KOTESOL Proceedings 2012

Perfect Score: Methodologies, Technologies, & Communities of Practice

Proceedings of the 20th Annual KOTESOL International Conference
Seoul, Korea, October 20-21, 2012
Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
(Korea TESOL / KOTESOL)

KOTESOL Proceedings 2012

Perfect Score: Methodologies, Technologies, & Communities of Practice

Proceedings of the 20th Annual KOTESOL International Conference
Seoul, Korea, October 20-21, 2012

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

KOTESOL Proceedings 2012

Perfect Score: Methodologies, Technologies, & Communities of Practice

Proceedings of the 20th Annual KOTESOL International Conference
Seoul, Korea
October 20-21, 2012

Published by Korea TESOL

Proceedings Editors-in-Chief

Maria Pinto
Universidad Tecnologica de la Mixteca, Oaxaca, Mexico

Dr. David Shaffer
Chosun University, Gwangju, South Korea

Copy Editor
Lindsay Herron
Gwangju National University
of Education

Layout/Design: Mijung Lee, Media Station **Printing**: Myeongjinsa

For information on this or other Korea TESOL publications, as well as inquiries on membership and advertising contact us at:

www.koreatesol.org or publications@koreatesol.org

ISSN: 1598-0472 Price: 10,000 KRW / 10 USD. (Free to Members)

Conference Committee

of the

20th Annual Korea TESOL International Conference

Philip Owen

Conference Committee Chair

Carl Dusthimer
Conference Co-Chair

Stafford Lumsden
Webmaster

Sarah Emory
Support Services Director

Elliott Walters
Support Services Asst. Director

Kathy Moon
Banquet Manager

Kathy Moon
Food & Beverage Manager

Mikyung Sa
Food & Bev. Asst. Director

Chris Miller
Attendee Services Manager

Brad Serl
Registration Director

Lindsay Herron
Registration Assistant Director

Elliott Walters
Registration On-site Coord.

David E. Shaffer
Financial Affairs Director

Jennifer Young
Financial Affairs Asst. Director

Gene Shaffer
Financial Affairs Coordinator

Henry Gerlits
Cashier Coordinator

David E. Shaffer
Invited Speakers Director

Kyungsook Yeum
Venue Director

Jina Kang
Venue Coordinator

Mike Peacock
Student Volunteer Coordinator

Eugene Pistorese
Student Volunteer Manager

Curtis Smith
Student Volunteer Manager

Allison Bill
Program Director

Maria Pinto
Program Book Editor

Tim Whitman
Extended Summaries Editor

Aaron Snowberger
Poster Design

Sean O'Connor
Technical Director

John Phillips
IT Support Manager

Thunder VanBrocklin
IT Support Manager

Lavon Murray
IT Support Manager

Sujin Choi
IT Support Manager

Alicia Kwon
Special Projects Coordinator

Julie Ha
Special Projects Asst. Coord.

Rodney Stubbs
Student Volunteer Coordinator

Bryan D'Albey
Student Volunteer Manager

Laurie Schulte
Student Volunteer Manager

Min Gi Hong
Signs Manager

Julien McNulty
Guest Services Director

Julien McNulty
VIP Liaison International

Ynell Lumantao
Presenter Services Manager

Hwa Kyung Lee
Special Events Manager

Brian Heldenbrand
KOTESOL Ambassador

Tammy Heldenbrand
KOTESOL Ambassador

Ingrid Zwaal
Stage Manager

Peadar Callaghan
Assistant Stage Manager

So Hee Lee
Equipment Manager

Foreword

The 20th Annual Korea TESOL International Conference was held at Sookmyung Women's University on October 20 and 21, 2012. Over 1,100 international and Korea-based attendees gathered in Seoul, South Korea, for a weekend of teacher development under the conference theme of *Perfect Score: Methodologies, Technologies, & Communities of Practice*. The two-day Conference offered plenary sessions by Mike Levy and Glenn Stockwell, Brock Brady, and Scott Thornbury, as well as nine featured sessions by Frank Boers, Fredricka L. Stoller, Rob Waring, Clara Lee Brown, Mike Levy, Kyungsook Yeum, Neil J. Anderson, Kevin Wilson, David Paul, and Glenn Stockwell, with a featured colloquium featuring David Nunan, Martha Clark Cummings, Ken Beatty, Denise Murray, and MaryAnn Christison. In addition, the Conference included 231 concurrent sessions of various formats, including research paper presentations, workshops, and colloquia.

The twenty-four papers in this volume include a paper by plenary speaker Brock Brady on communities of practice, and papers by three featured speakers: Frank Boers, who spoke on teaching phrasal expressions, and Fredricka Stoller and Rob Waring, who both talked about reading in the classroom. The other papers fall into fourteen categories, ranging from assessment and testing, classroom management, and a focus on teaching specific skills in the classroom, to the use of technology in the classroom, and articles focused on the teacher: talking about cross-cultural and intercultural communication, and about reflective teaching practice.

It is our pleasure to present to you this volume of *KOTESOL Proceedings 2012*. 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 pursuit of improved ELT methodologies, application of new technologies, and participation in communities of practice.

Maria Pinto
David E. Shaffer
Editors-in-Chief

KOTESOL Proceedings 2012

Perfect Score: Methodologies, Technologies, & Communities of Practice

Proceedings of the 20th Annual KOTESOL International Conference

CONTENTS

Plenary Speaker

Building and Strengthening Teacher Communities of Practice

Brock Brady
U.S. Peace Corps

Communities of Practice are places where people in a trade or profession can "talk shop." They form the foundation of teacher professional development. In some fields Communities of Practice happen naturally. However, teachers do not practice their craft alongside other teachers. Teachers must therefore consciously build Communities of Practice to hone their craft.
Teachers who participate in Communities of Practice rarely experience burnout or fall into ruts. They know their strengths and don't hide from their shortcomings. They are confident and can count on their peers. Communities of Practice may be formal or informal and participants may change, but they are places where teachers can freely explore teaching practice, share their insights safely, and feel empowered and energized.
This paper examines the essential characteristics of teacher Communities of Practices and provides tips for managing the changes that occur when Communities of Practice transition from informal to formal interactions.

I. What Are Communities of Practice?

Etienne Wenger, who along with Jean Lave coined the term *Communities of Practice*, defines Communities of Practice as "groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly" (Wenger, 2006).

When people come together to talk about the craft of their work, they form a Community of Practice. If you have ever spent time around a garage, with a group of farmers, at a construction site, with waiters at the end of a shift, or even mothers who bring their children to the playground at the same time then chat, then you probably know the meaning of "to talk shop" that is, to share tips and experiences about mutual concerns and achievements. Talking shop is the essence of Communities of Practice, that is, discussing what excites, annoys, perplexes, or confounds about your activities, with someone who does similar activities, in order to share your ideas, use two heads to find solutions, share the excitement of discoveries, advance theories and principles, and talk about how to apply them, and perhaps most importantly, establishing yourself as "a player" — someone whose experience is valued.

Some groups form Communities of Practice easily, like mothers who regularly share parenting concerns, office colleagues who discuss work at happy hour, or gamers on video sites who share tips and "workarounds" and perhaps even create new dimensions to the online worlds where they play. The same is true for athletes who get together outside of games and practice sessions to go over past play and strategize ways to contain opposing players. Through peer interaction they come understand their own expertise in relation to others and construct identities for themselves within their activity, e.g., mechanic, carpenter, nurse, or "Call of Duty" master gamer (See Gee's, 2004, discussion of online affinity spaces in *"Situated Language and Learning: A Critique of Traditional Learning"*).

Of course, not all communities are Communities of Practice. People in a geographic community may socialize or come together on some civic project or mutual concern, but their community is not about something they all do. An alumni association may be based on a shared experience, but the association's discussions are not necessarily about how to do something better. Teachers' lounges are notoriously not Communities of Practice (although they may be places where teachers assemble). The typical teacher's lounge discussion begins with how bad the students are, how bad the administrators are, how bad the administrative policies are . . . and never gets to discuss ways to teach more effectively.

A. The Importance of Teacher Communities of Practice

Teachers however do not usually work alongside other teachers. First, they are busy: there are lessons to design, papers to correct, and often houses to clean and families to feed, all in addition to classroom hours. Second, after having prepared lessons on their own, they take those lessons into a classroom where no one else is engaged in teaching, and where they are shut away with another discourse group: students. The rarity of occasions teachers have to work alongside other teachers, to compare their teaching craft, or pick up tips through observation not instruction, may make teachers defensive about their craft.

They may judge themselves as adequate teachers because the students have not chased them from the class, but they don't have a situated sense of their teaching abilities; that is, they do not have a clear idea of how their teaching stacks up to that of others, and consequently, their confidence in themselves, and perhaps their self-respect, is limited. Formal classroom observations may be so uniformly disliked by teachers because they focus on one teacher at one moment (not on comparison to other teachers overtime) — the observed teacher is "on the spot" and evaluated in isolation.

Therefore, conscious formation of Communities of Practice is essential to bring teachers out of classroom isolation, and into a better sense of their strengths and weaknesses in relation to other teachers and the general business of teaching. As such, sharing teaching ideas and demonstrating and practicing elements of the teacher's craft as a community becomes the essence of teacher professional development.

The formal rationale for intentionally creating teacher Communities of Practice holds that since learning begins in social interaction, good teaching requires continual growth in teaching skill through interactions such as reflecting on personal experience, observing the practice of others to expand one's own repertoire of practice, finding means to re-conceptualize teaching challenges, and most importantly, earning recognition for one's expertise to be identified and valued as a teacher (Faltis, 2000).

In general, Communities of Practice are voluntary constructions. Although some institutionally mandated teacher meetings (such as weekly course or team meetings established by administrators) may become genuine Communities of

Practice, their mandated nature more often creates spaces where sharing is withheld to avoid criticism, administrative policies are imposed (or at least, announced, rather than being collaboratively constructed), and teachers or groups of teachers vie for status and power among one other. For Communities of Practice to become places where every member's contribution is encouraged and valued, and where criticism is shared as a favor not a punishment, participation must be freely given.

B. Establishing Informal Teacher Communities of Practice

Informal Communities of Practice often start when two teachers go beyond complaining about students or administrators to seeking to solve a problem or answer a question about teaching. Such sharing feels good. They want to do more. As they do more, they share their enthusiasm. Others join. Often the interaction becomes more formal. Workshops, conferences, or teacher associations may follow.

Those who want to create spaces for Teacher Communities of Practice may start with the one or two teachers that have interest. They meet and share their teaching. "Craft" is rooted in experience, so experimentation, demonstration, and rehearsal are valued and mentor-apprentice relationships are often formed. When others remark on the engagement and enthusiasm, they are invited to join in. As soon as possible, the community builds ownership by asking new members to select discussion topics, suggesting that members take turns bringing snacks, and little by little, by asking new members to take turns leading sessions. Make teachers feel welcome when they join, make teachers feel valued when they volunteer to help, and soon you'll have a teacher Community of Practice In fact, if forming a Community of Practice is met by skepticism from teachers outside the group, it may be a wise strategy to not invite too many people to participate too quickly. Sometimes the greatest motivation to get involved is the fear of being left out.

C. What Are the Characteristics of Communities of Practice?

Communities of Practice emphasize "getting a second pair of eyes" on one's teaching values, beliefs, and practices. As is the case with proofreading, oftentimes the second pair of eyes does not need to be the eyes of an expert, but simply someone who can give a fresh perspective.

As such, Communities of Practice are robustly egalitarian, with novice participants being accepted and participating equally as peers. Also, expertise is distributed. Some members may have different types of expertise than others, but this makes for a richer, more well-rounded community.

An important aspect of Communities of Practice is that all members need to agree to the practice of "willful respect" (Brady, 2011) that is, that all members are respected fully and equally, simply because of their participation in the community, not because of expertise or renown gained elsewhere. Communities of Practice operate on a first-name basis, and are places where mutual respect and trust mean not only that one can be fully open in sharing one's knowledge, skills, and concerns, but that members let down their defenses so they can be open to the feedback that might normally bruise egos.

Conversation in Communities of Practice, following the work of Bakhtin (1981) is not dialectic (that is confrontational) but dialogic (like Socrates, we ask good questions and build on or modify our assumptions together (Sennett, 2012). As such, practices such as active listening (McNaughton, et al., 2008) are fundamental to Communities of Practice. Communities of Practice, while seeking to enhance practice, are essentially altruistic and seek win-win outcomes always.

In that Communities of Practice are a craft approach to learning, their activities are rooted in experience. Demonstration, rehearsal, and experimentation are all elements of Communities of Practice and relationships among members often take on mentor-apprentice qualities. Members cite each other easily, not out of concern for academic integrity but out of courtesy, and while the originator ofan approach or practice is recognized, the use of the practice is the property of all.

II. What Are Common Activities for Teacher Communities of Practice?

Common activities carried out in Communities of Practice include establishing and monitoring professional development plans or other types of action plans (for example, gradual institution of classroom routines), and general efforts to value and validate as well as evaluate each member's skills and experience. Some activities that are easy to implement in teacher Communities of Practice follow.

