7%)
	Post-course (N=58)	10 (17.2%)	17 (29.3%)	15 (25.9%)	12 (20.7%)	4 (6.9%)
2. Assessment is my teacher’s job.	Pre-course (N=62)	0 (0%)	5 (8.1%)	7 (11.3%)	16 (25.8%)	34 (54.8%)
	Post-course (N=58)	2 (3.4%)	9 (15.5%)	21 (36.2%)	15 (25.9%)	11 (19%)
3. I lack the skills or do not understand how to assess myself.	Pre-course (N=62)	0 (0%)	5 (8.1%)	13 (21%)	18 (29%)	26 (41.9%)
	Post-course (N=58)	3 (5.2%)	23 (39.7%)	10 (17.2%)	10 (17.2%)	12 (20.7%)
4. Self-assessment is boring and a waste of time.	Pre-course (N=62)	4 (6.5%)	4 (6.5%)	35 (56.5%)	9 (14.5%)	10 (16.1%)
	Post-course (N=58)	6 (10.3%)	20 (34.5%)	18 (31%)	7 (12.1%)	7 (12.1%)
5. I am not committed in conducting self-assessment.	Pre-course (N=62)	4 (6.5%)	9 (14.5%)	25 (40.3%)	17 (27.4%)	7 (11.3%)
	Post-course (N=58)	9 (15.5%)	14 (24.1%)	12 (20.7%)	13 (22.4%)	10 (17.2%)
6. Self-assessment should be a part of one’s overall grade.	Pre-course (N=62)	1 (1.6%)	8 (12.9%)	19 (30.6%)	16 (25.8%)	18 (29%)
	Post-course (N=58)	2 (3.4%)	5 (8.6%)	15 (25.9%)	16 (27.6%)	20 (34.5%)

Note. The data lists the number of responses followed by the overall percentage in parentheses ( ).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Despite students’ lack of experience in self-assessment and their lower-intermediate English proficiency level, data from the questionnaire revealed a positive impact on student perceptions. While a number of reasons can account for the results, a likely one is that many of the problems that usually diminish the effectiveness of self-assessment were addressed. The model used in the study considered Rolheiser and Ross’s (2005) suggestions to allow students a role in negotiating the assessment criteria, and to provide feedback and follow-up activities. In observations made by students in the final weeks of class, self-assessment was not perceived to replace the teacher’s role in evaluation, as some students had initially thought it would, but to accompany it. While the data presented only provides a glimpse into how self-assessment activities can impact students, it is encouraging that negative attitudes or misguided notions of assessment, many of which have created doubts in teachers regarding the feasibility of self-assessment, can be altered if many of the underlying conditions are addressed.

FINAL THOUGHTS

This review of self-assessment suggests that for self-assessment to be effective in second and foreign language settings, more research is needed that investigates how to address the issues that hinder its application. A step toward this goal is to place less emphasis on addressing issues of reliability and validity, and more on training teachers and students to apply it to the writing process. Rolheiser and Ross (2005) note that, surprisingly, most studies that have found self-assessment to be effective have offered little insight into how to train students to be effective evaluators. This is a necessary step to replace existing attitudes and methodologies that ignore the role of self-assessment in second language writing.

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APPENDIX

Self-Assessment Rubric/Checklist

Name: ______________________________ Student number: ________________

Please complete this form before handing in your argumentative essay. Indicate a number based on the scale below.

Very well	Fairly well	Average	Not so well	Not well at all
5	4	3	2	1

CATEGORY	Score
A. Main Idea	
I wrote a clear topic sentence in each paragraph.	
My main idea or position is clearly stated in the introduction.	
B. Organization	
I wrote about one distinct topic in each supporting paragraph.	
Transitions are used logically in my essay.	
C. Support	
My supporting ideas are relevant and sufficiently explained.	
I supported each main idea with one or two concrete examples or details.	
D. Grammar	
My essay includes several examples of subordinating conjunctions.	
The nouns and verbs in my sentences are in agreement.	
E. Vocabulary	
My essay uses vocabulary words and expressions from the assigned readings	
The vocabulary words and expressions are relevant to the topic of my essay.	

1. How much time did you spend on writing your essay? ________________
2. What was the biggest problem in completing your essay? ________________
3) What is something in your essay that you like? ______________________

Workshops

Paint It Green: Using Environmental Themes in the Language Classroom

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Environmental awareness is a topic that can be easily woven into the content of language courses. The major goals of introducing "green" topics into language lessons are to raise consciousness about environmental conditions and to promote environmentally appropriate behavior. Since environmental attitudes are formed by many influences over a long period of time, it is fitting for language teachers to integrate content relevant to global or local environmental challenges into lessons and curriculum. Furthermore, since the commitment to learning a language is an affirmation of global citizenship, it naturally follows that a language learner's worldview should include a knowledge and interest in global issues such as environmental stewardship. Therefore, this paper will discuss how a didactic approach, combining green themes with linguistic skill building, can help students form an environmental ethic and develop critical thinking skills while acquiring relevant vocabulary and grammatical structures.

INTRODUCTION

"Unless someone like you cares a whole awful lot, nothing is going to get better. It's not." – Dr. Seuss, from *The Lorax*

In his book *The Lorax*, Dr. Seuss ingeniously communicates a message about environmental stewardship through witty rhymes from his colorful cartoon characters. The message is obvious, but delivered via his unique brand of edutainment. Seuss creatively uses a children's book as a vehicle to raise awareness of sustainable development among the young generation. In the same way, language teachers can help to raise awareness about current environmental issues by incorporating environmental themes into lesson materials. Such topics can be suitable content for all levels of language courses. Therefore, this paper proposes that the commonalities between environmental education and language education merit the consideration of using "green themes" in content-based instruction. In addition, this paper will offer suggestions for designing green lessons that facilitate language acquisition.

The key connections between environmental education and language education invite the didactic approach of combining green themes with linguistic skill building. These key connections relate to a commitment to global citizenship, a process of life-long learning, and the goal of a better future. It could even be argued that both language education and environmental education have the intrinsic purpose of strengthening bonds across borders so that people can communicate more effectively to ensure a more peaceful future.

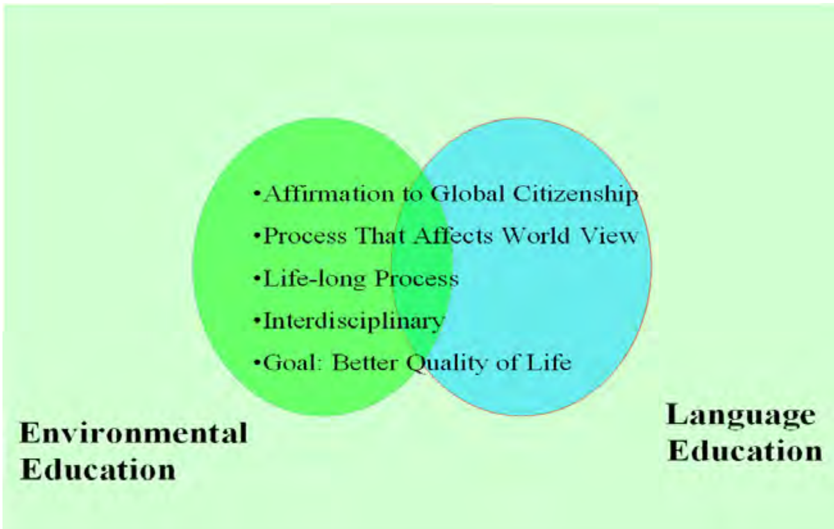

FIGURE 1. Commonalities of environmental education and language education.

GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP

The commitment to learning a language is an affirmation of global citizenship hence, it naturally follows that a language learner's worldview should include a knowledge of, and interest in, global issues such as environmental stewardship. Learning a widely used second language is essentially a passport to global citizenship. When an individual decides to study a second language, they are affirming their interest to interact with people from other cultures or regions. Thus, studying a second language equates with expanding one's view of the world.

The acquisition of language and the acquisition of environmentally appropriate behavior are similar in that they are both processes that affect a person's view of the world. As a person's view of the world expands, it becomes easier to understand how environmental issues transcend political and cultural borders. Addressing those environmental issues and planning sustainable global development require communication among all members of the international community. Therefore, people learning a second language have the opportunity to become ambassadors for environmental stewardship.

Second language learners (SLLs), as global citizens, are a prime audience for disseminating information about environmental issues for several reasons. First, SLLs are more likely to travel abroad or visit countries where they are able to compare and share ideas about environmental stewardship. Having ample background knowledge about the issues concerning the health of people and the health of the planet, SLLs who travel globally are empowered to become ambassadors for environmental education. Furthermore, SLLs in the corporate world who have achieved high levels of language fluency, as well as developed crucial critical thinking skills, are more likely to receive promotions to decision-making positions in international companies. If these decision-makers have also gained sufficient environmental knowledge, they will be prepared to consider corporate deliberations with a greener perspective.

LIFE-LONG PROCESS

Developing communication skills in a second language and gaining awareness of environmental issues are both life-long processes. Therefore, by incorporating green themes into the language curriculum, educators can reinforce and teach valuable lessons about environmental stewardship to the millions who choose to study a second language. Since environmental attitudes are formed by many influences over a long period of time, it is fitting for language teachers to integrate content relevant to global or local environmental challenges into lessons and the curriculum. By doing so, language educators are contributing to the betterment of society by helping develop an environmental ethic. Language teachers who contribute to the betterment of society are also being socially responsible role models for global citizenship.

The concept of social responsibility is consistent with the notion that education should be for the good of society as well as for the good of the individual. Whether education is attained formally or informally, learning is a life-long process that involves the acquisition of skills and knowledge from a variety of disciplines. Language education and environmental education both contribute to the goals of life-long learning because they are each interdisciplinary and holistic in nature, as well as in application. Language learning and environmental education both aim to teach critical thinking skills that involve problem solving and decision making; occupation-specific skills; and attitude development based on community morals and ethics.

COMMON GOALS

The benefits of this didactic approach become more lucid when considering environmental education as an approach to education as a whole, rather than just a subject. The aim is to create an environmental ethic that fosters awareness about the ecological inter-dependence of economic, social, and political factors in a human community and environment. Thus, it is important to integrate environmental education into the language education curriculum because a heightened awareness of environmental issues and their implications can initiate new patterns of behavior towards the environment. Changes in values, attitudes, and behavior toward the environment can ultimately result in a better quality of life. Basically, incorporating green themes into language lessons is another approach to language education that is good for society.

PEDAGOGICAL RATIONALIZATION

Although the major goals of introducing "green" topics into language lessons are to raise consciousness about environmental conditions and to promote environmentally appropriate behavior, there are several pedagogical reasons to do so, too. Lesson materials for green themes are often authentic in that they represent real-world issues and real-world vocabulary and rhetoric. The use of authentic materials in second language teaching lends meaning to content. Meaningful content can be a factor that facilitates the acquisition of language in content-based instruction because meaningful learning increases retention of new knowledge and information.

Additionally, including green topics in language courses can heighten levels of interest, thus increasing intrinsic motivation for the SLL. Whether a language course focuses on conversation skills, listening skills, reading skills, or writing skills, a specific topic is needed as a venue to practice those skills. Green topics add to the variety of themes that teachers can use to promote communication in a second language. Often SLLs lose motivation when the same topics of family, clothes, celebrities, music, weather, and hobbies are used to practice linguistic structures. New topics may revive waning levels of interests for students. If topics rouse a learner’s interest, there will be an increase in motivation to use the target language in a classroom setting, as well as in real-world communication.

However, not all topics about environmental issues will pique the interest of SLLs. It is the teacher’s responsibility to carefully choose topics that are appropriate for the target group of students. For example, lessons for young SLLs can include songs and games that promote environmental awareness. A quick Internet search can provide teachers with a variety of appropriate activities for children’s language classes. Language lessons for middle school or high school students can include short readings on environmental issues that help to build their vocabulary with useful words. Likewise, speaking and listening activities can focus on themes about forest preservation, recycling, or local issues that are familiar to students in that age group.

Finding the appropriate green lessons for university and adult SLL may be more challenging than for younger learners. Although adults have greater cognitive development and keener critical thinking abilities than teens and children, fluency levels differ greatly among individual adult SLLs. Lessons for the beginner and intermediate levels should not include difficult vocabulary or complex sentence structures – but the content also needs to be interesting enough to keep students engaged. Perhaps simple questionnaires about environmental practices or simplified readings with environmental themes would be appropriate for the acquisition of new vocabulary and grammatical structures. University students and adults with higher levels of fluency are able to combine their background knowledge and language ability to discuss or write about a great number of green topics in depth. Using language structures that focus on specific rhetorical modes such as cause and effect, or argumentation, lessons can encourage students to develop their critical thinking skills while examining environmental issues from a variety of perspectives.

Using content focused on promoting environmental awareness, language teachers can become agents of change for a greener future. Just as Dr. Seuss used his books as a vehicle to deliver a valuable message to children, the language classroom can be a vehicle that empowers global citizens to realize a new environmental paradigm of thinking in order to meet the challenges of a rapidly changing world. As teachers, we are the “they” in “they need to do something.”

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AUTHOR NOTE

A list of resources for developing language lessons with environmental themes can be found at: http://www.brianenglish.net/greeneduc.htm

Workshop Report: Love or Logic? A Cultural Guide for Westerners and Koreans Working Together

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This is a report on a KOTESOL 2011 workshop, whose aim was to provide employees with greater understanding of their co-workers' values and actions. The paper begins with an outline of eastern and western cultural histories, revealing their influence on priorities and behaviors today, which are consequently examined in psychological tests (Nisbett, 2003). Three differences between westerners and Koreans are divulged and discussed, and then one workshop attendee's experience examined in greater detail. Potential solutions are laid out, highlighting a need not only to focus on differences between nationalities, but also to be aware of similarities. Finally, it is hoped that as a result of this session, workshop attendees will enjoy more success in future business transactions by interacting with others harmoniously and effectively.

INTRODUCTION

"A society's culture consists of whatever it is one has to know or believe in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members, and to do so in any role that they accept for any one of themselves" (Goodenough, as cited in Wardhaugh, 2010, p. 229). Thus, an understanding of other societies' beliefs and behaviors would seem necessary to successfully function in a multicultural environment. This paper focuses on work environments where Korean and western cultures meet. It is a report of the KOTESOL 2011 workshop titled "Love or Logic? A Cultural Guide for Westerners and Koreans Working Together." The workshop's main aim was to promote cultural awareness and tolerance by examining a selection of idiosyncrasies in western and Korean thought, and by proposing ways of overcoming differences in order to work together both harmoniously and effectively. This report will begin with a description of previous research into eastern and western cultures on which the workshop was based. Next, an outline of preparatory research and workshop procedure will provide the framework for revealing the results. Results will be explored further in the discussion section, and one workplace issue will be examined in detail. The paper will conclude with a summary of the main findings and a glimpse into a more tolerant future.

METHOD

Previous Research into Eastern and Western Cultures

The journey toward divergent eastern and western cultures seems to have begun via the differing courses of history, particularly in the areas of philosophy and religion. Ancient Greeks for instance embraced both logic and lively debate in order to gain an understanding of the true nature of the universe (Nisbett, 2003). Their metaphysical concerns led to a preoccupation with the same "why" questions scientists might pose today. Eastern cultures such as China, Korea, and Japan, however, were barely exposed to Greek culture. Instead, Asian philosophies, influenced by Confucian, Buddhist, and Taoist ideas, led to the development of a stratified society with strong family values and a belief in the power of one's surroundings. In such a society, metaphysical concerns were irrelevant, and importance was placed instead on the "Dao," or the way to live. Throughout Asian history then, "attention . . . is on action in this world, not on knowledge of it." (Ram-Prasad, 2005). Here, rather than "why" the central concern becomes "how" in questions such as "How am I to live in relation to the world and to others?"

These two philosophies form the basis for differences in values and in individual behavior today. Nisbett's (2003) research reveals fundamental psychological differences between Asians and westerners. He reports on a number of experiments which compare their social life and their logic, as well as their interpretations of the self and the environment. These psychological differences will be the focus of this paper.

Preparatory Research and Workshop Procedure

Before the workshop, 60 volunteers (27 Westerners from 12 nations and 33 Koreans) completed a 10-question survey based on Nisbett's (2003) scientific tests, in order to determine the extent of Korean-western differences and to compare these with workshop attendees' intuitions about cultural variance. The workshop's four aims were:

1. To establish that there are differences between Koreans and westerners.
2. To determine the nature of these differences.
3. To speculate on possible issues that could arise in the workplace as a result of these differences.
4. To propose potential solutions to these issues so that employees may work together harmoniously and effectively.

RESULTS

The Workshop

As workshop attendees, most of whom were western, trickled into the lecture room, they each took a survey. After completing this, proceedings commenced with the question: “Are there differences between westerners and Koreans?” to which everyone intuitively responded in the affirmative. In order to determine the nature of these differences, participants then discussed the survey in groups and selected questions where they thought Koreans and westerners would differ. Subsequently, the results of the pre-workshop survey were revealed and compared with attendee responses.

Conditions for the Interpretation of Results

It should be mentioned here that the survey was intended as preliminary research to indicate possible areas for further investigation, not to make definitive claims about either culture. It is difficult, for instance, to test all of thought or culture, as people are not just made up of nationality, but they are of different ages, sexes, social backgrounds, etc. In addition, it is unclear what exactly constitutes a “westerner” or an “Asian.” Thus, only cautious conclusions may be reached based on survey results.

Pre-workshop Survey Results

SPSS Version 19 (IBM, 2010) was used to obtain statistical information about the pre-workshop surveys. Statistically significant differences (p = <.05) between westerners and Koreans were found in only three of the questions. These are depicted in graphs from SPSS (IBM, 2010).

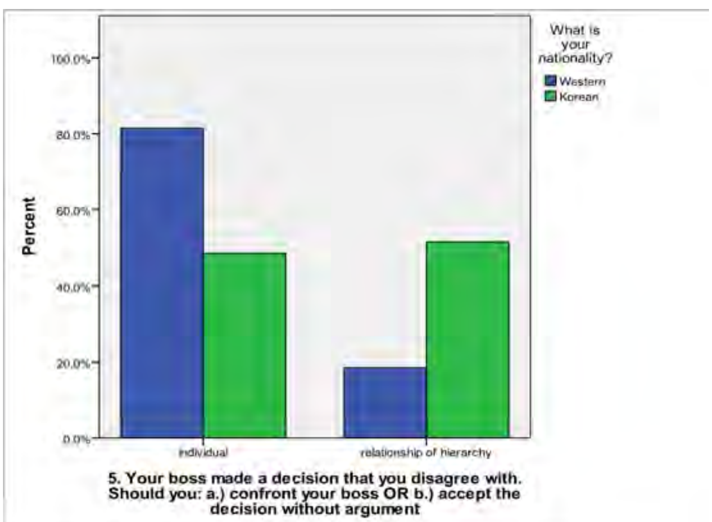

FIGURE 1. Differences in responses to question 5 between Koreans and westerners. Q5 (p = .008). Your boss made a decision that you disagree with. Should you: (a) confront your boss, OR (b) accept the decision without argument.

Eighty percent of western respondents chose answer “a,” suggesting that individual rights were placed over the needs of the hierarchy, whereas Koreans were equally distributed between both answers.

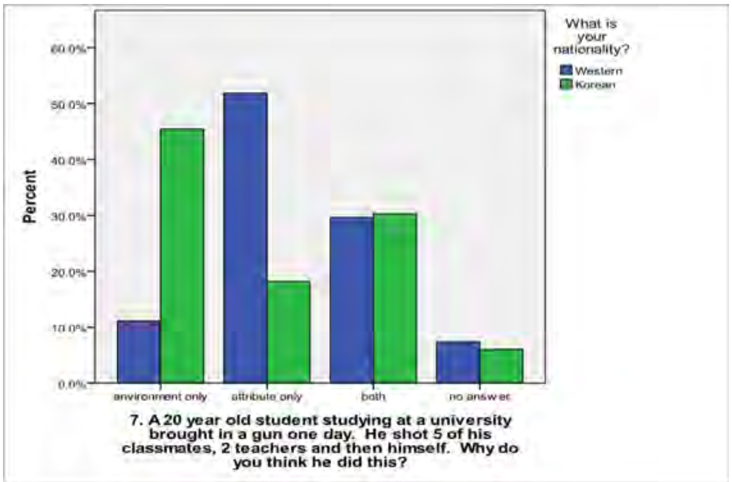

FIGURE 2. Differences in responses between westerners and Koreans to Question 7. Q7 (p = .012). A 20-year-old student studying at a university brought in a gun one day. He shot 5 of his classmates, 2 teachers and then himself. Why do you think he did this?

More than half of westerners thought that the man himself was at fault and assigned him attributes like “crazy,” “violent,” and even “sexually frustrated.” Most Koreans, on the other hand, thought that only aspects of his environment, such as pressures from school or bullying had caused the atrocity. An equal number of Koreans and westerners thought that both the man’s character and his environment had contributed to the situation. A small number of both nationalities did not feel comfortable answering the question.