A. Mosaic Activities

A group activity that allows participants to share tips, practices, or beliefs with a specified number of other participants on a topic or activity that all group members have experience with, so that each participant ends with some additional strategies for dealing with the topic (G. Pickering, personal communication, May 7, 2013).

1. First, all participants think of a classroom teaching challenge they would like to know more about.
2. Ask all participants to take something to write on, and then move into a space where everyone is free to walk around.
3. Tell participants to go around to everyone in the group to interview each participant (or a certain number of participants if the group is large). The interviewee should provide just one teaching tip.
4. Afterward, ask each participant to share her/his favorite response to her/his question.
5. If your group has a newsletter or some sort of publication, each participant can write up her/his interview results into a short article for example, "Classroom management is a big concern for many teachers. __X__uses ___Y___ to maintain students' attention.__Z__ thinks that __A__ is a good strategy for students who need to talk all the time, etc."

B. "Teaching Matters" Discussions

In book clubs, members read a book (or a specified section of the book) and then discuss it together. For teachers, a better way might be to ask an important question first: "How can student motivation be increased?" or "What are some ways to reduce grading time when you have a class of 120 students?" or "How can we move students beyond translating the language-of-instruction words into their own language to actually using new vocabulary items in class?" Once a question has been decided upon, the group reads research on the topic and then comes to a consensus (generally) about ways to answer the "important question." Of course, finding resource materials is difficult in many countries, but volunteers, even those with periodic email access, may be able to download related articles and share the information with CoP members.

However, the "research" and discussion is only the first step. The next step is for Community of Practice members to decide upon strategies that could respond to the problem (based on readings and discussions) and then try these out in actual teaching to see how they work. This can be done individually or in pairs (where one pair member observes or records while the other executes). Then, results are shared among all and discussed at the next CoP meeting.

Some possible initial, low-stakes "Teaching Matters" topics to discuss:

- How do you prepare for lessons?
- How are grades determined here? How do you score assignments?
- What motivates students?
- What aspects of the language of instruction are difficult for students?
- What are some effective classroom management practices?
- What are some classroom management challenges?
- What is an appropriate student/teacher relationship?
- What can be done to improve parental involvement in school?
- How is school different today than it was when your counterpart was a student?
- What is your counterpart's favorite lesson activity?
- What kinds of lessons/activities does your counterpart not like to teach?
- What are the challenges of being a teacher in this country?
- What does the country's education system do well? Are there challenges as well?

C. Lesson Study

Lesson study (Lewis et al., 2006) is a CoP practice well developed in many parts of Asia. As was the case with "Teaching Matters" activities, the CoP members choose a teaching (or teaching materials) question that they want to learn more about and try out. Then, they work as a whole group to develop a lesson that relates to the question (say, an aspect of teaching pronunciation, or a routine for developing phonemic awareness activities more quickly, or lessons that encourage science students to apply the lesson topic to problems in their everyday lives). Each participant (or maybe pairs of participants) takes on an element of developing the lesson. When the lesson is completed, one teacher volunteers to teach the lesson in her/his class, and the others (or a representative group of members if the CoP is large) observe the lesson and report back on what they saw — with the focus being on what worked in the lesson, not the teacher's delivery of the lesson.

D. Action Research Projects

The process for action research typically follows a pattern such as the following:

1. *Identify a problem* in the classroom that the CoP wants to know more about.
2. *Collect data on the problem*: for example, solicit other teachers' experiences, talk to students about the issue, analyze past assignments for patterns, consult with research sources available to see if they have relevance, or observe classes in relation to the problem using a pre-arranged coding system to mark down different occurrences of the phenomenon.
    a. *Analyze the data:* see if you can find any patterns in the data (for example, students have lower test results after lunch than just before).
    b. *Or — simply reflect on the problem and discuss it together* until you develop a hypothesis and a way to test it (probably through trying a new or modified practice in class).
3. *Develop an action plan for assessing the hypothesis;* that is, how do we find out if our hypothesis makes sense.
4. Report results to the CoP.

One specific type of action research is peer observation, where in advance, one teacher decides on some aspect of her/his classroom that s/he would like to know more about. The pair then reflects, and if possible, does research to develop a hypothesis about the action research focus and how to observe it. The other partner observes the class to report afterward how the teaching phenomenon occurred in the class. Again, the focus is not on the teacher's ability overall, but on what could be observed about the action research focus only. This lowers the stakes in observation and lessens the possibility of the observed teacher losing face.

III. English Practice Activities in EFL Communities of Practice

In some cases, with non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs), simply having a group where one can practice and use English on a regular basis is a particular benefit of Communities of Practice. In fact, the U.S. Peace Corps, trying to find ways to maximize the work of recent college grads with little or no ELT experience, is focusing on partnering volunteers with novice teachers or teachers in rural areas who need additional practice in English, in Communities of Practice with the specific outcome of increasing the amount of procedural English that NNESTs use in their classrooms.

A. Four Strategies for Establishing Teacher Communities of Practice in EFL Contexts

Strategy 1: To create a positive peer relationship, go to other teachers in the role of the information seeker. Request and acknowledge their expertise so that they can share that expertise and feel like they are giving to you at least as much as you are giving them. Ask them if get-togethers could be held in English so that you can practice (or in the case of native speaker organizers, so that you can understand better).

Strategy 2: Begin by engaging other teachers in simple conversations in the language of instruction about teaching at lunchtime, maybe for a moment or two after school, and do so only occasionally. Once you have managed to get them interested in teaching again, you may be able to schedule larger get-togethers. Start with the topics or presentations (like “your favorite lesson activity”) that all can easily engage in.

Strategy 3: Invite all counterparts, even if some choose not to attend. In terms of community-building, it is better to have reached out to everyone and have been refused than to have failed to invite someone.

Strategy 4: Host discussions in English, but look for ways to lessen the impression that the meeting is an “English class.” For example, base a get-together on an activity that teachers could do with students and have them carry out the activity as if they were English students so that they can get a real sense of whether the activity would be effective or not. Such “role plays” allow for low-stakes English practice. Also, avoid any overt English “instruction” or error correction.

B. What Are Considerations for Effective Formal Teaching Communities of Practice (e.g., Teacher Associations)?

Communities of Practice typically formalize when the membership grows to a size that requires members or staff to specialize in event planning, membership recruitment and maintenance, and budgeting and finance to manage the additional services that members seek. With increasing numbers of members, more people participate for different reasons, and typically the membership becomes more diverse. These factors, along with the loss of regular face-to-face interaction for all members, move at least part of the organization to a management structure, not a Community of Practice, and create the potential for personal and cultural misunderstandings.

IV. English Teacher Associations as Communities of Practice

Because English teacher associations are formal Communities of Practice, decision-making must be much more mindful. Those willing to implement initiatives must telegraph intentions well in advance (we rarely like to be surprised); do face-work (be pro-active, respect-building to maintain someone’s face) so that no one feels loss of face, strive for transparency, check and double-check not only for possible conflicts of interest, but even the perception of conflict of interest; remember that all that is permitted is not necessarily desirable (and efforts that promote the association's mission are always preferable to efforts that fall simply within the association's mission), recognize varying cultural norms within the membership and anticipate their reactions, recognize and value reservoirs of member goodwill, do face-work so that no one feels any loss of face, seek comment and buy-in, and validate and value all feedback. Such close attention to the feelings, concerns, and needs of all will maintain the trust and mutual respect essential to all Communities of Practice.

The focus is on building spaces within the formal Community of Practice where members can provide input and be allowed opportunities for negotiation. Stress the positive when interacting with members. Use questions over statements, value description over evaluation, and always try to hedge your opinions. Look for opportunities to create “dynamic governance” (Prendergast, 2006) where consensus is emphasized and votes are structured not around a choice of two options (so that some voters “win” and others “lose,” but what elements of options could be acceptable to all (everyone wins, even if they didn't get everything they wanted). Seeking comment and buy-in while validating and valuing all feedback is vital. Even if an outcome is not what some members sought, if they feel that they have been listened to and respectfully acknowledged, they will often be satisfied.

A. Cross-Cultural Issues in English Teacher Communities of Practice

Little direct research has been done on cross-cultural issues in Communities of Practice. This is a promising area for additional research. Certainly the potential for misunderstanding is great. Communities of Practice are usually described as robustly egalitarian, so what are the possible consequences when a member who has not been socialized to appreciate egalitarian values finds him- or herself in such a discourse system? How easy is it to talk shop when a member is using a second (or third) language? For all the emphasis on collaboration and equality, someone must lead and must organize. When qualities of a leader, leadership prerogatives, and appropriate leadership actions vary across cultures, who will arbitrate?

The nature of the larger cultural setting within which a Community of Practice is set is also an issue. In a high-context cultural setting, will a member from a low-context culture taking on her first leadership role, and checking and double-checking with many parties about many matters, be perceived as being effective for doing all possible to limit disharmony in the public gathering or as an incompetent, unwilling to make a decision? Or if the situation is reversed, with a new leader from a high-context culture trying to work in a low-context environment — will that new leader be seen as self-centered, arrogant, and disrespectful of elders? These are questions as old as the meeting of cultures, but in our ever-global world, especially in the field of English language teaching, we must pay careful attention to how cultural differences, and misunderstanding, can inhibit the openness and respect that Communities of Practice seek to attain. Consequently, it is important to establish mechanisms to identify interactions where cultures may chafe, and pathways where members may indirectly and anonymously bring concerns or frustrations to the attention of all.

The benefits of Communities of Practice are many. They increase job satisfaction and engagement. They provide new insights about theory or practice that interest you. They may even provide a solution to a problem that has puzzled you. They provide opportunities to touch base with people you know and meet new members with new perspectives on similar interests. Oftentimes, Communities of Practice allow members to rub shoulders with experts in the field that they admire or respect, and when they find that these established scholars and leaders are interested in their opinions and in being on a first-name basis, they realized that they are worthy members of the community as well. This sense of belonging and having a professional identity is strengthened by abundant opportunities to compare one's skills and knowledge to peers, and may lead to having fellow members seek your opinion in return, or seek your involvement in an interesting project. To enter a Community of Practice is to move from a job to a vocation, and from a workplace to a professional home.

THE AUTHOR

Brock Brady is a former president of TESOL International. He is currently Education Specialist for the U.S. Peace Corps, where he is creating the Peace Corps' first standardized curriculum for training Volunteers to serve in different education sectors.

Prior to the Peace Corps, Brady was Co-Director of the American University TESOL Program in Washington, DC. He has directed English teaching programs in Burkina Faso and Benin, lectured at the Pohang University for Science and Technology in Korea, and served as a Fulbright scholar in France.

Brady's research interests include language planning and policy, effective governance of grassroots teacher associations, situated learning, and teaching pronunciation.

REFERENCES

Bakhtin, M. (1981). *The dialogic imagination*. Houston, TX: University of Texas.

Brady, B. (2011). *Supporting marginalized students*. Washington, DC: U.S Peace Corps. Retrieved from http://inside.peacecorps.gov/index.cfm?branch=1848

Faltis, C. (2000). *Joinfostering. Teaching and learning in multilingual classrooms,* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Gee, J. P. (2004). *Situated language and learning: A critique of traditional schooling*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Lewis, C., Perry, R., & Murata A. (2006). How should research contribute to instructional improvement? The case of lesson study. *Educational Researcher, 35*(3), 3-14.

McNaughton, D., Hamlin, D. McCarthy J., Head-Reeves, D., & Schreiner, M. (2008). Learning to listen: Teaching an active listening strategy to preservice education professionals. *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education,* 27, 223-231. Retrieved from http://tec.sagepub.com/content/27/4/223

Prendergast, K. (2006). Dynamic governance, dynamite components. *Associations Now, 2006* (June). Retrieved from http://www.asaecenter.org/Resources/ANowDetail.cfm?ItemNumber=18309

Sennett, R. (2012). *Together: The rituals, pleasures and politics of cooperation*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Wenger, E. (2006). *Communities of Practice: A brief introduction*. Retrieved from http://www.ewenger.com/theory/

Invited Speakers

Getting to Grips with Phrasal Expressions: Challenges and Recommendations

Frank Boers
Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand

Mastery of phrasal expressions has been found to contribute significantly to learners' general proficiency. Unfortunately, learners tend to acquire the phrasal dimension of their second language only at a very slow pace if this process is left to the chances of incidental uptake. In this article, I first propose explanations for that slow pace of incidental learning, and subsequently make research-informed recommendations for the judicious targeting of phrasal expressions in the classroom.

I. INTRODUCTION

Language abounds with phrasal expressions such as collocations (*pay attention*) and idioms (*at the end of the day*). Native speakers rely very much on their phrasal lexicon for fluent language use (Erman & Warren, 2001; Pawley & Syder, 1983; Sinclair, 1991; Wray, 2002). It stands to reason that learners of a second language also benefit from building a sizeable phrasal lexicon. Indeed, strong correlations have been found between second language learners' mastery of phrasal expressions and their scores on general proficiency tests (Boers et al., 2006). Unfortunately, the phrasal dimension of a second language is acquired only very slowly (Laufer & Waldman, 2010; Li & Schmitt, 2010). Why is that? And what can teachers do to accelerate the learning process?