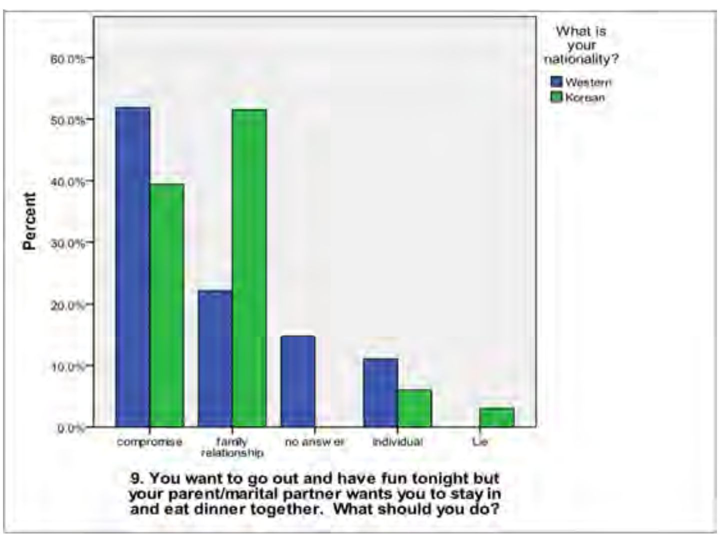

FIGURE 3. Differences in responses to question 9 between Koreans and westerners. Q9 (p = .04). You want to go out and have fun tonight but your parent/marital partner wants you to stay in and eat dinner together. What should you do?

In this situation, more westerners than Koreans chose to seek a compromise and more Koreans than westerners complied with their families’/partners’ wishes without argument. There were an almost equal number who simply chose to go out anyway, some westerners who didn't answer the question, and one Korean who decided to lie.

DISCUSSION

Workshop Implications

Although Koreans and westerners differ in some ways, no significant differences were found in seven of the questions, suggesting that similarities across cultures are most prominent. It is interesting to note that workshop attendees predicted a far greater number of differences than survey evidence showed. Could this have an impact on views about other cultures? If people consider cultural variation to be greater than it really is, must this preconception also be overcome in order to work together well?

The Nature of the Differences

Differences found in the surveys could affect how westerners and Koreans see the world, what they value most, and consequently, how they behave in the workplace. Question 5 highlights western emphasis on individual choice and an embracement of confrontation without any fear of discord, much like the ancient Greeks. A Korean, on the other hand, might place just as much importance on compliance with a superior's wishes in order to preserve harmony. Here, conformity and accommodation may take precedence over individuality.

TABLE 1. The Nature of Differences Discovered, Loosely Based on Hofstede (n.d.)

Question	Western	vs.	Korean
5	Individuality		Conformity
	Confrontation		Accommodation
	Discord		Harmony
7	Attribution		Contribution
	Responsibility		Unaccountability
	Simplicity		Complexity
9	Equality		Inequality
	Human Value		Group Value
	Influence		Uncontrollability

The western tendency to give an individual the responsibility for his/her actions without considering other contributing factors is apparent in question 7. This is a simple view of the world, based on causal logic, to which Koreans seem to have had limited exposure. Koreans instead tend to see reality as a complex place, where many external factors could contribute to a person's behavior. The individual of this world seems less accountable for his/her actions, since there is rarely ever an "individual" cause.

Question 9's compromises, which take into account the needs of both parties, reveal that westerners place a value on equal rights of the self and the other. In addition, the fact that they think a compromise is worth pursuing indicates that they feel they have a degree of influence over the situation. Conversely, the Koreans' complex, ever changing environment may be hard to control.

Here the family offers stability, and expects support in return. In such a world, individual rights may become insignificant when "the needs of the many outweigh the needs of the few" (by Spock in Sallin, Bennett, & Meyer, 1982).

Issues in the Workplace

At this point, workshop attendees discussed situations they had experienced at work which they thought had arisen from these differences. One western contributor described a situation when she had felt frustrated: She had been rushing to an appointment when a Korean member of staff had stopped her and asked her to attend a meeting later that day. Her frustration stemmed from the co-worker's request, which seemed arbitrary compared to the more urgent task at hand. Clearly, the employees had conflicting priorities which could have been a result of cultural differences.

Overcoming Differences

In the next task, teams devised ways of combating workplace issues arising from differences. The western contributor above, for example, began by reexamining her colleague's priorities. She discovered that she could better understand her co-worker's actions by looking at them from the perspective of the group, even though this meant neglecting her needs as an individual. In order to resolve the issue, she suggested that she could have shown more gratitude to the Korean employee for inclusion in the group's meeting. Stopping for a short moment to nurture relationships suddenly seemed less pointless, and even became valuable to the fostering of successful intercultural relations.

General Implications

When logic offers no helpful explanation for events, westerners may need to become aware of other, previously unconsidered perspectives, like the cultivation of relationships. And Koreans in turn might need to become more tolerant of western behaviors that do not put the group first. As causal logic is important to the *effective* functioning of the workplace, and amicable relationships are necessary for its *smooth* functioning, the acknowledgment of both equally valid approaches would seem crucial to the success of business transactions.

CONCLUSION

This workshop confirmed the existence of cultural differences and examined the nature of these with regard to values and behaviors. Potential issues arising in the workplace as a result of differences were discussed, with particular attention to one contributor's example. This example was then used to devise a method for understanding a co-worker's culture. Perhaps the most important finding, however, was the preponderance of *similarities* between Koreans and westerners. The multicultural employee might thus do well to bear in mind that differences, which tend to be more conspicuous than similarities, may seem more significant than they really are.

It is hoped that this session has provided some insight into the reasoning behind workplace behavior, and that it has equipped attendees with the basic tools they need to overcome misunderstandings. If employees are indeed encouraged to overcome differences and to work to their cultural strengths, multicultural businesses may even enjoy more success than their mono-cultural counterparts.

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Speaking of Making Speeches, The How, The What and The Why

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Speech-making has long been a popular classroom activity and a much sought-after skill throughout the world. Despite this popularity, it has been my experience, through observing speech-making classes and acting as a judge in speech-making competitions both in the UK and Asia, that many teachers and students are unaware of the skills and strategies that are required for producing and presenting an effective speech. An awareness of "good" language strategies can also support effective teaching, as a teacher aims to inform and persuade even whilst facilitating. The key strategies were applied to Hillary Clinton's (2008, August 26, 27) Democratic Convention speech and generally taken from those presented by Max Atkinson (1984) in his book "Our Masters Voices."

This paper aims to provide information on some of the key speech-making strategies and speech-making skills. The focus of the paper will be limited to language-based discourse strategies. The information in the paper will be of use to teachers, teacher trainers, and teachers of English.

INTRODUCTION

Max Atkinson (1984) has stated that "good" speech-makers, contrary to popular belief, are not blessed but simply use a similar set of effective speech-making strategies. The strategies have remained the same for many centuries, with the addition of recent speech-making enhancements brought about by technological advancements that allow effective visual imagery to support the message and the use of PowerPoint to aid in creating clarity and further transmission of the message. These popular language-based strategies will be described and discussed as well as a few important speech-making skills that even effective speech-makers do not always use. This paper will describe the following strategies: rule of 3, contrasting pairs, metaphors and similes, alliteration and repetition, anecdotal evidence, rhetorical questions, attacking the opposition, praising the group, and specific use of pronouns. The paper has illustrated these speech-making strategies using examples found in Hillary Clinton's (2008, August 26, 27) Democratic Convention speech.

NEGATIVE SPEECH-MAKING BEHAVIORS

Some of the most ineffective speeches I have observed are those where the student has not written the speech. Sometimes the speaker has been made to memorize a speech which they read with little emotion, understanding, or passion, and if a phrase or a word is forgotten, the speaker frequently panics, often being unable to continue.

Speeches should be written by the speaker and be lead by the speaker's interests and passions. The speaker should understand his/her speech and know it well. The speech should not however simply be memorized. The speaker should be prepared to be flexible when reading the speech. This flexibility will allow the speaker to respond to the audience and make any necessary spontaneous changes, allowing for a quick recovery from any memory lapse. It is easy to remind speakers that only they know the content of the speech, so if they make a change or omit something, the audience will not know.

SIMPLE STRATEGIES FOR EFFECTIVE SPEECH-MAKING

Rule of 3

One of the most famous strategies that even beginners and children could be taught to use is the "rule of three" (Atkinson, 1984). The rule of three means saying things in 3-part lists. It is also persuasive to speak using lists of 5, 7, and 13. It is not however as persuasive to speak using lists that have an even number of points. One example of a 3-part list is: "education, education, education" which was said by Tony Blair in his pre-election campaign. Another example of a 3-part list is: "My husband is not the type to run after other women. He is too fine, too decent, and too old!" In this example the last part of the list contains a slight twist. The effect of using a 3-part list is to connect linked points so that an argument will be strengthened. Hillary Clinton's Democratic Convention speech contained a sequence of three that was used also as a slogan: "No way, no how, no McCain." Slogans are phrases that are powerful and allow for a large amount of information in messages to be remembered and repeated frequently by the speaker and audience.

Contrasting Pairs

Another popular strategy noted by Atkinson (1984) is the use of "contrasting pairs." Contrasting pairs are used to draw a contrast between two alternative behaviors, opinions, or actions and are usually presented in a manner in which only one choice could usually be sensibly adopted. The use of a contrasting pair attempts to force the audience to take an ideological stance, a stance that is in agreement with the speaker. A contrasting pair can also be used to emphasis a point, by presenting it next to a contrasting point. One example of contrasting pairs is Marc Antony's statement in Julius Caesar: "I come to bury Caesar, not to praise him" (William Shakespeare Info, 2005). Another example of contrasting pairs, used by Winston Churchill, is: "In wartime, truth is so precious that she should always be attended by a bodyguard of lies." Several contrasting pairs are found in Hillary Clinton's Democratic Convention speech: "more economic stagnation and less affordable health care," "more high gas prices and less alternate energy," "more jobs getting shipped overseas and fewer jobs created here at home." This list of contrasting pairs serves to emphasize the serious issues that Clinton believes that the people in the US are currently facing.

Metaphors and Similes

The rhetorical devices, metaphors, and similes, when used in a speech can create a rich picture that could save a thousand words and be very effective (Speechclub, n.d.). The metaphors and similes are often deeply connected to the speaker's culture, and a quick emotional response and agreement can be evoked after the use of a few metaphors and similes. The best metaphors and similes are usually concrete that is, they are easily understood. These metaphors and similes contain a group consensus as to their meaning. Many famous speakers such as Martin Luther King have used religious metaphors. An example of the use of a metaphor in a speech is: "The road ahead will be long. Our climb will be steep" (Obama victory speech). An example of the use a simile can also be seen in the movie Forrest Gump when Forrest says: "Life is like a box of chocolates –you never know what you are going to get."

Alliteration and Repetition

Repetition and alliteration are also useful classical rhetorical devices that can be used to stress and emphasize points during speech-making. Alliteration is the constant repetition of a sound that may be at the start, beginning, or even middle of the word. An example of alliteration in a speech is: "And above all, I will ask you to join in the work of remaking this nation the only way it has been done in America for 221 years – block by block, brick by brick, calloused hand by calloused hand." Here we can see obvious repetition of both words and sounds. The words "brick," "calloused," and "hand" are repeated, and the beginning and end sounds of "block" and "brick" are also repeated. Repetition and alliteration are very effective speech-making devices. The best repetition however, is where the some language features stay the same and some change. This allows extra issues to be dealt with, and prevents the audience from feeling bored.