A distinction is sometimes made between *collocations* and *idioms* by using a criterion of semantic transparency (e.g., Nesselhauf, 2005). Collocations are said to be compositional; i.e., their meaning follows directly from the meaning of the constituent words (e.g., *take a photo*), whereas idioms are non-compositional; i.e., their meaning transcends that of the constituent words (e.g., *take a back seat* – "leave the important decisions to someone else"). Semantic transparency is one of the factors likely to influence the pace of acquisition of a phrasal expression, and so I will adopt the distinction between collocations and idioms in the discussion further below.

This distinction between collocations and idioms is not black and white, however, especially from the perspective of the second language learner. Many phrasal expressions that appear fully compositional to the native speaker can actually be quite obscure or misleading for the learner. That is because words may not be used in their primary sense when they form collocations. If it is the primary sense of *catch* (as in *catch prey* and *catch a criminal* – both deliberate acts) that is activated in the learner's mind, this will not help her to understand *catch a cold*. If the learner associates *close* in *close the meeting* with its primary sense (as in *close the door*), then she may misconstrue *close the meeting* as "having a meeting behind closed doors."

II. In the Learner's Shoes

If many more phrasal expressions than idioms can be expected to cause comprehension problems, then the question is how reliable (native) teachers' intuitions are about the relative transparency of phrasal expressions from the perspective of their students. Boers and Webb (in press) presented a group of experienced TESOL teachers and a group of Japanese EFL students with a mixed list of expressions from collocation dictionaries (e.g., *play a part; raise a family*) and idiom dictionaries (e.g., *jump ship; follow suit*), and asked them to rate these on a scale to reflect the degree to which they thought the meaning of each of the expressions was inferable from the meaning of the constituent words. The correlations between the teachers' and the learners' transparency judgments turned out weak, mostly because the teachers overestimated the transparency of the collocations. This suggests that many comprehension problems are likely not to be anticipated by the language teacher, and may go unnoticed unless the student signals there is a problem.

It must indeed be hard for native speakers to imagine that some of the expressions that are crystal clear to them — because they grew up with them — can actually be quite puzzling to learners. Estimating whether a given group of learners will find a given collocation hard to understand may require knowledge of these learners' mother tongue (in order to identify cognates and "false friends") and knowledge of cultural differences that may impede comprehension. For example, English has many expressions where *heart* refers to the seat of emotions (e.g., *a bleeding heart, a broken heart, to lose heart, to wear your heart on your sleeve,* and *to eat your heart out*), distinct from the mind, where reason resides. In Mandarin Chinese, however, the concepts of mind and heart coincide in the word *xin*. Unsurprisingly, Chinese EFL learners find it relatively hard to make sense of English idiomatic expressions containing the words *heart, mind,* and *head* (Hu & Fong, 2010).

III. Estimating the Chances of Incidental Uptake of Phrasal Expressions

Do we really need to devote time to phrasal expressions in the classroom? Cannot we rely on *incidental* acquisition of phrasal expressions from exposure to the language, for example, from extensive reading? By incidental uptake, we mean the acquisition of phrasal expressions as a by-product of message-focused engagement with the language, without the conscious intent of studying the expressions that happen to be used in those samples of discourse.

Although I argued above that a strict distinction between collocations and idioms on the basis of transparency is hard to maintain, it is safe to say that, overall, collocations (e.g., *make an effort, high hopes*) are more likely than idioms (e.g., *take a back seat, jump the gun*) to be experienced by the learners as transparent. At first sight, this would be expected to facilitate acquisition. And yet, it is well documented that even advanced learners continue to produce “malformed” collocations (e.g., **do an effort, *make a photo, *say the truth*), which can often be traced to the way equivalent words collocate in the learner’s L1 (Laufer & Girsai, 2008; Yamashita & Jiang, 2010). But why do learners not swiftly replace those malformed collocations in their phrasal repertoires with the correct alternatives that they encounter in the samples of L2 discourse they are exposed to?

Part of the explanation is the lack of attention that collocations attract. It is known from eye-tracking experiments that words that are new to the learner tend to be attended to longer than familiar words (Godfroid, Boers, & Housen, in press). In the case of collocations, however, the learner is not likely to be struck by any novelty if the words that make up the collocation look familiar (e.g., *make + mistake*). It is probably when the learner is not yet familiar with the constituent words of a collocation — as may be the case when a learner encounters *wreak havo*c — that the novelty effect will lend salience to the collocation (but, in that case, the learner may fail to understand the expression). An additional factor that renders collocations non-salient is the semantic vagueness of some of the words. This is perhaps most notably the case in verb-noun collocations where the verb is a high-frequency, multi-purpose item (e.g., *have a nightmare, make a mistake, do business*). As such a verb contributes so little to the interpretation process, it is not surprising that it is mostly with regard to the verb that learners are known to err in their production of L2 verb-noun collocations (Laufer, 2011 Nesselhauf, 2005). Parts of collocations can also be lacking in perceptual salience, particularly in spoken discourse, where they are phonetically reduced (Bybee, 2002). This means that the reduced elements in the collocation are, for a learner, less audible, less articulated, and thus harder to perceive. If, on top of that, such elements happen to have a phonological neighbor, then it becomes easy to understand why learners might say **make a photo* instead of *take a photo* and **in purpose* instead of *on purpose*.

Lack of attention is not the only explanation for the slow pace of incidental uptake of phrasal expressions, however. Although collocations as a class abound in language (for example, the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Advanced Learners of English* (2002) boasts 150,000 collocations — and that is far from an exhaustive inventory), identical tokens tend to occur relatively infrequently. To be able to independently recognize a word string as a collocation, a learner not only needs to have noticed that same word string before but needs also to *remember* seeing or hearing it before. Unfortunately, even relatively common collocations are unlikely to be re-encountered in a short time span. To illustrate, I counted all strong verb-noun collocations (e.g., *tell the truth, make a difference, take a picture, do your best*) in the first 120 pages of a popular crime novel and found that almost none of them occurred more than once (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2009, p. 42-43). It would be wishful thinking to expect a learner to realize that a given word combination is a strong collocation if encounters with this word combination are so few and far between that any memory trace left by an earlier encounter has faded by the time the collocation is met again (Eyckmans, Boers, & Stengers, 2007).

We should also bear in mind that the constituents of a collocation are not always found in each other's immediate proximity. Unlike the examples we have given so far, in which constituents were adjacent to one another, constituents of a collocation will sometimes be separated by intervening discourse (e.g., *[...] an offence which some of his acquaintances suspect Dave Singleton may have committed when he was [...]*), which may reduce the likelihood of the learner taking notice of their association. Acquisition can also be hindered by the variability that is often manifested in a word's collocational behaviour. For example, a learner may find the noun *research* accompanied by *conduct* in one encounter, by *carry out* in another, and by *do* in yet another encounter. It may therefore take many more encounters with *research* for it to become strongly associated with one of these verbs in the learner's mind than would be necessary, say, for *suicide* to become associated with *commit*. Put differently, the pace of uptake of a collocation is likely to be influenced by the degree of substitutability of its constituents. Confronted with variability, the learner may even wrongly assume that constituents are freely substitutable by near synonyms, leading her to suppose that **perform research* or **make research* are fine, too. The learner's task is further complicated when collocations look deceptively similar. Compare, for example, *run a business* and *do business with someone*. It is not hard to appreciate that cue competition may lead a learner to produce **run business with someone*.

Let's now turn to the question of whether idioms might stand a better chance than collocations of being picked up incidentally. Being semantically puzzling, these expressions are more likely than collocations to attract the learner's attention, at least. The problem here, of course, lies with comprehension, as is well documented by various studies. For instance, Littlemore, Chen, Koester, and Barden (2011) report disconcerting evidence on the extent to which international students at a British university misinterpret the idioms used by their university lecturers. Also, one of the experiments reported in Boers, Eyckmans, and Stengers (2007) demonstrates that many idioms will stay obscure to learners, even when they are accompanied by strong contextual cues. Unaided idiom comprehension is hard. The idiom may contain a word that is unknown to the learner (e.g., *rein* in *keep a tight rein on someone*). It may be elliptic, too. For instance, how can a learner guess what object is cut in the expression *cut and run* (originally, the expression is believed to mean "cut the anchor and sail away fast")? Also, considerations of euphony rather than semantics may have motivated the lexical makeup of an idiom (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2009, pp. 106-125). For example, the alliterative composition of *the cream of the crop* may leave the language learner mystified by the proposition that a crop can be creamy.

The lexical composition of an idiom can also be deceptively transparent, which can all too easily put learners on the wrong foot if they wish to make guesses at the idiomatic meaning (Boers, Demecheleer, & Eyckmans, 2004a). The *gun* in *jump the gun* can easily be mistaken for the kind that kills rather than the pistol used to signal the start of a racing contest. This idiom may then perhaps be misinterpreted as referring to an act of bravery, as it may evoke the scene of someone trying to disarm a man holding a gun. In a similar vein, the *shot* in *a shot in the arm* may be mistaken for a shot from a weapon instead of an injection. Another example is the *plank* in *to walk the plank*, which may activate a scene of fashion models parading on a wooden board instead of the scene of someone being forced to jump into the ocean from the deck of a ship. Even if the learner has managed to guess the source of origin correctly, there is usually plenty of room left for misinterpretation. For example, a learner who correctly guesses that *the gloves are off* is an idiom derived from boxing may nevertheless misinterpret it as evoking a scene where the boxers take off their gloves because the fight is over — instead of the scene where they want to use their bare fists to cause more serious injury.

Interference from L1 may be an additional obstacle to L2 idiom interpretation. The meaning of a given idiom in L2 need not coincide with that of a similar sounding expression in L1, and — as already mentioned — cross-cultural differences can also hinder adequate idiom comprehension. For example, the English idiom repertoire contains quite a few expressions derived from ball games such as cricket in British English (e.g., *off your own bat* and *hit someone for six*) and baseball in American English (e.g., *go in to bat for someone* and *touch all the bases*), which are quite foreign to speakers of language communities where these sports are virtually unknown, and which learners from those communities consequently find particularly hard to make sense of (Boers, Demecheleer, & Eyckmans, 2004b).

Repeated encounters with an idiom in diverse contexts might enable the learner to readjust her interpretations and eventually identify the precise meaning of the expression. According to counts in the *Word Banks* corpus (i.e., the corpus that informed the *Collins Cobuild* dictionaries), over 2,400 instances of idioms occur per million words of English discourse (Stengers, 2007), which demonstrates that, as a class, idioms are quite common. Idioms fulfill vital functions in discourse (O'Keeffe, McCarthy, & Carter, 2007, pp. 80-99), and so their ubiquity in discourse (especially in conversation) is not surprising. When taken individually, most idioms are not frequent, however (Moon, 1998). Returning to the aforementioned crime novel in which I counted collocations, I found as many as 90 idioms (checked against the *Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Idioms*) in the first 120 pages, but almost all of these occurred only once (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2009, pp. 67). What was noted in connection with collocations also holds for idioms: the chances of meeting the same expression several times in a short time span are pretty slim — and it is well known that repeated encounters are generally required for incidental vocabulary acquisition (Webb, Newton, & Chang, 2013; Waring & Takaki, 2003).

IV. Some Recommendations for the Classroom

If knowledge of phrasal expressions contributes significantly to students' general proficiency, and if we cannot rely too much on students' acquiring that knowledge through message-focused engagement with the language alone, then it follows that there must be a niche for targeting phrasal expressions in language-focused activities. (On the need for balanced opportunities for second language learning, see Nation's *Four Strands* framework, e.g., Nation, 2007.) In recent years, an array of classroom activities and exercises focusing on phrasal expressions have been proposed in books for teachers (Davis & Kryszewska, 2012; Lewis 1993, 1997, 2000; Lindstromberg & Boers, 2008a), books for independent study (e.g., McCarthy & O'Dell, 2002, 2005), and as components of EFL text books (e.g., Richards & Bohlke, 2011). Unfortunately, a lot of empirical work is still waiting to be done to validate the effectiveness of many of such proposed activities and exercises. Boers and Lindstromberg (2012) provide a rather comprehensive review of the research that has already been undertaken in this regard. Here I distil from that review and from more recent (as yet unpublished) work a number of recommendations for classroom practice. As shown in Boers and Lindstromberg's (2012) review article, a fair amount of research has also been done on ways of stimulating learners' engagement with phrasal vocabulary *outside* the classroom, but in the present article, I have to refrain from venturing into that area.

Recommendation 1*: Try to put yourself in your students' shoes*

As mentioned above, students may be puzzled or misled by expressions that you find perfectly transparent.

Recommendation 2*: Be selective*

Class time in almost all language teaching contexts is frustratingly limited and thus precious. While developing a phrasal lexicon is important, it is of course only one of many goals of a language learning program, and so only a fraction of class time will be available to be devoted to it. English has thousands of phrasal expressions, too many to be tackled in a language course. So, when you decide to stimulate students' engagement with phrasal expressions, try to prioritize those that you know are of high utility or that are particularly problematic for your students (owing to L1 interference, for instance). You may wish to ascertain the currency of a given expression in an on-line corpus of contemporary English. Several initiatives have been taken in recent years to create lists of expressions that merit prioritization by virtue of their relative frequency (e.g., Liu, 2012; Martinez & Schmitt, 2012; Simpson-Vlach & Ellis, 2010). These lists can provide a helpful starting point — particularly when the aim is to build a repertoire for active use — as long as one realizes that they show only the tip of the phrasal iceberg. Most idioms, for example, are not frequent enough to make it into the lists, but research reveals they are quite likely to cause comprehension failure when they do occur (in this regard, also see Martinez & Murphy, 2011). Frequency is an important criterion for selection, but it is clearly not the only criterion to decide whether it pays to devote some class time to a given expression, in particular when the aim is to foster comprehension.

Recommendation 3*: Distinguish between goals*

Students may benefit more from productive knowledge of certain phrasal expressions than others. Many collocations are hard to avoid when you express a message. For example, you really need the appropriate verb (e.g., *commit, wage*) to accompany a given noun (*suicide, war*). Idiom use, by contrast, can often be avoided. A student may shy away from saying *they were up in arms* and instead say *they were very angry*, or shy away from saying *don't rub him up the wrong way* and instead say *don't annoy him*. The latter does not have the same "punch" as the idiom, but it does offer a way out for students who feel uncertain about the intricate usage restrictions that come with idioms. In short, output activities with a focus on phrasal expressions may benefit students more immediately when they target collocations rather than idioms.

***Recommendation 4**: Distribute the targeting of phrasal expressions over time*

As is the case with vocabulary learning more generally, tackling too many expressions in one go increases the risk of inter-item confusion, especially when certain items are similar in form and/or meaning. For example, it is easy to imagine a student mixing up collocations with *speak*, *talk*, *say*, and *tell* after having been presented with a list of these in a single lesson, resulting in erroneous verb substitutions, such as **tell nonsense* instead of *talk nonsense*. The risk of such cross-item interference can be reduced by allowing time for an item to get entrenched in memory before a new, potentially interfering item is introduced. In general, it thus seems more judicious to regularly target just a couple of selected phrasal expressions as they come up in reading and listening texts, rather than devoting a single lesson to a longish series of new phrasal expressions.

***Recommendation 5**: Promote error-free learning*

A reason for picking phrasal expressions from texts that students happen to be using in the course is that this presents the students with the appropriate form and use of the expression — on condition the texts are chosen well, of course. I have noticed that many textbooks introduce phrasal expressions to students through the medium of exercises, where students are required to match parts of collocations, match expressions with their meaning, and so on. Introducing as yet unfamiliar expressions via such exercise formats inevitably carries the risk of engendering erroneous associations in the students' minds, and these are not easy to eradicate. In a recent study (Boers, et al., in press), we investigated the efficiency of textbook exercises on verb-noun collocations. Such exercises typically require the student to choose from a number of options (e.g., *make*, *do*, *have*) the verb that goes with a given noun (e.g., *a mistake*, *a nightmare*). We found that such exercises tend not to foster much learning (overall scores on pre-tests and post-tests did not differ much), because wrong associations (**do a mistake*) made by students during the exercises cause long-term confusion.

***Recommendation 6**: Keep collocations intact*

What we also found in the aforementioned study on textbook exercises is that it is best to present the collocations as intact multiword units rather than breaking them up and asking students to reassemble the pieces. This reduces the risk of erroneous cross-associations of words that make up different collocations. Besides, asking students to assemble phrasal expressions word by word defeats the point that phrasal expressions foster fluency in real-time language use precisely owing to their storage and retrieval from memory as *prefabricated units*.

***Recommendation 7**: Encourage students to "mine" the input*

The samples of English text that students work with in class will contain exemplars of phrasal language that their own repertoires would benefit from. One of the reasons why message-focused input activities are fruitfully followed by a brief language-focused interlude (during which selected expressions are attended to), and subsequently by message-focused output activities, is that this creates opportunities for recycling the exemplars that were met in the input. “Mining” samples of L2 language is a vital facet of language learning. Teachers who systematically insist that their students talk about the content of an input text “in their own words” reduce their students’ chances of acquiring idiomatic English. I realize, of course, that the “explain it in your own words” condition is intended by teachers to ascertain whether the student has really understood the given text, but surely, there are alternative ways of checking comprehension.

***Recommendation 8**: Stimulate cognitive engagement with individual phrasal expressions*

Attending to a phrasal expression as it comes up in class in one thing; actually committing it to memory is quite another (Stengers et al., 2010). The teacher can make a difference here by fostering cognitive engagement with the expression in ways that have been shown by research to aid retention. To my knowledge, it is the school of thought known as Cognitive Linguistics (CL) that has so far supplied most ideas in this regard (e.g., Boers & Lindstromberg, 2009). Lack of space prevents me from detailing these ideas, but see Boers (2013) for a recent review of the CL approach to L2 vocabulary (including phrases) teaching.

What CL pathways for engagement with phrasal expressions have in common is that they encourage the student to consider the possibility that the meaning and/or lexical makeup of an expression need not be arbitrary, and may thus be amenable to insightful learning instead of rote learning. For example, learners are shown that the meaning of an idiom (e.g., *jump the gun*) makes sense once one recognizes how it relates to the context in which the expression was originally used with a literal meaning (e.g., the scene of a track athlete leaving the starting blocks before the starting pistol is fired). Resuscitating that literal meaning evokes a fair amount of mental imagery, which according to models of multimodal processing, fosters retention (e.g., Sadoski, 2005, for a review). A recent trend in CL is to explore whether the lexical makeup of phrasal expressions can be motivated by considerations of catchy sound patterns. According to my counts through dictionaries, up to 20% of English phrasal expressions manifest alliteration (e.g., *a slippery slope*) and/or near-rhyme (e.g., *small talk*). This is a proportion that is much higher than would be predicted by chance alone (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2009, p. 114). Making students aware of the presence of these sound patterns is a welcome addition to the teacher’s bag of tricks for rendering phrasal expressions more memorable (Lindstromberg & Boers, 2008b, c). The quest for such additions continues.

THE AUTHOR

Frank Boers is an Associate Professor at the School of Linguistics and Applied Language Studies of Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand. His initial research interests were in the field of lexicology (e.g., studies of polysemy) and semantics generally (e.g., studies of metaphor). Most of his more recent research interests, however, were sparked by his long experience as an EFL teacher and teacher trainer in Belgium. Dr. Boers now publishes mostly on matters of instructed second language acquisition, especially the teaching of vocabulary and phraseology, and the potential merits of Cognitive Linguistics in that domain. His work has appeared in journals such as *Applied Linguistics* and *Language Teaching Research*, and he is co-author (with Seth Lindstromberg) of *Optimizing a Lexical Approach to Instructed Second Language Acquisition* (2009).

References

Boers, F. (2013). Cognitive Linguistic approaches to second language vocabulary: Assessment and integration. *Language Teaching: Surveys and Studies, 46*(2), 208-224.

Boers, F., & Lindstromberg, S. (2009). *Optimizing a lexical approach to instructed second language acquisition*. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Boers, F., & Lindstromberg, S. (2012). Experimental and intervention studies on formulaic sequences in a second language. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 32*, 83-110.

Boers, F., & Webb, S. (in press). Gauging the semantic transparency of idioms: Do natives and learners see eye to eye? In R. Heredia & A. Cieslicka (Eds.), *Bilingual figurative language processing*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Boers, F., Demecheleer, M., & Eyckmans, J. (2004a). Etymological elaboration as a strategy for learning figurative idioms. In P. Bogaards & B. Laufer (Eds.), *Vocabulary in a second language: Selection, acquisition and testing* (pp. 53-78). Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins.

Boers, F., Demecheleer, M., & Eyckmans, J. (2004b). Cultural variation as a variable in comprehending and remembering figurative idioms. *European Journal of English Studies, 8*, 375-388.

Boers, F., Eyckmans, J., & Stengers, H. (2007). Presenting figurative idioms with a touch of etymology: More than mere mnemonics? *Language Teaching Research, 11*, 43-62.

Boers, F., Demecheleer, M., Coxhead, A., & Webb, S. (in press). Gauging the effects of exercises on verb-noun collocations. *Language Teaching Research.*

Boers, F., Eyckmans, J., Kappel, J., Stengers, H., & Demecheleer, H. (2006). Formulaic sequences and perceived oral proficiency: Putting a lexical approach to the test. *Language Teaching Research, 10*, 245-261.

Bybee, J. (2002). Phonological evidence of exemplar storage of multiword sequences. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 24*, 215-221.

Davis, P., & Kryszewska, H. (2012). *The company words keep: Lexical chunks in language teaching*. Peaslake, UK: Delta Publishing.

Erman, B., & Warren, B. (2000). The idiom principle and the open choice principle. *Text, 20*, 87-120.

Eyckmans, J., Boers, F., & Stengers, H. (2007). Identifying chunks: Who can see the wood for the trees? *Language Forum, 33*, 85-100.

Godfroid, A., Boers, F., & Housen, A. (in press). An eye for words: Gauging the role of attention in L2 vocabulary acquisition by means of eye-tracking. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 35(3)*, 483-517.

Hu, Y.-h., & Fong, Y.-y. (2010). Obstacles to conceptual-metaphor guided L2 idiom interpretation. In S. De Knop, F. Boers, & T. De Rycker (Eds.), *Fostering language teaching efficiency through cognitive linguistics* (pp. 293-317). Berlin, Germany: Mouton de Gruyter.

Jiang, N., & Nekrasova, T. M. (2007). The processing of formulaic sequences by second language speakers. *The Modern Language Journal, 91*, 433-445.

Laufer, B. (2011). The contribution of dictionary use to the production and retention of collocations in a second language. *International Journal of Lexicography, 24*, 29-49.

Laufer, B., & Girsai, N. (2008). Form-focused instruction in second language vocabulary learning: A case for contrastive analysis and translation. *Applied Linguistics, 29*, 694-716.

Laufer, B., & Waldman, T. (2011). Verb-noun collocations in second language writing: A corpus analysis of learners' English. *Language Learning, 61*, 647-672.

Lewis, M. (1993). *The Lexical Approach*. Hove, UK: Language Teaching Publications.

Lewis, M. (1997). *Implementing the Lexical Approach*. Hove, UK: Language Teaching Publications.

Lewis, M. (Ed.). (2000). *Teaching collocation*. Hove, UK: Language Teaching Publications.

Li, J., & Schmitt, N. (2010). The development of collocation use in academic texts by advanced L2 learners: A multiple case study approach. In D. Wood (Ed.), *Perspectives on formulaic language: Acquisition and communication* (pp. 22-46). New York, NY: Continuum.

Lindstromberg, S., & Boers, F. (2008a). *Teaching chunks of language*. Rum, Austria: Helbling Languages.

Lindstromberg, S., & Boers, F. (2008b). The mnemonic effect of noticing alliteration in lexical chunks. *Applied Linguistics, 29*, 200-222.

Lindstromberg, S., & Boers, F. (2008c). Phonemic repetition and the learning of lexical chunks: The mnemonic power of assonance. *System*, *36*, 423-436.

Littlemore, J., Chen, P. T., Koester, A., & Barnden, J. (2011). Difficulties in metaphor comprehension faced by international students whose first language is not English. *Applied Linguistics, 32*, 408-429.

Liu, D. (2012). The most frequently-used multiword constructions in academic written English: A multi-corpus study. *English for Specific Purposes, 31*, 25-35.

Martinez, R., & Murphy, V. A. (2011). Effect of frequency and idiomaticity on second language reading comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly, 45*, 267-290.

Martinez, R., & Schmitt, N. (2012). A phrasal expressions list. *Applied Linguistics, 33,* 299-320.

McCarthy, M., & O'Dell, F. (2002). *English idioms in use*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

McCarthy, M., & O'Dell, F. (2005). *English collocations in use*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Moon, R. (1998). *Fixed expressions and idioms in English: A corpus-based approach*. Oxford, UK: Clarendon Press.

Nation, I. S. P. (2007). The four strands. *Innovation in language learning and teaching, 1*, 1-12.

Nesselhauf, N. (2005). *Collocations in a learner corpus*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins.

O'Keeffe, A. M., McCarthy, M., & Carter, R. (2007). *From corpus to classroom: Language use and language teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Pawley, A., & Syder, F. H. (1983). Two puzzles for linguistic theory: Nativelike selection and nativelike fluency. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication* (pp. 191-225). London, UK: Longman.

Richards, J. C., & Bohlke, D. (2011). *Four corners*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Sadoski, M. (2005). A dual coding view of vocabulary learning. *Reading & Writing Quarterly, 21*, 221-238.

Simpson-Vlach, R., & Ellis, N. C. (2010). An academic formulas list: New methods in phraseology research. *Applied Linguistics, 31*, 487-512.

Sinclair, J. (1991) *Corpus, concordance, collocation*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Stengers, H. (2007). Is English exceptionally idiomatic? Testing the waters for a lexical approach to Spanish. In F. Boers, J. Darquennes, & R. Temmerman (Eds.), *Multilingualism and applied comparative linguistics: Pedagogical perspectives* (pp.