Anecdotal Evidence

Speeches can be much more effective if information is provided in the form of anecdotal evidence or stories. Stories help people to understand, and can often contain emotional triggers which will increase the persuasiveness of a speech. Hillary Clinton's Democratic Convention speech contains three anecdotes in a list. The anecdotes are very emotive and serve as "tugs on the heart strings" of the audience and as a reminder of why the audience should vote for Hillary Clinton's party and support the party's social policies. It is easy to see from the following examples of anecdotes how the audience would be moved by Hillary Clinton's speech-making.

> "I will always remember the single mom who had adopted two kids with autism. She didn't have any health insurance, and she discovered she had cancer. But she greeted me with her bald head, painted with my name on it, and asked me to

> fight for health care for her and her children."
> "I will always remember the young man in a Marine Corps T-shirt who waited months for medical care. And he said to me, 'Take care of my buddies. A lot of them are still over there. And then will you please take care of me?' And I will always remember the young boy who told me his mom worked for the minimum wage, that her employer had cut her hours. He said he just didn't know what his family was going to do."

Rhetorical Questions

Rhetorical questions, according to Atkinson (1984), can be an extremely persuasive speech-making strategy. A rhetorical question is a question that is raised by a speaker in which the speaker requires no answer. A question is often directed at the audience so that the speaker can go on and answer the question in the way in which he desires. The speaker, in this way, controls the information and the ideological direction of the content of the speech. It also raises the question in the audience's minds at the moment that the speech is being made. A well-placed question can raise issues that the audience has perhaps never considered before and in doing so be very persuasive. An example of the use of rhetorical questions can be found in Hillary Clinton's Democratic Convention speech. Hillary Clinton poses the questions:

> "Were you in this campaign just for me, or were you in it for that young marine and others like him? Were you in it for that mom struggling with cancer while raising her kids? Were you in it for that young boy and his mom surviving on the minimum wage? Were you in it for all the people in this country who feel invisible?"

This series of rhetorical questions is designed to focus the audience's minds away from who they personally want to head the political party and redirect them to what Hillary Clinton thinks the audience should find important, such as, the people her party wants to help and the unity in the party that is required to win the election. The questions are also reminders of powerful anecdotal evidence provided by Hillary: thus loading the rhetorical questions with extra emotive value and therefore extra persuasiveness (Maitland, 1994, 1997; Queensland Studies Authority, n.d.).

ATTACKING THE OPPOSITION – SLOGANS!

Attacking a group or the opinions of a group that are in opposition to your own is a useful speech-making strategy according to Atkinson (1984). The group you are speaking to will usually not wish to be aligned with the opposition, and this will strengthen their desire to be part of the speaker's group and the group of people at the meeting who support the speaker. It also acts as a useful reminder of the things that the members of the group should not like and should want to change. Hillary Clinton used this tactic on several occasions in her Democratic Convention speech. One example of Clinton attacking the opposition is:

"[1]I haven't spent the past 35 years in the trenches, advocating for children, campaigning for universal health care, helping parents balance work and family, and fighting for women's rights here at home and around the world..."
"... [2]to see another Republican in the White House squander our promise of a country that really fulfills the hopes of our people. And [3]you haven't worked so hard over the last 18 months or [4]endured the last eight years to [5]suffer through more failed leadership. "
"[6]No way, no how, no McCain."

PRAISING THE AUDIENCE – USE OF "YOU"!

Atkinson (1984) has suggested that a good speaker uses a strategy of praising the audience. This strategy can be very persuasive, because it enables to the audience to "feel good" and relax. The audience is likely to be more open to the ideas of the speaker if they feel "liked" by the speaker. The following contains three examples of Hillary Clinton praising the audience. The first example praises the audience by telling them how much she has learnt from them and how much she has been emotionally moved by them[7]:

"You taught me so much, and you made me [8]laugh, and, yes, you even made me cry."
"You allowed me to become part of your lives, and you became part of mine."

In the second example, Hillary Clinton thanks the audience for their vote and states how honored she is to be part of the group and to be speaking to the group.

"Thank you. Thank you all very, very much."
"Thank you. Thank you all very much". I...
"I am so honored to be here tonight."

In the third example, Hillary is praising the audience's strength and determination:

"From the bottom of my heart, thank you. Thank you, because you never gave in and you never gave up. And together we made history."

Throughout the speech, the pronoun "you" has been used in an inclusive way to praise the group. Each member of the group is being praised and is allowed to accept the praise whether they participated in the events and actions that Hillary is praising or not. The use of "you" makes each member of the group feel like he or she is being spoken to individually and this adds extra persuasive value to the speech.

Using Pronouns and Proper Nouns

According to Atkinson (1984), public speakers make a very specific use of pronouns in their attempts to persuade the audience. Speakers often use the pronouns "we" and "our" to highlight the group and group agreement. The pronoun “I” is used sparingly in speech-making. When used well, it can be a persuasive device that allows the audience to see the personal attitudes and opinions of the speaker. An example of the use of the pronoun “we” to promote group solidarity and group action can be seen in the following quote from Hillary Clinton’s Democratic Convention speech:

> “We[9] are on the same team. And none of us[10]can afford to sit on the sidelines. [11]This is a fight for the future, and it’s a fight we must win together.”

An example of the use of the pronoun “I” to stress Hillary’s personal agenda can be found in the following quote:

> “I ran for President to renew the promise of America, to rebuild the middle class and sustain the American dream, to provide opportunity to those who are willing to work hard for it and have that work rewarded, so they could save for college, a home, and retirement, afford gas and groceries, and have a little left over each month.”

The pronouns “they” and “those” are often used to stress people who are not members of the group and do not agree with the speaker.

Hillary generally uses proper nouns or formal titles of famous speakers whom she quotes. However, when she wants to emphasize her closeness to her party leader, she refers to him as “Barack” and to his wife as “Michelle.” In the following quotes, we can see examples of Hillary Clinton alternating between using the full proper nouns and titles and then switching to first names, subtly implying her power and her connection to the people at the “top”:

> “And if we do our part, we’ll do it again with President Obama and the Democrats.”
> “Just think of what America will be as we transform our energy economy, create those millions of jobs, build a strong base for economic growth and shared prosperity, get middle-class families the tax relief they deserve. And I cannot wait to watch Barack Obama sign into law a health care plan that covers every single American. And we know that President Obama will end the war in Iraq responsibly, bring our troops home, and begin to repair our alliances around the world. And Barack will have with him a terrific partner in Michelle Obama. Anyone who saw Michelle’s speech last night knows she will be a great first lady for America.”

SUMMARY

It has not been practical to discuss all possible speech-making strategies in this paper; however, the following useful strategies have been illustrated with explanations and examples: the rule of 3, contrasting pairs, metaphors and similes, alliteration and repetition, anecdotal evidence, rhetorical questions, attacking the opposition, praising the group, and specific use of pronouns. It is important to emphasize to all speakers that in making a speech or in speaking, every word, every gesture, every intonation adopted must fulfill a purpose that helps our speechwork towards persuading the audience. As teachers, we are often in the arena of public speaking. It could be suggested that teachers should pay attention to their everyday speech. It is a teacher's intention to inform and persuade therefore, using speech-making devices in teaching talk could add to our success as a teacher. Certainly, the teaching and usage of these and other speech-making strategies in the speeches of "our" students could lead to an increased success in speech-making competitions and events, not to mention an increased ability to "see through language."

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FOOTNOTES TO THE TEXT

[1]The use of the pronoun "I" to show personal conviction to an issue. "I" should be used infrequently as the speaker could seem too self absorbed if he/she uses it in every sentence.

[2]Attacking the other, or attacking the opposition, to gain support and criticize opposing actions and beliefs.

[3]"You" used in an inclusive way to praise the group and remind the group members of

what they should be thinking and how to respond to the current situation.

[4]Negative verbs to negative emotion "failed" and "endured."

[5]The use of an emotive adjective "suffer" to trigger emotion in the audience.

[6]Both a slogan and a sequence of 3 used to evoke emotion. It is also an attack on the other, the opposition. The audience are intended to remember this when they leave, and it should evoke emotion whenever it is repeated in the future by group members.

[7]The use of the pronoun "you" to praise the audience and remind them of what they have done.

[8]The use of emotive verbs "laugh" and "cry" showing strength of emotion regarding the audience's plight on the speaker, hopefully persuading the audience that Hillary cares about their issues and their lives.

[9]Use of personal pronouns such as "we" and "our" to show group belonging.

[10]The use of the pronoun "us" to show group membership and belonging.

[11]The use of the demonstrative "this" for emphasis.

APPENDIX

HILLARY CLINTON'S DEMOCRATIC CONVENTION SPEECH

Senator Clinton: Thank you. Thank you all.[12]

Thank you. Thank you all very, very much.

Thank you. Thank you all very much. I...I am so honored to be here tonight.

You know, I'm -- I'm here tonight as a proud mother, as a proud Democrat...as a proud senator from New York...a proud American...and a proud supporter of Barack Obama.[13]

[14]My friends, it is time to take back the country we love.[15] And whether you voted for me or you voted for Barack, the time is now to unite as a[16]single party with a single purpose.

We[17] are on the same team. And none of us[18] can afford to sit on the sidelines. [19]This is a fight for the future, and it's a fight we must win together.

[20]I haven't spent the past 35 years in the trenches, advocating for children, campaigning for universal health care, helping parents balance work and family, and fighting for women's rights here at home and around the world...[21]to see another Republican in the White House squander our promise of a country that really fulfills the hopes of our people. And [22]you haven't worked so hard over the last 18 months or [23]endured the last eight years to [24]suffer through more failed leadership.

[25]No way, no how, no McCain.

Barack Obama is my candidate, and he must be our president.

Tonight, I ask you to remember what a presidential election is really about. When the polls have closed and the ads are finally off the air, it comes down to you, the American people, and your lives, and your children's futures.

[26]For me, it's been a privilege to meet you in your homes, your workplaces, and your communities. Your stories reminded me that, every day, America's greatness is bound up in the lives of the American people, [27]your hard work, your devotion to duty, your love for your children, and your determination to keep going, often in the face of enormous obstacles.

[28]You taught me so much, and you made me [29]laugh, and, yes, you even made me cry.

You allowed me to become part of your lives, and you became part of mine.

I will always remember the single mom who had adopted two kids with autism. She didn't have any health insurance, and she discovered she had cancer. But she greeted me with her bald head, painted with my name on it, and asked me to fight for health care for her and her children.