107-125). Newcastle, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Stengers, H., Boers, F., Housen, A., & Eyckmans, J. (2010). Does "chunking" foster chunk-uptake? In S. De Knop, F. Boers, & A. De Rycker (Eds.), *Fostering language teaching efficiency through Cognitive Linguistics* (pp. 99-117). Berlin, Germany: Mouton de Gruyter.

Waring, R., & Takaki, M. (2003). At what rate do learners learn and retain new vocabulary from reading a graded reader? *Reading in a Foreign Language, 15*, 130-163.

Webb, S., Newton, J., & Chang, A. (2013) Incidental learning of collocation. *Language Learning, 63*(1), 91-120.

Wray, A. (2002). *Formulaic language and the lexicon*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Yamashita, J., & Jiang, N. (2010). L1 influence on the acquisition of L2 collocations: Japanese ESL users and EFL learners acquiring English collocations. *TESOL Quarterly, 44*, 647-668.

Project-Based Learning: A Viable Option for Second and Foreign Language Classrooms

Fredricka L. Stoller
Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff, Arizona, USA

Project-based learning has been billed as an effective means for promoting purposeful language and content learning as well as increasing student confidence, motivation, and engagement. Because of the versatility of project-based learning, it can be integrated into language classrooms of many types. In this article, I comment on the range of project-work configurations that teachers can adapt for their own classrooms. Furthermore, I elaborate upon a seven-step process that can guide teachers, materials writers, and curriculum developers in maximizing the benefits of project work. In this seven-step model, I highlight the importance of information gathering, processing, and reporting (paralleling the traditional academic cycle) and showcase the ways in which teachers can meaningfully integrate language-improvement activities into those steps as a way to set students up for success and propel their language abilities to new levels.

I. Introduction

Project-based learning has been billed as an effective means for promoting purposeful language and content learning. Because of its versatility, it has been integrated into language classrooms with (a) young, adolescent, and adult learners, (b) students at beginning, intermediate, and advanced language proficiency levels, and (c) vocational, academic, and specific-language aims. In addition to the language and content learning that can result from project-based learning, other reported benefits include students' improved self-confidence, and increased autonomy, motivation, and engagement. These positive outcomes make it easy to understand why project work has been advocated by many English language teaching (ELT) professionals (e.g., Beckett, 2005; Beckett & Miller, 2006; Debski, 2006; Fried-Booth, 2002; Hoyt, 2013; Lee, 2002; Stoller, 2006). In this article, I comment on the versatility of project work and elaborate upon a seven-step process that can guide teachers, materials writers, and curriculum developers in maximizing the benefits of project work.

II. Versatility of Project-Based Learning

Project work has been translated into practice in many ways, with variations linked to students' ages and proficiencies, students' and teachers' comfort levels with project-based learning, course objectives, institutional constraints, and available resources. Consider the projects outlined in Table 1. Although quite different from one another on the surface, they share numerous commonalities. In general, they are characterized by process and product orientations; they extend beyond one class session (in fact, the rainforest project noted in Table 1 lasted for an entire school year) they lead to the natural integration of skills; they promote both content and language learning; they empower students by engaging them in information gathering, processing, and reporting (characteristic of the typical academic cycle); they permit nontraditional teacher and student roles; and they result in tangible final products that students can be proud of. The importance placed on tangible outcomes (e.g., brochures, class newspapers, digital stories, letters to the editor, multimedia presentations, posters, PowerPoint presentations, student-produced books, theatrical productions, websites, written reports) permits students to set achievable goals (Beckett & Slater, 2005), track their progress, and assess the results of their work. Such outcomes are typically prepared with real audiences in mind (e.g., classmates, students in other classes, the community, a city mayor, tourists), thereby adding a degree of authenticity to the projects, unlike so many other language-classroom activities.

TABLE 1.
A Sampling of Projects Successfully Incorporated into Language Classrooms

Theme	Setting	Skill Emphases	Tangible Final Outcome(s)
Civil Rights	University-based EAP classroom	All skills	Role plays of famous civil-rights movement leaders
Famous National Personalities	High school EFL classroom	All skills	Written analysis of face-to-face interviews conducted by students with tourists in students' hometown
Foods	Beginning-level general-English classroom	Vocabulary building	Scrapbook with labeled pictures of food
Global Peace[1]	University-based EAP classroom	All skills	Permanent Peace Pole (the result of research; letter writing; fund raising; TV radio, and newspaper publicity organized community event)
Inventions	Elective in a pre-university low-level pre-academic English course	All skills	Group inventions (e.g., super cell phone) presented on posters with illustrations and prose descriptions, shared with classmates
Meet the English Faculty	K-12 International School	All skills	Wall newspaper introducing incoming students to English teachers
Native Americans	University-based EAP program	All skills	Posters (based on research on different Native American tribes) displayed at a poster fair, during which students discuss the contents of their posters with classmates and students from other classes

Rain Forests	Elementary school classroom with English language learners	All skills and content areas (including science, math, social studies, art, music)	Reconstructed classroom (that takes place over the school year) to feature elements of and activities in a typical rain forest
Recycling Waste	EFL pre-university English Preparation Program	All skills	Written proposal, based on research on waste and recycling, submitted tothe program director to begin program-wide recycling
Six Amazing Decades	EFL university-based classroom (in Thailand)	All skills	Poster documenting the six decades of the King of Thailand's life (this poster was also displayed by students at the 2007 annual Thai TESOL conference)
Trash to Fashion Show[1]	EAP program	All skills	Fashion show, with students explaining clothing made out of recycled items
Walking Through the Ages	High school vocational EFL (with a focus on tourism)	All skills	Brochure with annotated walking tours for tourists (distributed through local hotels)
A Win-Win Situation[2]	EFL classroomfor advanced senior high school students or university/ college students	All skills, with special attention paid to complex sentences	Letter to a newspaper, magazine, company, government office, or environmental organization about a real-world environmental problem, with proposed solution(s)

[1]Brown and Brown (2007)
[2]Tabiati (2002)

Projects like those showcased in Table 1, which represent the endless possibilities available to ELT professionals, are all content driven, though emphases vary. In some settings, project work is a natural extension of what is already taking place in class. For example, the foods project noted in Table 1 builds upon a mandated textbook chapter. The year-long rainforest project connects project-related activities to all school subject areas. In other contexts, projects shift students' attention away from the standard curriculum, thereby adding new dimensions to the students' educational experience. For example, Hoyt (2013) reported on a project related to the dangers of cell phones, a topic that was student selected and that diverged from the language-program curriculum. Oftentimes projects extend instruction beyond the four walls of the traditional classroom, taking students into other classrooms, into the community, and onto the Web. The information gathering required for the Famous Personalities project noted in Table 1 took place outside of the classroom in

Japan. As part of this project, groups of four English students, each assigned a different role (e.g., interviewer, note taker, requester for clarification, origami gift-giver, the latter for the weakest student in the group), went to famous landmarks in their community to interview international visitors about their familiarity with famous Japanese personalities. Their project resulted in an analysis of interview findings, reported in a written paper and oral presentation.

Projects differ on other dimensions as well. Some projects are highly structured by the teacher — a particularly appropriate model in instructional settings with students who are unfamiliar or uncomfortable with project-based learning. Other projects are semi-structured, with project-related decisions shared by (or perhaps divided between) the teacher and students. In other settings, students are granted the independence to define the goals, content emphases, and final outcomes of their individual (or group) projects.

Some projects focus on real-world issues with the aim of exploring, understanding, and possibly solving a real-world problem. For example, in Indonesia, English students studied the decay of a UNESCO World Heritage site (i.e., the historic Prambanan Temple complex, with the finest Hindu temples in Central Java) the students then proposed solutions and compared them to the solutions proposed by the Indonesian government (Tabiati, 2002). Other projects center on more global issues, including human rights, stereotypes, and social responsibility (Cates & Jacobs, 2006), or an understanding of the target culture (e.g., Allen, 2004; Levine 2004). Some projects represent simulations of real-world events. For example, during election season in the U.S., ESL students might be guided in defining their own political parties, articulating party platforms, and engaging in debates (Stoller, 1997).

The most successful projects are centered on student interests and concerns. The vast array of project-work options, focal points, skill emphases, and configurations makes project-based learning a viable option for teachers in a range of instructional settings. Teachers can tailor project-based learning to complement the needs and interests of their students in addition to the learning objectives of the language programs in which they work.

III. Seven-Step Process

ELT professionals have depicted the process of implementing project-based learning in different ways. For example, Hoyt (2013) identifies three primary stages, including the planning stage, the production stage, and the project-completion stage. In Hoyt's planning stage, students pose questions identify roles, audience, format, and topic; and articulate goals. In Hoyt's production stage, students work on their projects, guided by assessment criteria formulated by the teacher with or without student input, depending on the setting. In Hoyt's project-completion stage, students receive feedback on their projects, revise them, present them, and receive a grade (based on the already familiar rubric).

For well over a decade, my colleagues and I advocated a project-based learning process that spanned 8-10 steps (Alan & Stoller, 2005; Sheppard & Stoller, 1995; Stoller, 1997). Between 1997 and 2005, we advocated a 10-step process. The first three steps of that model, like the first stage of Hoyt's, recognized the value of planning, though what actually transpired in class in terms of teacher and student roles depended on how structured the project was. Those preliminary steps were followed by information gathering (Step 5), processing (Step 7), and reporting (Step 9), as a way to mirror the academic cycle. Each of these three steps was augmented by some form of language support, in Steps 4, 6, and 8. Why did we find the need to add explicit attention to language to our model? Wouldn't language teachers automatically bring language instruction into their project-based instruction? Well, it turns out that oftentimes students and teachers engaged in project work get so caught up in the content of their projects that the language element is neglected, representing a lost opportunity to help students improve their language abilities even further. The 10-step process that we advocated did not end with the reporting (i.e., presenting) and grading of students' projects. Rather, the model concluded with a reflection stage (Step 10), during which students reflected on the language and content learned during the course of the project.

The 10-step model, which served us well for over a decade, has since been modified, based on observations of countless projects being implemented in language classes in second and foreign language settings. The "streamlined" seven-step model, described in the remainder of this article, represents a "re-packaging" of the important elements in the original 10-step model. As will be illustrated in the sections that follow, the main changes made involve merging the language improvement steps into the information gathering, processing, and reporting steps, reflecting how intertwined these activities could be (and should be). Instead of representing explicit language attention as an "add-on," as was done in the 10-step model, in this seven-step model, attention to language is an integral and iterative component of the model.

IV. Preliminary Steps 1-3

Before the project begins, teacher and students need to agree on a project theme (Step 1), determine the final tangible outcome/s (Step 2), and structure the project to guide students from its beginning to its conclusion (Step 3). Teacher and student roles during these preliminary steps, and the class time devoted to them, vary depending on how structured the project will be. As mentioned above, newcomers to project-based learning and lower-level proficiency students will likely benefit from more structured projects, with most elements of the project decided by the teacher (e.g., themes, student roles and responsibilities, steps to take, materials to use). More advanced and/or mature students, who understand their content- and language-learning needs and who are comfortable with the freedom to make decisions of their own, benefit from defining their own projects and determining a final outcome that will help them advance their language abilities and the content knowledge that they want to gain from the experience. In either case, or somewhere in between (with semi-structured projects), the teacher needs to work on student buy-in during these early steps of the process. Even with teacher-structured projects, students benefit from being given the opportunity to voice their opinions and make some project-related decisions (e.g., to search for information on the Web, in the library, and/or through interviews) as ways to develop a sense of ownership in the project. Giving students choices represents a powerful tool for nurturing project ownership. One effective way of developing student buy-in, with more structured projects, is to give students choices in terms of topics within themes. For example, imagine a project centered on astronomy; students could choose the planet that they want to research. In a project on indigenous peoples, students could chose to focus on language, arts and crafts, religion, education, family relationships, and/or the local economy. Similarly, in a project on foods, students could choose to focus on fruits, vegetables, animal products, prepared foods, or fast foods. Another choice students can be given (or asked to agree upon), when working in pairs or groups, centers on group members' roles and responsibilities, as in the Famous Personalities project mentioned above.

V. Information Gathering, Compiling and Analyzing, and Reporting (Steps 4-6)

Steps 4-6 of this model take us through Hoyt's Stages 2 and 3 (project production and project completion). In the model presented here, however, more explicit attention is paid to the language teaching that can occur at each of these stages. As will become apparent, the language teaching emphases, largely dependent on the nature of the project being completed and student needs, evolve over the course of the project.

A. Information Gathering Cycle (Step 4)

As depicted in Figure 1 in the Appendix, Step 4 involves an iterative cycle of information gathering and language instruction, the latter geared specifically to the language and strategy demands of information-gathering tasks. Thus, if students are gathering information by means of interviews, the teacher might focus on question formation; pronunciation and intonation; gambits to request repetition, clarification, and/or elaboration; the language of openings and closings; topic-related vocabulary; and key grammatical structures. On the other hand, if students are gathering information by reading, the teacher might focus on establishing a purpose for reading, making and later checking predictions, skimming for main ideas, scanning for details, inferencing, using organizational structure for main-idea comprehension, jotting down notes in the margins to keep track of the progression of ideas in the text, and again, learning topic-related vocabulary. As another example, if students are gathering information on videos or YouTube, the popular video-sharing site on the Web, the teacher might assist students with listening comprehension by providing instruction and practice in establishing a purpose for listening, posing questions, listening for the gist, listening for details, and notetaking. Similarly, if students are using the Web or writing letters to gather information for their projects, the teacher would identify the language and strategy demands of key tasks and address them explicitly in class to not only set students up for success but also use the authenticity of the project-based task to advance students' language and strategy learning.

B. Information Compilation and Analysis Cycle (Step 5)

After students have gathered information for their projects, they are ready to compile it and analyze it, with the goals of their project in mind. Parallel to the information gathering cycle described above, Step 5 involves an iterative cycle of information compilation and analysis, supported by explicit instruction focused on the language and strategy demands of related tasks (as depicted in Figure 2 in the Appendix). The emphases of the teacher's instruction depend on how students have gathered information and the goals of their projects. If students, for example, have gathered information by means of audiotaped or videotaped interviews, the teacher might want to provide students with practice in transcribing taped interviews; listening for commonly misunderstood words, sounds or syntactic structures; reviewing transcriptions for pertinent information and setting aside information determined to be irrelevant (for the moment, at least) to the project; and summarizing and/or synthesizing the data collected. In a parallel fashion, students who have gathered information by means of reading can be guided in post-reading activities that mirror steps taken by skilled readers. Students might be asked to revisit their purposes for reading, reread to confirm or search for other information, review their notes, distinguish pertinent information from less pertinent information, pull together information from multiple sources in a grid or outline, paraphrase, and/or review vocabulary and grammatical structures to promote post-reading comprehension. Parallel teacher "interventions" can be planned for students who have gathered information from written correspondence, videos, movies, and other sources.

C. Information Reporting Cycle (Step 6)

After students have decided what information has value for their projects, what data they are going to discard (i.e., set aside), how information will be synthesized, and what information is missing (which will send them back to Step 4 to gather additional data), students are ready to pull information together in preparation for project completion. It is at this stage where we see, once again, teacher attention to the language demands of the information-reporting cycle (see Figure 3 in the Appendix). If students are preparing written outcomes (whether they come in the form of academic papers, posters, websites, newsletters, wall newspapers, PowerPoint slides to accompany oral presentations, etc.), it is at this stage during which teachers might want to review paraphrasing and methods of in-text attribution, address issues related to plagiarism, review key grammatical structures (e.g., grammatically parallel bullet points on PowerPoint slides), give students practice in peer review, guide students in revision and editing, and discuss manners of presentation and submission. If students' tangible outcomes are oral in nature (e.g., role plays, theatrical productions, formal presentations, debates), it is the appropriate time to review pronunciation, intonation, and stress; discuss manner of presentation (e.g., openings, closings, eye contact, voice projection); review transition words; and give students a chance to rehearse (with feedback). Teacher-led language-improvement activities such as these are designed to contribute to successful project completion and move students forward in their mastery of the language skills and strategies.

VI. Evaluating the Project (Step 7)

Many ELT professionals consider projects complete when the tangible outcomes identified early in the project, in Step 2, are submitted, performed, put in the mail, shared with classmates, or posted on classroom walls or in school corridors, etc. In other words, this would mean that projects are considered done when students turn in their papers, present a written proposal to the school headmaster, put on their plays, present their posters during a poster fair, complete their oral presentations accompanied by PowerPoint slides, or engage in a formal election-style debate. In my view, a lot is lost when the project is considered done at this point. It is worth adding one more important step to the process. As part of this final step, students can evaluate the following:

- The language learned (e.g., vocabulary, grammatical structures)
- The skills improved (e.g., reading, writing, speaking, listening)
- The strategies perfected (e.g., notetaking, previewing, establishing a purpose for reading, rereading for a new purpose, knowing how to ask for clarification or elaboration)
- The informational content learned
- The project itself (from process and product perspectives)

As part of these activities, students can reflect on what they can *do* now that they could not do earlier, what they *know* now that they did not know earlier, and what skills and language might carry over into other projects (in language classrooms, mainstream classrooms, or the workplace). These reflective tasks need not take up a lot of class time. Whatever time is spent evaluating the outcomes of the project can be valuable in terms of increasing students' motivation, self-esteem, and self-concept. Equally important are the insights gained by teachers, which will aid them in planning even more successful projects in the future.

VII. Conclusion

Project-based learning has earned the endorsement of many ELT professionals because of its positive effects on students' language development, content learning, motivation, and self-concept as target-language users. Designing projects to maximize these benefits should be the goal of ELT practitioners who incorporate project work into their classrooms. The seven-step process outlined in this article will hopefully provide teachers with a mechanism for (a) addressing students' language and content learning needs and (b) setting students up for success.

The Author

Fredricka L. Stoller is a Professor at Northern Arizona University, where she teaches in the MA-TESL and Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics programs. She is co-author of *Teaching and Researching Reading* (2nd ed., 2011, Pearson Longman); co-editor of *A Handbook* *for Language Program Administrators* (2nd ed., 2012, Alta Book Center Publishers) and co-author of *Write Like a Chemist* (2008, Oxford University Press). Her professional areas of interest include L2 reading, project-based learning, disciplinary writing, content-based instruction, and language teaching methodology.

REFERENCES

Alan, B., & Stoller, F. L. (2005). Maximizing the benefits of project work in foreign language classrooms. *English Teaching Forum, 43*(4), 10-21. See also http://exchanges.state.gov/englishteaching/forum/archives/docs/05-43-4-c.pdf

Allen, L. Q. (2004). Implementing a culture portfolio project within a constructivist paradigm. *Foreign Language Annals, 37*, 232-239.

Beckett, G. H. (2005). Academic language and literacy socialization through project-based instruction: ESL student perspectives and issues. *Journal of Asia Pacific Communication, 15*, 191-206.

Beckett, G. H., & Miller, P. C. (2006). *Project-based second and foreign language education: Past, present, and future*. Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

Beckett, G. H., & Slater, T. (2005). The project framework: A tool for language and content integration. *English Language Teaching Journal, 59*, 108-116.

Brown, E., & Brown, C. (2007, January). *Partners in the classroom: A global peace education project*. Paper presented at the Thailand TESOL/Pan-Asian Consortium International Conference, Bangkok, Thailand.

Cates, K. A., & Jacobs, G. (2006). Global issue projects in the English language classroom. In G. H. Beckett & P. C. Miller (Eds.), *Project-based second and foreign language education: Past, present, and future* (pp. 167-180). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

Debski, R. (2006). *Project-based language teaching with technology*. Sydney, Australia: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research.

Fried-Booth, D. L. (2002). *Project work* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Hoyt, S. (2013, January 11). *Project based learning: Freedom and excitement in the classroom* [Webinar]. In *TESOL Virtual Seminars*. Available from http://www.tesol.org/events-landing-page/2012/11/20/project-based-learning-freedom-and-excitement-in-the-classroom

Lee, I. (2002). Project work made easy in the English classroom. *The Canadian Modern Language Review, 59*, 282-290.

Levine, G. S. (2004). Global simulation: A student-centered, task-based format for intermediate foreign language courses. *Foreign Language Annals, 37*, 26-36.

Sheppard, K., & Stoller, F. L. (1995). Guidelines for the integration of student projects in ESP classrooms. *English Teaching Forum, 33*(2), 10-15. See also http://eca.state.gov/ forum/vols/vol33/no2/p10.htm

Stoller, F. L. (1997). Project work: A means to promote language and content. *English Teaching Forum, 35*(4), 2-9, 37. See also http://eca.state.gov/forum/vols/vol35/no4/p2.htm

Stoller, F. L. (2006). Establishing a theoretical foundation for project-based learning in second and foreign language contexts. In G. H. Beckett & P. C. Miller (Eds.), *Project-based second and foreign language education: Past, present, and future* (pp. 19-40). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

Tabiati, S. E. (2002). A win-win solution. In A. Lie, G. Jacobs, & S. Amy (Eds.), *English via environmental education: Green lessons for the English classroom* (pp. 111-120). Jakarta, Indonesia: Grasindo.

SELECT WEBSITES (Retrieved in September 2012)

http://exchanges.state.gov/englishteaching/forum/archives/docs/02-40-3-f.pdf – Kayser, A. (2002). Creating meaningful web pages: A project-based course. *English Teaching Forum On-line, 40*(3).

http://www.cal.org/caela/esl_resources/briefs/problembased.html – Mathews-Aydinli, J. (2007). Problem-Based Learning and Adult English Language Learners.

http://exchanges.state.gov/englishteaching/eteacher/e-teacher-awards.html – Blazic, A. Greetings from the World E-Project.

http://pblchecklist.4teachers.org/ – Project based learning: Checklists to support project based learning and evaluation.

http://thaiuo.uoregon.edu/session_01.html – Thai-University of Oregon Videoconferences (see Part One: Project-Based Learning).

http://www.edutopia.org/project-based-learning – Project-based learning (The George Lucas Educational Foundation).

http://www.edutopia.org/stw-maine-pbl – How you can do it: Project learning (The George Lucas Educational Foundation).

http://www.ncsall.net/index.php?id=385 – Gaer, S. (1998, December). Less teaching and more learning. *Focus on basics: Connecting research and practice*, Volume 2, Issue D.

http://www.ncsall.net/index.php?id=384 – Wrigley, H. S. (1998, December). Knowledge in action: The promise of project-based learning. *Focus on basics: Connecting research and practice*, Volume 2, Issue D.

http://www.ericdigests.org/1999-4/project.htm – Moss, D., & Van Duzer, C. (1999). Project-based learning for adult English language learners. *ERIC Digest*.

https://sites.google.com/site/inteched/project-based-learning – Kraft, N. (2005). Criteria for authentic project-based learning.

http://www.atesl.ca/cmsms/home/newsletters/december-2007/project-based-esl-education/ – Guo, Y. (2007, December). Project-based ESL education: Promoting language and content learning. Alberta Teachers of English as a Second Language.

http://www.slideshare.net/irwyn12/technology-project-based-instruction-presentation – Lowry, E. (2008). Centered on them: Technology & project based instruction.

http://www.prel.org/products/paced/oct04/ns_project.htm – Kuamoo, M. Project-based instruction: Learning in real-world context benefits ELLs.

http://www.jalt-publications.org/old_tlt/articles/1999/03/tomei – Tomei, J., Glick, C., & Holst, M. (1999). Project work in the Japanese university classroom. *The Language Teacher, 23*(3), 5-8.

http://susangaer.com/studentprojects/pbl/ – Gaer, S. (2000). Perspectives on CALL for Project Based Learning Adult Education.

http://www.ehow.com/info_8103520_english-projects-esl.html – Marquez, K. E. English Projects for ESL.

http://asiasociety.org/education/resources-schools/professional-learning/project-based-learning-tops-traditional-instruction – Project-Based Learning Tops Traditional Instruction.

APPENDIX

FIGURE 1. Information gathering cycle (Step 4).

FIGURE 2. Information compilation and analysis cycle (Step 5).

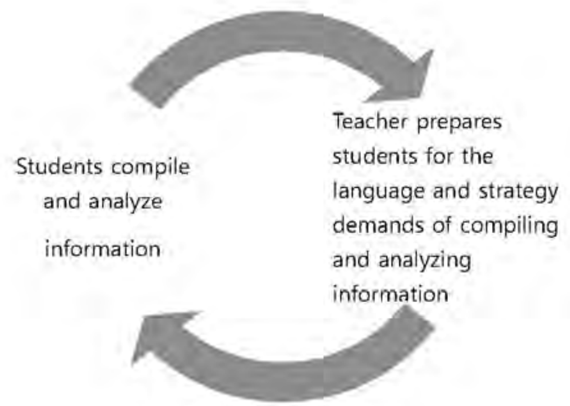


FIGURE 3. Information reporting cycle (Step 5).

Extensive Reading in Korea: 10 Years and Going Strong

Rob Waring
Notre Dame Seishin University, Okayama, Japan

This article summarizes the growth in interest, understanding, and practice of Extensive Reading on the Korean Peninsula in the last ten years. Extensive Reading is a relatively new phenomenon in Korea despite it being practiced for decades elsewhere, both globally and within parts of Asia, but is often mischaracterized and misunderstood. This article attempts to clarify and dispel some of these.

I. Introduction

Extensive Reading (ER) has been practiced in Korea for more than ten years, but it is a very new phenomenon for most EFL teachers and students. Korean learners and teachers have become used to the Intensive Reading approach which, involves the intense study of texts. This practice has become so ingrained that this is often considered to be the only valid form of reading. Ten years ago, it was hard to find any graded readers published locally in Korea, and only a few schools had ER programs, but nowadays this has changed. All the Korean EFL publishers have written their own series or have adapted existing reader series for the Korean market. In 2012 alone, five new series are being launched in Korea as well as several online courses.

II. Defining Extensive Reading

Despite this growth, it is still common to find misunderstandings and misperceptions about ER. Many teachers *think* they know what Extensive Reading is, but in fact, upon closer examination, it typically just involves reading longer passages of intensively studied and tested texts. This is compounded by some local publishers confusing the market by publishing Extensive Reading series that are actually just longer passages of Intensive Reading texts. My many visits to Korea this past decade have revealed that many of these misperceptions and misunderstandings about what ER is stem from an incomplete understanding of the definition of ER.