I will always remember the young man in a Marine Corps T-shirt who waited months for medical care. And he said to me, “Take care of my buddies. A lot of them are still over there. And then will you please take care of me?”

And I will always remember the young boy who told me his mom worked for the minimum wage, that her employer had cut her hours. He said he just didn’t know what his family was going to do.

I will always be grateful to everyone from all 50 states, Puerto Rico and the territories... who joined our campaign on behalf of all those people left out and left behind by the Bush administration. To my supporters, to my champions, to my sisterhood of the traveling pantsuits...from the bottom of my heart, thank you. Thank you, because you never gave in and you never gave up. And together we made history.

And along the way, America lost two great Democratic champions who would have been here with us tonight, one of our finest young leaders, Arkansas Democratic Chair Bill Gwatney, who believed with all his heart... that America and the South should be Democratic from top to bottom.

And Congresswoman Stephanie Tubbs Jones, a dear friend to many of us, a loving mother, a courageous leader who never gave up her quest to make America fairer and smarter, stronger and better. Steadfast in her beliefs, a fighter of uncommon grace, she was an inspiration to me and to us all.

Our heart goes out to Stephanie’s son, Mervyn, Jr., and Bill’s wife, Rebecca, who traveled here to Denver to join this family of Democrats.

You know, Bill Gwatney and Stephanie Tubbs-Jones knew that, after eight years of George Bush, people are hurting at home and our standing has eroded around the world.

We have a lot of work ahead of us: jobs lost; houses gone; falling wages; rising prices; the Supreme Court in a right-wing headlock; and our government in partisan gridlock; the biggest deficit in our nation’s history; money borrowed from the Chinese to buy oil from the Saudis; Putin and Georgia; Iran and Iraq.

[30]I ran for president to renew the promise of America, to rebuild the middle class and sustain the American dream, to provide opportunity to those who are willing to work hard for it and have that work rewarded, so they could save for college, a home, and retirement, afford gas and groceries, and have a little left over each month.

To promote a clean energy economy that will create millions of green-collar jobs, to create a health care system that is universal, high-quality, and affordable, so that every single parent knows their children will be taken care of.

We want to create a world-class education system and make college affordable again, to fight for an America that is defined by deep and meaningful equality, from civil rights to labor rights, from women’s rights to gay rights...from ending discrimination to promoting unionization, to providing help for the most important job there is, caring for our families, and to help every child live up to his or her God-given potential, to make America once again a nation of immigrants and of laws, to restore fiscal sanity to Washington, and make our government an institution of the public good, not of private plunder.

To restore America’s standing in the world, to end the war in Iraq, bring our troops home with honor, care for our veterans, and give them the services they have earned.

We will work for an America again that will join with our allies in confronting our shared challenges, from poverty and genocide to terrorism and global warming.

Most of all, I ran to stand up for all those who have been invisible to their government for eight long years. Those are the reasons I ran for president, and those are the reasons I support Barack Obama for president.

I want you - I want you to ask yourselves: Were you in this campaign just for me, or were you in it for that young Marine and others like him?

Were you in it for that mom struggling with cancer while raising her kids?

Were you in it for that young boy and his mom surviving on the minimum wage?

Were you in it for all the people in this country who feel invisible?

We need leaders once again who can tap into that special blend of American confidence and optimism that has enabled generations before us to meet our toughest challenges, leaders who can help us show ourselves and the world that with our ingenuity, creativity, and innovative spirit, there are no limits to what is possible in America.

Now, this will not be easy. Progress never is. But it will be impossible if we don't fight to put a Democrat back into the White House.

We need to elect Barack Obama, because we need a president who understands that America can't compete in the global economy by padding the pockets of energy speculators while ignoring the workers whose jobs have been shipped overseas.

We need a president who understands we can't solve the problems of global warming by giving windfall profits to the oil companies while ignoring opportunities to invest in the new technologies that will build a green economy.

We need a president who understands that the genius of America has always depended on the strength and vitality of the middle class.

Barack Obama began his career fighting for workers displaced by the global economy. He built his campaign on a fundamental belief that change in this country must start from the ground up, not the top down.

And he knows that government must be about "we the people," not "we the favored few."

And when Barack Obama is in the White House, he'll revitalize our economy, defend the working people of America, and meet the global challenges of our times.

Democrats know how to do this. As I recall, we did it before with President Clinton and the Democrats.

And if we do our part, we'll do it again with President Obama and the Democrats.

Just think of what America will be as we transform our energy economy, create those millions of jobs, build a strong base for economic growth and shared prosperity, get middle-class families the tax relief they deserve.

And I cannot wait to watch Barack Obama sign into law a health care plan that covers every single American.

And we know that President Obama will end the war in Iraq responsibly, bring our troops home, and begin to repair our alliances around the world.

And Barack will have with him a terrific partner in Michelle Obama.

Anyone who saw Michelle's speech last night knows she will be a great first lady for America.

And Americans are fortunate that Joe Biden will be at Barack Obama's side...a strong leader, a good man who understands both the economic stresses here at home and the strategic challenges abroad. He's pragmatic, he's tough, and he's wise.

And Joe, of course, will be supported by his wonderful wife, Jill.

They will be a great team for our country.

Now, John McCain is my colleague and my friend. He has served our country with honor and courage. [31]But we don't need four more years of the last eight years...

AUDIENCE: No![32]

Senator Clinton: ... [33]more economic stagnation and less affordable health care...

AUDIENCE: No!

Senator Clinton: ... more high gas prices and less alternative energy...

AUDIENCE: No!

Senator Clinton: ... more jobs getting shipped overseas and fewer jobs created here at home...

AUDIENCE: No!

Senator Clinton: ... more skyrocketing debt, and home foreclosures, and mounting bills that are crushing middle-class families...

AUDIENCE: No!

Senator Clinton: ... more war and less diplomacy...

AUDIENCE: No!

Senator Clinton: ... more of a government where the privileged few come first and everyone else comes last.

AUDIENCE: No!

Senator Clinton: Well, [34]John McCain says the economy is fundamentally sound. John McCain doesn't think 47 million people without health insurance is a crisis. John McCain wants to privatize Social Security. And in 2008, he still thinks it's OK when women don't earn equal pay for equal work. (AUDIENCE BOOS)

Now, with an agenda like that, it makes perfect sense that George Bush and John McCain will be together next week in the Twin Cities, because these days they're awfully hard to tell apart.

You know, America is still around after 232 years because we have risen to every challenge in every new time, changing to be faithful to our values of equal opportunity for all and the common good. And I know what that can mean for every man, woman, and child in America.

I'm a United States senator because, in 1848, a group of courageous women, and a few brave men, gathered in Seneca Falls, New York, many traveling for days and nights...to participate in the first convention on women's rights in our history. And so dawned a struggle for the right to vote that would last 72 years, handed down by mother to daughter to granddaughter, and a few sons and grandsons along the way.

These women and men looked into their daughters' eyes and imagined a fairer and freer world and found the strength to fight, to rally, to picket, to endure ridicule and harassment, and brave violence and jail.

And after so many decades, 88 years ago on this very day, the 19th Amendment, giving women the right to vote, became enshrined in our Constitution.

My mother was born before women could vote. My daughter got to vote for her mother for president. This is the story of America, of women and men who defy the odds and never give up.

[35]So how do we give this country back to them? By following the example of a brave New Yorker, a woman who risked her life to bring slaves to freedom along the Underground Railroad.

On that path to freedom, [36]Harriet Tubman had one piece of advice: "If you hear the dogs, keep going. If you see the torches in the woods, keep going. If there's shouting after you, keep going. Don't ever stop. Keep going. If you want a taste of freedom, keep going."

And even in the darkest moments, that is what Americans have done. We have found the faith to keep going.

[37]I have seen it. I have seen it in our teachers and our firefighters, our police officers, our nurses, our small-business owners, and our union workers. I've seen it in the men and women of our military.

In America, you always keep going. We're Americans. We're not big on quitting.

And, remember, before we can keep going, we've got to get going by electing Barack Obama the next president of the United States.

We don't have a moment to lose or a vote to spare. Nothing less than the fate of our nation and the future of our children hangs in the balance.

I want you to think about your children and grandchildren come Election Day. Think about the choices your parents and grandparents made that had such a big impact on your lives and on the life of our nation.

We've got to ensure that the choice we make in this election honors the sacrifices of all who came before us and will fill the lives of our children with possibility and hope.

That is our duty, to build that bright future, to teach our children that, in America, there is no chasm too deep, no barrier too great, no ceiling too high for all who work hard, who keep going, have faith in God, in our country, and each other.

That is our mission, Democrats. Let's elect Barack Obama and Joe Biden for that future worthy of our great country.

Thank you. God bless you, and Godspeed.

FOOTNOTES TO THE APPENDIX

[12]Welcoming and praising the group.

[13] Sequence of 5 (a use of repetition to persuade and enable listeners to remember what the speaker says it may also be 3 or 7 or another odd number, never an even number).

[14] Assuming friendship, agreement, or closeness with members of the group.

[15] Saying common sense things that everyone in the group can agree with or will find difficulty with disagreeing.

[16]Repetition of the word single to stress the concept of unity. It is always good to repeat concepts and phrases with small changes to appear attractive, less boring, and to add more meaning for the audience.

[17]Use of personal pronouns such as "we" and "our" to show group belonging.

[18]The use of the pronoun "us" to show group membership and belonging.

[19]The use of the demonstrative "this" for emphasis.

[20]The use of the pronoun "I" to show personal conviction to an issue. "I" should be used infrequently as the speaker could seem too self absorbed if he/she uses it in every sentence.

[21]Attacking the other, or attacking the opposition, to gain support and criticize opposing actions and beliefs.

[22]"You" used in an inclusive way to praise the group and remind the group members of what they should be thinking and how to respond to the current situation.

[23]negative verbs to negative emotion "failed" and "endured."

[24]The use of an emotive adjective, "suffer," to trigger emotion in the audience.

[25]Both a slogan and a sequence of 3 used to evoke emotion. It is also an attack on the other, the opposition. The audience are intended to remember this when they leave, and it should evoke emotion whenever it is repeated in the future by group members.

[26]A sequence of 3, the repetition of three things to add emotion and add emphasis to a point The repetition of 3, 5, or 7 things is a very common speech strategy to create emotion, stress a point, and add extra evidence.

[27]A sequence of 4 using the word "your" to focus the audience's minds on issues that the audience should care about.

[28]The use of the pronoun "you" to praise the audience and remind them of what they have done.

[29]The use of emotive verbs "laugh" and "cry" showing strength of emotion regarding the audience's plight on the speaker, hopefully persuading the audience that Hillary cares about their issues and their lives.

[30]A personal statement using the pronoun "I." This shows Hillary's intentions and personal belief system, this gives the audience confidence to believe that she has good intentions and supports the same beliefs as the group.