Before the days of Harold Palmer and Michael West in the 1920s and 1930s, Extensive Reading was characterized somewhat differently than how we do nowadays. At that time, ER was seen as a first-language concept aimed at reading widely to develop a well-educated mind. The foreign-language concept of ER involves not only reading a lot, but at the right level. Day and Bamford's (1998) ten ER "commandments" have been somewhat helpful in defining what ER is in a purist Krashenite sense but have led many teachers to believe that *pleasurable unassessed* reading of *self-selected books* as the *only* valid form of ER. Taken as a whole, Day and Bamford's definition sets out an idealistic view of ER and should not be seen as a straight-jacket.

However, an incomplete understanding of their intentions have frustrated some teachers who have felt their educational situation did not allow them to practice ER in the absolutist way Day and Bamford have set out, and have therefore shunned it because ER does not appear to fit their context. Even among those who do understand ER, there are many who are apologetic or even feel guilty about not doing *pure ER* or not doing it *the right way*. This overly strict definition of ER has led to considerable unnecessary angst and confusion, and even turned some practitioners away from ER (e.g., Wells, 2012). It is therefore important to set out what ER is as we move forward with the promotion of ER in the Korean context.

A definition of Extensive Reading should take into account both the process and the pedagogy of ER. Extensive Reading can be described as the mental *process* of reading texts, at or near one's fluent reading level, with a primary focus on comprehension and enjoyment. Thus, reading extensively occurs when a learner is processing text in a certain way. From a process perspective, ER is not concerned with whether it is done for a few moments, or for a few hours. This means that reading a bus timetable fast and fluently is as valid a form of ER as is reading magazines, graded readers, webpages, or even books.

The *pedagogy* of ER is more concerned with the methodology that supports ER — the choice of materials, the reading environment, assessment, follow-up activities, and the volume of text to be read, among other things. I have argued elsewhere (e.g., Waring, 2009) that massive exposure to text is a necessary condition for long-term acquisition, and it makes sense that this is done in a fast, fluent manner. While reading more is clearly better, it is not a *requirement* of meeting the conditions for the *process* of reading extensively that learners read a lot. Students can read a short passage "extensively" as long as it meets the conditions for fluent reading set out above.

Nor is it a requirement that the reading only be individualized and be enjoyable. It is perfectly valid for all the learners to read the same texts as the rest of the class, provided that they read fluently, with high comprehension and with a primary focus on the message, not the language in the text itself. While it is obviously better that students read enjoyable, self-selected materials, however in real classrooms, students often share the same textbooks or library and cannot choose what they want to read but, nevertheless, can process it in a fluent manner. Many times they won't know whether they like a particular text or not until long after they have taken it home for the week, but are, nevertheless, required to read it and write a report on it by the next class. Should they miss out on their reading simply because it is considered boring or too hard? My own view is that they should read it and choose more carefully the next time. Moreover, many libraries are full of boring materials chosen by teachers (or more likely administrators or salesmen) without much care for student interest and without their consultation. Given these circumstances, reality suggests that too few students will find that "home-run book" that switches them on to a life of passionate reading, and so, we should adapt our expectations accordingly.

Day and Bamford's emphasis on *books* and especially *graded readers* has also led many teachers to believe that the ER community is somehow in the back pockets of graded reader publishers because the fast, fluent reading of webpages, magazines, or other materials graded in difficulty is often not mentioned in articles, speeches, and workshops. In reality, not everyone wants to read long texts, often of classic works of literature. Instead, they may prefer to read graded webpages or blogs, or even *listen* to materials extensively.

We should not hold out false expectations that learners will be switched on to reading simply because we have created the conditions for them to get into the "reading habit." The above suggests that we should be modest and realistic about what we *can* achieve, or we will burden teachers and students whose hopes will be dashed by reality and who might then turn away from ER altogether as we have already seen. This does mean though, that when making ER programs, we include the learners in discussions about what they want to read and make them aware of the best reading materials we can find, as well as see ER in flexible ways.

Moving forward, a more modest, wider, and more inclusive definition of ER is needed — one that allows multiple perspectives which don't require the reading to always be the individual, self-selected reading of books without assessment. Teachers are notoriously slow to change pedagogical paradigms, so a more inclusive and less restrictive definition of ER is likely to lead to less resistance to it, and fewer claims that ER is impractical in the Korean context.

III. The Growth in Interest

Korean students of English have become used to considering the formal study of short intensive texts as the only valid and time-worthy form of reading. Most course books (even some of those labeled Extensive Reading!) contain short passages with many unknown words, follow-up exercises, and comprehension questions. However, a growing number of teachers (and students) are beginning to understand that practicing the language only piece by piece is insufficient in the complex, highly interconnected, fluid, and dynamic world that is English. They realize that while intensive practice of grammar and vocabulary is useful to a point, this language code must be seen and comprehended in discourse (whether read or listened to) for it to make sense as a *system*.

This realization by many teachers has led to the creation of the KOTESOL ER-SIG, KEERA, and other satellite ER organizations such as the Jeju Island ER community. The KOTESOL ER-SIG was created in 2007 by Scott Miles and Aaron Jolly. It holds numerous ER events all over Korea, including their annual ER Colloquium held every year at the KOTESOL International Conference, and occasional other events.

In 2010, a group of Korea-based Extensive Reading specialists created the Korean English Extensive Reading Association (KEERA). Within two months, KEERA had 75 members, a Facebook page (https://www.facebook.com/groups/178415708885691/), a website (www.keera.or.kr), a constitution, and a Yahoogroups discussion list (http://groups.yahoo.com/group/KEERA/). The first meetings attracted more than 30 members, and within a few weeks, KEERA members had elected its Executive Board, headed by Dr. Jeong-ryeol Kim, of Korea National University of Education, as its President. Since that time, KEERA has been very active in promoting ER in Korea by translating the Extensive Reading Foundation's *Guide to Extensive Reading* into Korean. Seven local Korea-based publishers generously shared the cost of design and printing of the guide, which is freely available in paper or PDF form. In 2011, again with the cooperation and support of the local publishers, who donated prizes, KEERA started the KEERA Graded Reader Review Competition for students in Korean middle schools and high schools. Reviews of graded readers were received from all over Korea and from students of all ages. The winners were announced in September 2011. The success of this competition underlies the growing acceptance of graded readers as a medium to practice ER and has lead to its continuance in 2012.

IV. The Future

The successes of KEERA and KOTESOL's ER-SIG promotion of Extensive Reading in Korea has built on the growing boom in ER in Northeast Asia as a whole in the last two decades. This has lead many teachers in Korea to consider Extensive Reading for their classes. ER practitioners welcome this vast increase in interest but are cautious about it becoming a fad, only to fade away in the constant search for something new to sell or promote. Therefore, a major challenge to ER within Korea in the coming decade is to develop and deepen awareness of the need for ER within the Korean context so that it is not marginalized when the next fad comes along.

Among these challenges will be to explain the aims of ER and to show the various ways that it can be practiced and integrated within the Korean systems. In my experience, when ER is first promoted strongly in countries new to ER, there is initial resistance from the majority, mostly due to inertia and a long tradition of doing things in particular ways. However, some early-adopters take up the challenge and through their efforts show how beneficial ER has been in their classes. In Stage 2, these early-adopters promote ER themselves to their colleagues, both nationally and locally, and some heads begin to turn. By Stage 3, many teachers are aware of ER and what it can do, but still haven't (often for practical reasons) yet adopted it, and feel guilty for not doing so because they know why it is important. By Stage 4, the majority of institutions have ER programs, with some of them not running so well, and some having failed, often due to poor implementation or wild expectations. By Stage 5, ER has become part of the standard curriculum within an institution, or locally, or even nationally. At present, Korea is somewhere between stage 1 and 3, depending on who you talk to, with a small minority of institutions (typically colleges where there is more freedom to innovate) having permanent ER programs. Thus, a challenge facing us all is to continue to work with people who are at various stages of understanding of ER so that we can help them to meet their own challenges and help them fight their battles to have ER implemented in all English programs in Korea.

In 2011, KEERA was awarded the Second Extensive Reading Foundation

World Congress on Extensive Reading. This will be held on September 13-15, 2013, at Yonsei University in Seoul in conjunction with the Korean Association of Foreign Languages Education (KAFLE), headed by Dr. Jeong-ryeol Kim. In 2011, over 400 people from all over the world attended the First Extensive Reading Foundation World Congress on Extensive Reading in Kyoto, Japan, despite a typhoon! I hope that all people interested in Extensive Reading (and Extensive Listening) will attend the conference and help to spread awareness and acceptance of Extensive Reading as a necessary component of all language programs on the Korean Peninsula. More information can be found at www.er-korea-2013.org.

Another challenge the ER community face in Korea is convincing the "tiger moms" and the *hagwons* (private after-school academies) that learning a language is more than just attending school and passing tests. This view of seeing English as a wall of bricks to be learnt one by one involves students in memorizing lots of discrete facts "about" English rather than seeing English as a living breathing system. A similar analogy is with seeing an English learner's task of completing a 10,000-piece jigsaw puzzle with the student often having no picture of what the final puzzle looks like. The problem with these analogies is that when the student feels s/he has built the wall by putting all the pieces together, it falls down when the wind blows from lack of cement — the glue that holds it all together.

A further problem is that many *hagwons* want to control their student's whole language learning experience and earn money from each element — the classes, the after-sales service, and the textbooks and reading materials. This means that many *hagwons* write their own materials or buy poorly made materials without much understanding of how to use them and have few experts on staff who know how to conduct self-paced, self-directed reading through Extensive Reading. A problem with this is that it is very hard to ensure that students will develop a love of reading if they are reading poor quality materials and basically left alone. On the brighter side, there is a small but growing number of private schools and *hagwons* who do understand the benefits of ER and are actively promoting fluency-based reading courses. The recent curfew on after-hour *hagwons* might finally mean that kids will get the freedom to read at home.

THE AUTHOR

Rob Waring is Associate Professor at Notre Dame Seishin University in Okayama, Japan. He is an Executive Board member of the Extensive Reading Foundation and Vice-President of the Korean English Extensive Reading Association (www.keera.or.kr). Dr. Waring is co-author, editor, or series editor of three series of graded readers published by Cengage Learning. He can be contacted at waring.rob@gmail.com.

REFERENCES

Day, R., & Bamford, J. (1998). *Extensive Reading in the second language classroom*. London: Cambridge University Press.

Waring, R. (2009). The inescapable case for Extensive Reading. In A. Cirocki (Ed.), *Extensive Reading in English language teaching*. Munich, Germany: Lincom Europa.

Wells, P. (2012). No gain without pain. *English Teaching Professional*, *78*, 46-49.

Assessment / Testing

The Effect of Interlocutor Proficiency on EFL Paired Oral Assessment

Huei-Chun Teng
National Taiwan University of Science and Technology, Taipei, Taiwan

This study aims to investigate the effect of interlocutor proficiency on EFL paired oral assessment. The participants were ten students who majored in English and ten students with other majors from a university in Taiwan. A role-play task was adopted for the paired oral test. The scoring rubric adopted a scale of 1-5 in the subcategories of grammar and vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and content. Results show that lower-proficiency EFL learners performed significantly better in fluency when talking to partners who had higher EFL proficiency than themselves. In addition, most of the interactions in the paired oral test were collaborative. The participants were nearly unanimous in their preference for the paired oral test. Through providing empirical evidence and description, the current study is expected to shed some light on the administration of EFL paired speaking tests, and ultimately, to teach Taiwanese college students to become more effective EFL speakers.

I. Introduction

With the popularity of the communicative approach in language teaching, there has been increasing use of pair work in second language learning contexts which have resulted in the growth of paired oral assessment. Davis (2009) indicated that the assessment of spoken language is a complex matter in which a score is ultimately produced through the interaction of different factors. Based on the models proposed by previous researchers (e.g., Bachman, 2001; Kenyon, 1992; McNamara, 1996; Skehan, 1998), a paired oral assessment can be regarded as a performance that is the result of an interaction among candidate, task, and interlocutor that is then judged by rater(s) who apply a rating scale and produce a score. The performance in actual assessment may vary in response to various tasks, different examinees, and interlocutors.

Egyud and Glover (2001) argued in favor of the paired format concerning candidate preferences, performance opportunities, quality interaction, washback, and training. Ffrench (2003) also reported that candidates were nearly unanimous in their preference for the paired format. In spite of the potential benefits of the paired test format, a major concern has been the question of whether it matters who is paired with whom (Fulcher, 2003). Brown and McNamara (2004) claimed that the interlocutor factor is potentially more complex in paired or group oral speaking tests. Since the issue of interlocutor effect in speaking tests has received attention in second language research for years, it is worth investigating the issue again using a Taiwanese experience by examining the interlocutor effect in the context of EFL speaking test. The following research questions were addressed:

1. Does the proficiency of interlocutors influence the rating scores of a paired oral test?
2. What impact does interlocutor proficiency have on the discourse produced in the test (i.e., the amount of language and the type of interaction)?
3. What are EFL college students' perceptions of the paired oral assessment?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

For the past two decades, there have been a number of studies which looked at the effect on speaking test performance of a number of variables associated with the interlocutor. The interlocutor variables examined in various empirical studies include accommodative question (e.g., Morton et al., 1997), acquaintanceship (e.g., O'Sullivan, 2002), age (e.g., Buckingham, 1997), gender (e.g., Lumley & O'Sullivan, 2005), interaction style (e.g., Porter & Shen, 1991), personality (e.g., Ockey, 2009), proficiency level (e.g., Davis, 2009), rapport level (McNamara & Lumley, 1997), and status (e.g., Porter & Shen, 1991).