[31]Attacking the opposition, stating what the audience should not like about the opposition's past actions or behavior. However, "I" should be used sparingly in a

speech because, if overused, it makes the speaker sound too self-absorbed.

[32]Audience encouraged to participate and repeat phrases. Interactive speeches are more enjoyable and persuasive for the audience! The audience has a chance to feel ownership of the ideas in the speech and have a chance to express their conviction for the issues spoken about.

[33]A sequence of 6 using the word “more” to create repetition and therefore, emphasis. This stresses what the group do not need and also attacks the political opposition and the opposition’s past actions.

[34]Attacking the ideas and concepts of the opposition the opposition in this speech being John McCain.

[35]The use of rhetorical questions to raise questions that the speaker can then go on to answer,

[36]Quoting emotive quotes from famous people can be very persuasive. At this point in the speech, Hillary quotes Harriet Tubman. The quote also uses repetition to give emphasis to the need for the group to continue with its fight for its political concerns.

[37]A statement of conviction and belief regarding what Hillary believes and also stating her personal experiences of the actions of professional workers.

Reading: Take Away the 10-Question Syndrome from Our Students

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Reading lessons, to some students, become the most difficult activity because of obstacles they find while reading, such as the feeling of needing to know every word. Moreover, teachers have widely used the after-reading-question method to check students' comprehension, which leads to monotonous activities in the reading lesson. Giving more attractive activities after reading, such as filling out a form or replying to an email, will enhance students' interest in and willingness to do a reading activity; and thus increase student reading competence. Reading activities, when also integrated with other skills such as writing, speaking, or listening, provide a better learning atmosphere because they are closer to real life and more engaging. In the workshop activities, double-text reading was chosen because these are engaging and motivating. In double reading and the activities that follow, students make the most use of their brain in analyzing and relating two texts.

THE 10-QUESTION SYNDROME

In reading activities, some teachers give comprehension questions after students read the text. This is what is meant by the 10-question syndrome: usually the reading comprehension check consists of 10 questions. This monotonous reading activity, if not combined with other activities, will lead to boredom and loss of interest in the reading lesson.

THE WORKSHOP

The presentation demonstrated the types of activities that teachers can do with their students to engage students in a more pleasing reading lesson. In the workshop, the presenters allowed the participants to experience three reading activities that were closer to real life compared to question and answer activities. The participants acted as students in engaging activities in which they actively participated. The reading activities integrated more than one skill i.e., they combined reading with listening, writing, or speaking. The readings were double-text readings so that they were more challenging than a single-text reading. In working on double-text reading, students not only learn the language but also analyze what they read, so that they maximize the use of their brain. The activities ranged from basic to advanced level.

The First Activity

At the beginning of the activity, students were presented with menu covers, but they were not informed that these were menu covers. They had to decide what they were. After the students expressed their opinions, the teacher informed them that these were menu covers. The students were then asked what kind of restaurants had that kind of menus. They then worked in pairs making menus after they were given vocabulary to help them in making the menus.

The Second Activity

In the second activity, the participants worked in pairs. They were presented with flight schedule information, which consisted of departure and arrival times, flight numbers, number of stops and ticket prices. One student in each pair acted as a travel agent and the other was a person who wanted to go on a trip. The travel agent provided information based on the schedule information given and the traveler had to decide which flight best suited him/her. The student was then asked why he/she chose the flight. This activity is for advanced level students.

The Third Activity

The third activity was for advanced level students. Students were asked to work in groups of four. Three of the students in each group acted as office staff and the other acted as their supervisor. The supervisor asked the staff to look for and book a room for an office meeting. There were five rooms to choose from. Each of the staff had different information about the meeting rooms: information related to their location and distance from the office, details of the meeting room, other services, and the price per day. They had to combine the information into one complete list by asking each other for the information they lacked. When they had gathered all the information, they had to decide which meeting room would suit them best. The students were then asked why they chose that meeting room as the best place for the office meeting.

TEACHING READING

In the three activities that involved the participants as students, it was shown that the activities that are closer to real-life activities are more interesting and avoid boredom. These activities engaged the students and were more challenging. For example, in the third activity, the students had to choose the best meeting room for their situation. In deciding, they had to analyze the information they had: the location, the distance of each from the office, details of the meeting room, other services, and price. They had to compare five meeting rooms before they could come up with the best one based on the combination of those five aspects of the meeting rooms.

In performing these activities, students get used to problem solving instead of only being checked on their understanding of the reading. The activities also support students' communicative competence, which is a important goal in

English learning. The main goal of language learning is not only mastery of the language structures and vocabulary, but also developing the competence to use the language in real-life communication and problem solving as a vehicle to achieve goals.

According to Kidd and Czerniawski (2010), "social learning theory emphasizes the need for interaction for learning to take place. Learning is seen to be at its most productive when learners learn with and from each other" (p. 197). All the activities demonstrated in the workshop implemented this theory in demanding interaction between learners in order for them to finish the tasks. Therefore, they promoted the most productive learning.

Using double- and multi-text reading in teaching reading, teachers promote student-centered activity in their class. Biggs (1999) claims that one of the theories of how teaching works is "Learning is a result of students' learning-focused activities, which are engaged in by students as a result of both their own perception and inputs, and of the total teaching context" (p. 21). It is shown that in order for learning to take place, the students need to engage in activities that support the internalization of knowledge or skills they need to master. Learning is not in the hands of the teacher or the students only, but it is the result of efforts from both parties, with students' activities as the main means of achieving the expected outcome. As in activity three, students have to choose which meeting room is best, based on their varying perceptions. This can be a trigger for discussion, which will make the activities more engaging for the learners and increase the possibility of learning occurring.

Print (1993) argues, "we know that most students will learn certain things very effectively if we can expose them to learning activities that are as life-like as possible" (p. 176). Activities two and three are likely to happen in real life and will lead to effective learning because the students know that they might have to arrange for travel and might need to arrange a meeting once they are working.

Print (1993) also argued that "by involving students in experience they might encounter in the real world, albeit simplified for the pedagogical purposes, learners have the opportunity to obtain a powerful understanding of the situation" (p. 176). It is important for students to be able to use what they have learned in the classroom in their real life. To achieve this goal, they have to be given exposure and a chance to practice their English in real or realistic communication. It is hoped that with this approach, the students will get used to communicating in English, so that they don't only use it in the classroom. It is expected that the moment they step out of the classroom, they will still have the habit of communicating in English as a result of the realistic communication they usually have in the classroom.

DOUBLE-TEXT AND MULTI-TEXT READING

The activities demonstrated in the workshop had two or more texts that students need to work on. This is what we mean by double-text or multi-text reading. The activity on "finding a flight ticket" involves several reading texts, where students work in pairs: one student is a travel agent, and the other one, the traveler. Presented with several flight schedules, the travel agent will need to review the text so that she/he will be able to recommend the most suitable flight to the traveler. The traveler, listening to the information given by the agent, will choose which flight she/he would like to take.

In the "finding the best meeting room" activity, the double-text context can be seen in the two worksheets (email from the boss and the venue analysis sheet). Each student works with two related texts, where text 1 (the assignment email) needs to be understood fully before students go with text 2 (venue analysis). Each text does not give any direct comprehension questions, but it leads to further critical thinking. This activity is more than answering factual questions. There is a greater need than the need to understand the texts (which is customary when students are required to answer factual questions): the need to be able to analyze the text, to sum up what they read, and to take the action that is assigned in the first text.

Double- and multi-text reading involve students in a broad range of classroom and higher reading activities. Instead of only finding facts and answering factual questions, students are involved in discussing and analyzing the reading text, which means that most of the students' time is spent being active, instead of teacher's time being spent talking and explaining. Teachers are facilitators in these kinds of activities.

The double-text reading does not involve very long texts such as article and journal reading, which usually makes the texts difficult, because, as Harmer (2001) states, longer texts are more difficult for the reader to understand. In the activities demonstrated in the workshop, it is not merely the reading that is emphasized; rather, what is important is understanding the reading through answering comprehension questions.

CONCLUSION

Double-text reading, as demonstrated in the workshop, promotes the activation of students' critical thinking skills as well as the reduction of teacher talk time, and introduces the concept of learning English in situations that are close to real life so that students can use them in real life.

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Conference Overview

Presentations of

The 19th Annual KOTESOL International Conference

Pushing our Paradigms; Connecting with Culture
October 15-16, 2011, Seoul Korea

The 2011 Korea TESOL International Conference Committee gratefully recognizes the following individuals for presenting research papers, conducting workshop sessions, and leading discussions at the 19th Annual Korea TESOL International Conference.

Plenary Speakers

Keith Folse	English Grammar Nightmares: The 3 P's
Stephen Krashen	Seeking a Justification for Direct Instruction
B. Kumaravadivelu	Connecting Global Cultures and Local Identities in the English Language Classroom

Featured Speakers

Ken Beatty	From Printed Page to Immersive Experience: Making CALL Work in the Classroom
Robert J. Dickey	Beyond Words: Reflecting on Classes and the State of Korean ELT
Gavin Dudeney	New Literacies: Teachers & Learners
Nicholas Groom	DIY Corpora for EFL Teachers
Muna Morris-Adams	It's Good to Talk: Understanding and (Mis)understanding in Intercultural Communication
Chuck Sandy	Building a Community of Leaders in ELT
Setsuko Toyama	Connecting Culture to Class: Problems, Pitfalls and Practical Approaches for Elementary Teachers

Assessment / Testing

John Anderson	Using the Moodle Quiz Module to Develop and Analyze Tests
Adam Arra	First-Year English: Grading Fairness in Mixed-Level Classes
Phillipa Arthur	Assessing Oral Ability: An Overview of Elicitation Techniques
Peadar Callaghan	Developing and Managing Basic Speaking Assessment for Large Classes

Sara Davila	Developing and Managing Basic Speaking Assessment for Large Classes
Andrew Gorringe	Using the Moodle Quiz Module to Develop and Analyze Tests
Martin Hawkes	An Analysis of Learner Interaction in Task-Based Oral Proficiency Assessment
Bruce Lander	A Non-traditional Approach to the TOEIC Classroom: Introducing Student Self-Constructed TOEIC Tests
Shelley Lawson	First-Year English: Grading Fairness in Mixed-Level Classes
Douglas Meyer	Language Proficiency Exams: Comparing the IELTS, BULATS, and STEP Eiken Exams
Douglas Sewell	First-Year English: Grading Fairness in Mixed-Level Classes
Joseph Vitta	Making Valid and Reliable Speaking Tests
Soo Ha Sue Yim	Techniques to Testing Spoken Language

Classroom Management

Oliver Bayley	Successful English Lessons and How to Create Them!
Jackie Bolen	Motivation: Reward Systems That Actually Work
Wayne Bottiger	Maximizing Learner Participation While Reducing Teacher Talk Time
Clare Conway	Delivering Successful Learner Interaction in the Language Classroom: Applying Basic Guidelines
Kristin Dalby	Create a Win-Win Syllabus for Your University Students Through Classroom Negotiation
Tim Dalby	Create a Win-Win Syllabus for Your University Students Through Classroom Negotiation
Sara Davila	Classroom Management: Supportive, Corrective and Preventative Measures
Terry Faulkner	Teaching Younger Learners: What’s the Secret?
Ken Morrison	From Politeness to Participation: Changing Asian Classrooms’ Atmosphere Without Changing Students’ Culture
Heidi Vande Voort Nam	Do They Get It?: Six Techniques for Monitoring Students’ Comprehension in Class
Leonie Overbeek	Team Teaching in Korean Classrooms
Heather Richards	Delivering Successful Learner Interaction in the Language Classroom: Applying Basic Guidelines
Joe Walther	The Effect of Affect in Collaborative Writing

Content-Based Instruction

Calum Adamson	Scaffolding Authentic Materials for Motivation and Acquisition in Immersion Classes
Clara Lee Brown	Content-Based English Instruction and Curriculum for Korean Students
Clara Lee Brown	Deep Scaffolding: Ways to Help EFL Learners Navigate in Content Reading
Markus Burkhart	English Medium Content Instruction: Change and Challenge for Korean Universities
Chanmi Hong	Maximize English Language and Content Learning with Language Central!
Richard Miller	An Application of CBI in Japanese Universities Teaching Geopolitical Challenges of Energy.
William Packard	Science Fusion: Interactivity in the Classroom
Eun Sil Seo	Content-Based English Instruction and Curriculum for Korean Students
Eun Sil Seo	Deep Scaffolding: Ways to Help EFL Learners Navigate in Content Reading
Douglas Sewell	English-Medium Content Instruction: Change and Challenge for Korean Universities
David E. Shaffer	Content-Based Instruction Considerations for Tertiary-Level Instruction
Rodney Stubbs	Post-modernism and the Learning Environment

Conversation / Pronunciation

Gilly Dempster	Cross-curricular Content … Without the Blood, Sweat and Tears
Gilly Dempster	The Making of a Child Ambassador
Alastair Graham-Marr	Introducing Strategies for Communicative Competence
Patrick Hafenstein	21st Century Skills for Today’s College Students
Patrick Hafenstein	The Art of Communication
Julie Hwang	Make Learning Fun and Memorable with Everybody Up!
Julie Hwang	Bring Your Classroom to Life with the New Let’s Go 4th Edition!
David Jones	K.I.S.S. English for Young English Learners’ Exploration and Use of New Speaking Skills
David Jones	Effective Way of Approaching Speaking Classes for Children

Miji Jung	Teaching English Speaking with Four Principles (Back to the Basics)
Nathan Paul Krug	Learners' Turn-Taking Strategies: A Case Study of Conversation-Room Interaction
Amanda Maitland el Amri	Speaking of Making Speeches: The How, the What and the Why
Justin McKibben	Getting More Conversation into Conversation Classes
Kyungnan Park	Implementing Effective Shadowing English Program
Christie Provenzano	Revising a Conversation: A Unique Opportunity
Jeffrey Walter	My Ten Favorite Role-Plays for University Students
Sorrell Yue	Revising a Conversation: A Unique Opportunity

Corpus Linguistics

Nicholas Groom	Using Learner Corpora to Connect with Students' Cultures
Nicholas Groom	DIY Corpora for EFL Teachers

Critical Thinking

Chuck Sandy	Critical Thinking 2.0: Thinking, Doing, Changing

Cross-cultural / Intercultural Communication

Scott Aubrey	The Effect of Environment and Intercultural Contact on L2 Motivation
Jody Allan Barron	Adapting to the Globalization of Language, Institutions, and Businesses
Julie Ciancio	Teachers Connecting Crossculturally: A New Paradigm for Intercultural Professional Mentoring
Lynne Diaz-Rico	Teachers Connecting Crossculturally: A New Paradigm for Intercultural Professional Mentoring
Robert Kienzle	Adapting to the Globalization of Language, Institutions, and Businesses
Eun-Jeong Kim	Teachers Connecting Crossculturally: A New Paradigm for Intercultural Professional Mentoring
Shelley Lawson	Love or Logic? A Cultural Guide for Westerners and Koreans Working Together
Andrew Nowlan	The Effect of Environment and Intercultural Contact on L2 Motivation
Andee Pollard	Improving International Communication: A Proposal for Korea
Claire Schadler	Teaching Students About Culture Shock

Culture and Language Learning

Grant Agawa	Instructor Knowledge of Student-Shared Social Practices in an EFL Context
Michael Boustany	Using Interactive Cross-cultural Montage Presentations to Engage EFL Learners
Clare Conway	Intercultural Language Learning: An Observation Framework for Gaining Insights into Teachers' Practice
Michael Greenberg	Using Interactive Cross-cultural Montage Presentations to Engage EFL Learners
Sang Kyung Kim	The Effectiveness of Cultural Content-Based English Teaching
B. Kumaravadivelu	Raising Global Cultural Consciousness in the English Language Classroom
B. Kumaravadivelu	Connecting Global Cultures and Local Identities in the English Language Classroom
Muna Morris-Adams	It's Good to Talk: Understanding and (Mis)understanding in Intercultural Communication
Muna Morris-Adams	Beauty Contests and Murder: Topics in Intercultural Conversations
Yoonah Rho	How to Enhance Cultural Awareness of Stereotypes
Heather Richards	Intercultural Language Learning: An Observation Framework for Gaining Insights into Teachers' Practice
Setsuko Toyama	Connecting Culture to Class: Problems, Pitfalls and Practical Approaches for Elementary Teachers
Kevin Watson	Instructor Knowledge of Student-Shared Social Practices in an EFL Context

English for Specific / Academic Purposes

Karie Gladis	Learning Out Loud! Repeated Practice and Authentic Settings Promote English Language Development
Justin Kaley	Improving Academic Reading: Preparing Students for Collegiate-Level Study in English
John Adamson	Connecting Disciplines at Japanese University: Adapting EAP to Local Academic Culture
Howard Brown	Connecting Disciplines at Japanese University: Adapting EAP to Local Academic Culture
Yeji Han	Keywords from Academic Writing Corpora: NS-NNS Comparison
Grace Wang	Turning EAP Classrooms of Schools and Universities into Cathedrals of Learning

Global Issues in the Classroom

Brian English	Paint It Green

Grammar

Rebecca Fletcher	Step by Step to Grammar Success!
Keith Folse	Grammar Hot Seat Questions: What If You Don't Know the Answer?
Keith Folse	English Grammar Nightmares: The 3 P's
Sarah Kim	Seven Steps for Bringing Grammar to Life
Yeon-seong Park	Creative Grammar Instruction Techniques

Identity (Learner or Teacher)

Philip Hiver	The Interplay of Possible Language Teacher Selves in Professional Development Choices
Maria Pinto	Who We Are, What We Think: Teachers Talking About Themselves and Teaching
Mark Fifer Seilhamer	English L2 Personas and the Imagined Global Community of English Users
Stacey Vye	Autonomous Language Learning: A Paradigm Shift from Teacher to Learner Control

Korea

Michael Hurt	Cultural Connections: Surviving and Thriving in Korea
Stafford Lumsden	Cultural Connections: Social Media's Perspective on Surviving and Thriving in Korea
Joe McPherson	Cultural Connections: Surviving and Thriving in Korea
Isabelle Min	The Impact of Confucianism Across Korean Culture
Sephen Revere	Cultural Connections: Surviving and Thriving in Korea
Martina Stawski	Cultural Connections: Surviving and Thriving in Korea
Simon Stawski	Cultural Connections: Surviving and Thriving in Korea
Matt VanVolkenburg	Cultural Connections: Surviving and Thriving in Korea

Learning Preferences / Styles

Alina Chirciu	Student Peer Teaching: A Strategy for Exploiting Learner's Autonomy

Marie-Emilie Masson	Student Interaction with Teacher Feedback Through Online Videos
John McGaughey	Pushing the Paradigm: Native English-Speaking Teachers Using Korean to Teach EFL
Ohee Rahman	Developing Learner Autonomy for Korean Learners
Jaewon Yun	Learning Strategies-Based Instruction in Korean EFL College Classrooms

Listening

Peadar Callaghan	Active Listening: Moving Beyond Fill-in-the-Blanks
Rebecca Fletcher	Active and Engaged: Improving Students' Active Listening Skills
Alastair Graham-Marr	Teaching Vital Listening Skills to Lower-Level Learners
Anna S. Y. Lee	Developing Communication Skills though Effective Listening Practice

Literacy / Reading

Ian Bosiak	Engaging Students in Reading Comprehension
Greg Brooks-English	A Yonsei University Academic Reading and Writing Extensive Reading Program: A Model
David Coulson	English Literacy Development in Japanese and Korean Grade Schools
Diyantari Diyantari	Reading: Take Away the 10-Question Syndrome from Your Students
Rebecca Fletcher	Building English Language Skills Through Reading Fluency
Simon Gillett	The Korean English Extensive Reading Association
Karie Gladis	Academic Success Through Content-Area Literacy
Chanmi Hong	Little Books for the Little Learners of English!
Julie Hwang	Connect Your Students to the World Through Graded Readers!
Justin Kaley	From Vocabulary Acquisition to Confident Reading
Justin Kaley	"Big Questions" for Little Students: Introducing Authentic Reading at the Primary Level
Gemma Kang	Phonics Show, the Good Beginning for Fluent Reading and Writing
Joohee Kim	Effective Activities Through On-Off Blended Intensive Reading
Stephen Krashen	Trends in Sustained Silent Reading

Stephen Krashen	Seeking a Justification for Direct Instruction
Mary Lou McCloskey	Teaching Language Through Literature
Scott Miles	Introduction to Extensive Reading
Rocky Nelson	A Four-Strands Approach to Developing an Extensive Reading Program
Novi Rahayu Restuningrum	Reading: Take Away the 10-Question Syndrome from Your Students
Eunsol Shin	How Can Graded Readers Trigger Inner Motivation of Learning?
Lewis Thompson	Bringing History to Life in the English Classroom
Rob Waring	Making Graded Readers: Issues for Authors and Users

Materials / Course Design

Calum Adamson	Model United Nations for EFL Students: Preparation and Outcomes
Phillipa Arthur	Basic Concepts in Thinking About Teaching: The Importance of Lesson Objectives
Allison Bill	Guidelines for Preparing and Teaching an English Conversation Class
Kathleen Brown	Changing the Curriculum Paradigms: Implementing a New NA Model for University Language Programs
Matthew Coomber	Putting the “Multiple” into “Multiple Choice”
Michael Free	101-K: Introduction to Korean *Elementary School English* Textbook Activities
Roger Fusselman	Eliciting: Why, How, and How Not
Robert Kienzle	Storytelling in Life, Lessons and Presentations
Melanie Steyn	Use Your Own Conversations to Teach English Conversation
Froilan Vispo	Role Play 101: Crafting Role Plays That Connect with Students

Multiple Skills

Charles J. Anderson	Closing the Loop: Techniques to Provide and Generate Classroom Feedback
Justin Barbaree	Movie Making: A Class Curriculum
Oliver Bayley	Empower Your Students with the Skills Needed to Achieve Academic Success

Ken Beatty	Moving Young Learners from Teacher Dependence to Independent Learning
Grant Black	Identity and Values with “This I Believe”
Sarah Christian	Effective Strategies and Methods for Teaching English Without a Common Language
Matthew Coomber	Integrating Skills Through Survey-Based Project Work
Roger Fusselman	Middle-School Portfolios for Independent English Learning
Amanda Green	Effective Strategies and Methods for Teaching English Without a Common Language
Vincent Greenier	“Critical” Transformation: Enhancing EFL Textbooks with Critical Thinking
Stephen-Peter Jinks	Integrating the Four Strands
Aaron Jolly	21st Century Young Learner ELT: Tools and Techniques for Motivation, Materials and Practice
Sam Lee	English in Common: A Clear Path to Success with the CEF
Michael Massey	“Critical” Transformation: Enhancing EFL Textbooks with Critical Thinking
Shawn McKay	Movie Making: A Class Curriculum
Edward Sanchez	Digital Storytelling: A Modern Expression of an Ancient Art
Tory Thorkelson	Webgems: Resourcing Your Classroom on the Internet
Setsuko Toyama	English Time 2nd Edition: A New Look and More Content!
Setsuko Toyama	Stories, Songs and Smiles in the EFL Classroom of Young Learners
Robert Waring	The One Correct Answer: Its Implications
So-Jung Yoo	How to Promote Multiple Intelligences of Young Learners in the EFL Classroom

Pecha Kucha

Ken Beatty	Making Use of Schema Theory: A Snowy Example
Robert J. Dickey	KOTESOL: 19 Years in 20 Slides
Gavin Dudeney	A Personal Reading List
Keith Folse	Perhaps the Strangest Example of Culture
Nicholas Groom	General Arguments for Specific Corpora in the EFL Classroom
Julien McNulty	The History of English in Verse
Chuck Sandy	It’s Inside You

Reflective Teaching Practice

Wanqing Cheng	Overcoming the Culture Obstacle: Integrating Critical Thinking with College English Writing Education
Thomas S. C. Farrell	Reflective Practice: Looking at the Teacher
Thomas S. C. Farrell	Reflective Practice: Looking at the Classroom
Thomas S. C. Farrell	Reflecting on Reflective Practice: (Re)Visiting Dewey and Schon
Sreemali Herath	Impact of Language Learning Experiences on EFL Teachers' Professional Practices
Lyndon Hott	Evaluation of the Freshman Integrated Program at Dongguk University, Gyeongju
Leonie Overbeek	Paradigm Shifts in Korea: Sisyphus's Labour?
Shannon Tanghe	Pushing Toward Higher Teacher Competency: Professional Development for TESOL Educators

Second Language Acquisition

Adam Arra	Initial Investigations into EFL Teacher Beliefs at the Korean University Level
Mitchell Clark	A Study of Language Interaction Patterns in an Overseas Homestay Environment
Douglas Meyer	Principles for Second Language Acquisition in East Asia
David E. Shaffer	Challenging Popular Opinions on Language Learning and Teaching

Sociolinguistics / Language Policy / World Englishes

Keith Barrs	L2 Vocabulary in the L1 Environment: A Digital Photography Action Research Project
Jake Breaux	Korean University Students' Attitudes Towards Varieties of English
Jou Hwi Jung	Creating Positive "Imagined Communities": A University English Volunteer Club's Community Outreach
Jean Kim	Creating Positive "Imagined Communities": A University English Volunteer Club's Community Outreach
Yoo Jeong Lee	Creating Positive "Imagined Communities": A University English Volunteer Club's Community Outreach
Shannon Tanghe	Incorporating a World Englishes Focus into a University Speaking Course

Teacher Development

David Bracey	Professional Advancement Through Online MA TESOL and Certification Programs
Tim Dalby	Teacher Training in Korea, Now and in the Future
Robert J. Dickey	Training Teachers of English to Very Young Learners (TEVYL) 2-10
Robert J. Dickey	Beyond Words: Reflecting on Classes and the State of Korean ELT
James Forrest	The Cambridge TKT: The Flexible Teachers' Exam
Michael Griffin	Teacher Training in Korea, Now and in the Future
Nicholas Groom	University of Birmingham Distance MA and PhD Programs
Robert Kienzle	Toastmasters: Using the Benefits of a Nonprofit Public Speaking Club to Improve Teaching
Jake Kimball	Training Teachers of English to Very Young Learners (TEVYL) 2-10
Josette LeBlanc	Teacher Training in Korea, Now and in the Future
Cheri Lee	The Debate as a Language Learning Tool: Insight into Versatile Roles
Cheri Lee	Designing a Leveled Debate Curriculum: An Alternative to Productive Skill Classes
Valentin Macias	Toastmasters: Using the Benefits of a Nonprofit Public Speaking Club to Improve Teaching
Muna Morris-Adams	Aston Universisty Programs
Leslie Opp-Beckman	*American English Online* Opens Doors
Chuck Sandy	Building a Community of Leaders in ELT
George Scholz	*American English Online* Opens Doors
Brad Serl	How to Stay Hot: Motivation of Non-Native English Teachers
Robert Snell	How to Stay Hot: Motivation of Non-Native English Teachers
Bora Sohn	Teacher Training in Korea, Now and in the Future
Tim Thompson	Teacher Training in Korea, Now and in the Future
Minako Yogi	Utilizing ICT Video Conferencing for Pre-service English Teacher Training and Cultural Learning

Technology-Enhanced Instruction / CALL / CMI

Ken Beatty	A University in Your Hand: The Online Learning Paradigm

Ken Beatty	From Printed Page to Immersive Experience: Making CALL Work in the Classroom
Andrew Boon	Instant Messenger Cooperative Development: Journeys of Discovery
Gavin Dudeney	New Literacies: From Theory to Practice
Gavin Dudeney	New Literacies: Teachers and Learners
Tom Edwards	Teaching English in 140 Characters: Twitter in the Classroom
Michael Free	101-K: Introduction to Korean *Elementary School English* CD-ROMs
Melissa Goldman Shaffer	Blogging and Bravery: A Student-Centered Pedagogical Approach to Using CALL Materials
Trudie Heiman	Connecting to Cloud Culture to Push Language Learning Paradigms
Stephen Henneberry	The Teacher's Tablet: iPads on the Podium
Geo Kim	Phonics in Digital Classroom Environment
Ye-Kyoung Kim	Interactive Language Activities with Multimedia Technology Applications for Classroom Teachers and Students
John McGaughey	Embracing Technology, Culture, and Language Learning Through Multilingual Wiki Creation
Daniel Mills	The Language Matrix: Artificial Intelligent, Language Learning and the War on Terror
Duane Myhre	Educators Adapting to Social Changes in the Classroom: Teaching with Technology
Leslie Opp-Beckman	Speaking Out: Online Resources for Oral-Aural Skills Development
Andrew Prosser	Creating a Homemade Corpus of Spoken English for the Language Classroom
Christie Provenzano	Blogging in the Language Classroom
Lisa So	Using the Interactive Whiteboard Effectively with Diverse Online Contents!
Heidi Louise Song	Building a Website for Your Class with Joomla CMS

Video in the Classroom

Andy Curtis	Teaching with Video/Technology
David Deubelbeiss	Using Video to Adapt Classroom Curriculum
David Deubelbeiss	EnglishCentral - Personalized Language Immersion: A New Way to Use Video in TESOL

Aaron Jolly	Building Video Courses: An Integrated Skills Approach to Personalized Language Immersion
Justin McKibben	Using Digital Storytelling as a Project for Your Students

Vocabulary

Charles J. Anderson	Effective Feedback: Drawing on Students' Ability to Acquire Vocabulary
Charles J. Anderson	Practical Classroom Approaches to Vocabulary Instruction: A Longitudinal Experiment
Christopher Bozek	Spicing Up the ESL Classroom with Rhymes
Luke Fryer	Sentenced to Acquisition
Aaron Gibson	Practical Classroom Approaches to Vocabulary Instruction: A Longitudinal Experiment
Karie Gladis	Academic Vocabulary: Strategies for Success
Mark Howarth	The Effect of Auditory Support on High-Frequency Vocabulary Acquisition
Sarah Kim	From Research to Best Practice
Mary Lou McCloskey	Vocabulary for Your ELL Learners
Tim Pritchard	Practical Classroom Approaches to Vocabulary Instruction: A Longitudinal Experiment
Ohee Rahman	Implementing the Lexical Approach for Korean Learners
Simon Wilkins	Practical Classroom Approaches to Vocabulary Instruction: A Longitudinal Experiment
Alonzo Williams	Effective Instruction of the Top 2000 Words

Writing

Gabriel Allison	Fun and Easy Ideas for Paragraph and Essay Writing
Peter Carter	Essential Concepts in Academic Writing
David Choi	Effective Way of Improving Writing Skills for Children
Brian English	Integrating Online Materials to Facilitate the Writing Process
Keith Folse	Five Practical Activities for a Great Writing Class
Heather Gregg	Preventing Plagiarism: Korean College Students Need Our Help
Patrick Hafenstein	Writing Made Easy for Teachers and Fun for Students
Chanmi Hong	Empower Students with Effective Writing Strategies: Strategies for Writers

Jia Kang	Writing as Structure and Process
Akemi Kawamura	Writing Tasks for International Graduate Students: What Do Professors Expect?
Yeosun Kim	Writing Through Micro-project for Young Learners
Joyce Maeda	Writing Tasks for International Graduate Students: What Do Professors Expect?
William Packard	Teaching Writing with Write Source: Back to Basics!
John Peloghitis	A Review and Guide for Self-Assessment in Second Language Writing
Maria Pinto	Making Peer Editing Work
Tim Roberts	Making Peer Editing Work
Unchalee Sermsongswad	An Effective Writing Skill Teaching Model for Young Learners

Organizational Partner Presentations

Gabriel Allison	Fun and Easy Ideas for Paragraph and Essay Writing
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Oliver Bayley	Empower Your Students with the Skills Needed to Achieve Academic Success
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David Bracey	Professional Advancement Through Online MA TESOL and Certification Programs
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Gemma Kang	*Phonics Show*, the Good Beginning for Fluent Reading and Writing
Jia Kang	Writing as Structure and Process
Geo Kim	Phonics in Digital Classroom Environment
Joohee Kim	Effective Activities Through On-Off Blended Intensive Reading

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