Among the interlocutor variables mentioned above, the current study specifically investigates one of them, i.e., proficiency. Regarding the effect of interlocutor proficiency on test performance, mixed findings have been presented in previous research. For example, in Iwashita's (1996) study, test takers in both groups of high and low proficiency produced more number of turns and c-units in a two-way task when working with a high-proficiency partner. It was proposed that interlocutor proficiency may influence both the amount of talk produced and scores received on a speaking task. In contrast, Bonk and Van Moere (2004) found that neither the groups' mean proficiency level nor the amount of variation in proficiency levels present in the group appeared to change the scores examinees were expected to receive. Nakatsuhara (2004) studied the discourse produced by various combinations of higher- and lower-proficiency candidates performing a problem-solving task and found no differences in the features of interactional contingency, goal orientation, and quantity dominance. The results suggested that differences in proficiency level among candidates had little effect on conversation type. Moreover, Davis (2009) examined the influence of interlocutor proficiency on speaking performance in a group of Chinese college freshmen. Findings show that interlocutor proficiency level had no observable effect on the Rasch analysis ability measure, but lower-level examinees produced more language when working with a higher-level partner. He proposed that examinees' proficiency differences need not preclude use of the paired oral test format. Lazaraton and Davis (2008) also argued that proficiency is fluid based on who one is talking to in a second language and what sort of identities are mediated in the interaction.

There has been a considerable amount of research on oral proficiency testing over the past decades, but little is understood about the interview process and spoken interaction. May (2009) indicated that paired candidate speaking tests have received relatively little attention in the language testing literature until recently. The role of the examiner in the oral assessment context deserves much more empirical attention than it has received to date (Lazaraton, 1996). Furthermore, a number of studies have proposed that interlocutor characteristics such as age, gender, proficiency, familiarity, personality and cultural norms may influence an examinee's performance, but the picture is still not clear. Lazaraton and Davis (2008) pointed out the great need of legitimate scrutiny for the paired format since it has been hypothesized that the interlocutor effect may compromise score validity. O'Sullivan (2002) also suggested that any test format that employs tasks requiring interaction between individuals calls for rather urgent and extensive study.

According to McNamara (1997), research of interlocutor behavior in test and non-test settings is needed, including how this behavior may vary with interlocutors' characteristics. Brown (2003) also mentioned that few empirical studies are concerned specifically with variation among interviewers. In addition, van Lier (1989) proposed that we must work toward clear policies and techniques of oral interviewing based on detailed analysis of actual interviews. However, there is only a very limited number of studies that have investigated the interlocutor effects in the EFL testing context, either quantitatively or qualitatively. The current research aims to help fill this void by examining the effect of interlocutor proficiency on EFL paired oral assessment. Through providing empirical evidence and description, the present study seeks to facilitate our understanding on the administration of EFL paired speaking tests, and ultimately to teach Taiwanese college students to become more effective EFL speakers.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Participants in the current study were 20 students at a university in northern Taiwan. These were 10 students who majored in English and 10 students with other majors. The ten English majors, with an average TOEIC score of 840, were designated as learners of higher EFL proficiency, and the ten non-majors, with an average TOEIC score of 530, were EFL learners of lower proficiency. The participants included 13 females and 7 males. They ranged in age from 18 to 23 years old. They were uniform in first language background and had a relatively homogeneous cultural background. All of them had completed at least six years of EFL study prior to entering university.

B. Instrument

The main instruments used in the present study consisted of an oral test, a questionnaire, a rating scale, and an interview guide. A role-play task was adopted for the paired oral test in the study. The two test takers engaged in a simulated conversation derived from a situation described on a card. In addition, a questionnaire designed mainly based on Brown (1993) and van Moere (2006) was utilized to probe participants' perceptions of their test performances and their preferences for interlocutors. The questionnaire included 13 items given on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree."

Another instrument was a rating scale used for scoring the role-play task. The scoring rubric adopted a scale of 1-5 in the subcategories of grammar and vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and content. Subscale scores were averaged to produce a final overall raw score. Finally, an interview guide with three main questions was developed to further explore participants' perceptions of their test performance in the role-play task.

C. Procedures

Participants were randomly assigned to subgroups of four, which contained two higher-proficiency students and two lower-proficiency students. Thus, there were five subgroups of four participants in each group. Within each subgroup, pairings were arranged so that each participant was tested once with a partner having the same proficiency and once with a partner having a different level of proficiency. Performances of the role play were recorded using digital audio and video recorders for subsequent scoring and analysis. Then, a questionnaire was administered to the test takers immediately after the oral test and before they left the exam room. Finally, a follow-up interview was scheduled later with the twenty participants to probe their perceptions of the paired oral test.

D. Data Analysis

All examinees' test performances were scored by two raters who were native speakers of English with graduate degrees in English language teaching or a related field. Test takers' scores were based on an average of the two raters' scores. A paired t-test was performed on the five dependent variables, including overall score, grammar and vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and content. In addition, the quantity of language produced in each candidate's performance was measured by counting the number of words spoken by the individual participant. Word counts were compared between pairing types by a paired t-test.

Moreover, in order to explore the elicited interactional patterns, candidate discourse was analyzed using Galaczi's (2008) framework, which characterized discourse in terms of interaction types: collaborative, asymmetric, and parallel. Interactional type was defined with two variables, i.e., equality and mutuality. Finally, questionnaire responses and interview answers were analyzed to explore participants' perceptions of the paired oral test.

IV. Results

A. Rating Scores of the Paired Oral Test

The speech productions on the oral test of the participants were scored by a rating scale of 1-5 in the subcategories of grammar and vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and discourse management, i.e., content. Subscale scores were averaged to produce a final overall raw score. Test takers' scores were based on an average of the two raters' scores. Table 1 shows the twenty participants' performance on the oral test, with test scores included.

TABLE 1. Descriptive Statistics of the Oral Test Scores

Test Performance	Lower-Proficiency Students						Higher-Proficiency Students					
	Partner = Higher			Partner = Lower			Partner = Higher			Partner = Lower		
	N	SD	Mean	N	SD	Mean	N	SD	Mean	N	SD	Mean
Grammar & Vocabulary	10	0.42	3.50	10	0.34	3.27	10	0.24	4.17	10	0.32	4.10
Pronunciation	10	0.39	3.80	10	0.34	3.60	10	0.27	4.23	10	0.41	4.27
Fluency	10	0.40	3.70	10	0.37	3.30	10	0.31	4.33	10	0.32	4.20
Content	10	0.55	3.87	10	0.42	3.53	10	0.14	4.27	10	0.47	4.27
Total Score	10	0.35	3.72	10	0.34	3.43	10	0.20	4.25	10	0.33	4.21

The main intent of the study is to empirically investigate the effect of interlocutor proficiency on EFL paired oral assessment. One of the research questions is to examine whether the proficiency of interlocutors influences the average rating scores and the subscale scores. Based on the research purpose, participants' scores in the paired oral test with the interlocutors of the same and different proficiency levels were compared. The results of the paired t-test for oral test scores are shown in Table 2. Among the four subcategories and total score, there was significant difference in the subscale score of fluency for lower-proficiency participants. That is, they performed significantly better in fluency when talking to partners with higher EFL proficiency than their own.

TABLE 2. T-Test of Oral Test Scores

Language Amount	Lower-Proficiency Students		Higher-Proficiency Students	
	Partner = Higher	Partner = Lower	Partner = Higher	Partner = Lower
N	10	10	10	10
SD	29.33	14.04	29.79	56.84
Mean	65.90	47.00	106.90	103.30
Rank	3	4	1	2

B. Discourse Produced on the Oral Test

Besides analyzing the participants' test scores, the study examined the discourse produced on the paired oral test, i.e., the amount of language and the type of interaction. The quantity of language produced in each candidate's performance was measured by counting the number of words spoken by the individual participant. Word counts were compared between pairing types through a paired t-test, and the Pearson Product-Moment correlation was used to compare word counts to average scores. Table 3 shows that higher-proficiency participants paired with higher-proficiency interlocutors had the highest scores in quantity of produced discourse. The second-highest amount of discourse was produced by higher-proficiency participants paired with lower-proficiency interlocutors. Lower-proficiency participants paired with lower-proficiency interlocutors produced the least amount of discourse. In addition, the result of correlation analysis indicates that there is significant correlation ($r = 0.676$, $p = 0.000$) between language quantity and total score on the oral test.

TABLE 3. Descriptive Statistics of Language Quantity in Oral Test

Test Performance	Lower-Proficiency Students				Higher-Proficiency Students			
	Partner = Higher		Partner = Lower		Partner = Higher		Partner = Lower	
	df	difference	*t*	p-value	df	difference	*t*	p-value
Grammar & Vocabulary	18	0.23	1.35	0.19	18	0.07	0.53	0.60
Pronunciation	18	0.20	1.21	0.24	18	-0.04	-0.21	0.83
Fluency	18	0.40	2.33	0.03*	18	0.13	0.94	0.36
Content	18	0.33	1.52	0.15	18	0.00	0.00	1.00
Total Score	18	0.29	1.89	0.07	18	0.04	0.34	0.74

In order to explore the elicited interactional patterns, participant discourse was analyzed in terms of interaction types: collaborative, asymmetric, and parallel. Table 4 indicates that collaborative is the most frequent interaction type identified in the discourse of the paired oral test for both higher-proficiency and lower-proficiency participants. Moreover, the asymmetric type is also identified in the interaction between two participants of different EFL proficiency.

TABLE 4. Frequency of Interaction Type

Interaction Type	Lower-Proficiency Students						Higher-Proficiency Students					
	Partner = Higher			Partner = Lower			Partner = Higher			Partner = Lower		
	N	*f*	Rank	N	*f*	Rank	N	*f*	Rank	N	*f*	Rank
Collaborative	10	7	1	10	9	1	10	10	1	10	7	1
Parallel	10	1	3	10	1	2	10	0	2	10	1	3
Asymmetric	10	2	2	10	0	3	10	0	2	10	2	2

Note. f = frequency.

V. DISCUSSION

In the study, the first research question is to examine whether the proficiency of interlocutors influences the rating scores of the paired oral test. Results indicate that higher-proficiency participants paired with higher-proficiency interlocutors had the highest scores in the three subscales, total score, and language amount. Lower-proficiency participants also scored higher and produced more language when their interlocutors had higher EFL proficiency. Furthermore, lower-proficiency participants performed significantly better in fluency when talking to the partners who had a higher EFL proficiency than their own.

The findings of the study support Iwashita's (1996) study in which test takers in both the high- and low-proficiency groups produced a greater number of turns and c-units in a two-way task when working with a high-proficiency partner. The present study is in line with Davis (2009) who found that lower-level examinees produced more language when working with a higher-level interlocutor. Cao (2011) also indicated that students preferred to talk to interlocutors who were more competent than themselves. Thus, it is proposed that interlocutor proficiency may influence both the test scores received and the amount of talk produced in paired oral assessment. Moreover, some of the interview answers also support participants' preference of working with higher-proficiency interlocutors. Here is one such response:

> "I can talk more with higher-proficiency interlocutors. I can learn more new things from them. I can have more thoughts and ideas. They have better communication skills, so I can respond properly. They can promote and enhance my speaking ability."

However, mixed findings were presented in previous studies regarding the impact of interlocutor proficiency on oral test performance. Bonk and Van Moere (2004) suggested that neither the groups' mean proficiency level nor the amount of variation in proficiency levels in the group change the scores examinees were expected to receive. Nakatsuhara (2004) found no differences in the discourse produced by various combinations of higher- and lower-proficiency participants performing a problem-solving task. The results suggested that differences in proficiency level among participants had little effect on conversation type. In the study, some participants also mention their preference for working with lower-proficiency interlocutors. For example:

> I can have better performance with a lower-proficiency interlocutor because I want to try my best to help. I would not feel too nervous, stressful, or depressed with a lower-proficiency interlocutor.

To sum up, with these inconsistent findings from the literature, it is likely that proficiency is fluid based on who one is talking to in L2 and what sort of identities are mediated in the interaction (Lazaraton & Davis, 2008). Besides proficiency level, other interlocutor variables might affect L2 learners' performances in paired oral tests. Davis (2009) also proposed that examinees' proficiency differences need not preclude the use of the paired oral test.

With regard to the perceptions of paired oral assessment, the results of the questionnaire and interview are mostly consistent with those of the literature. Egyud and Glover (2001) were in favor of the paired format in relation to participant preferences, performance opportunities, interaction quality, washback, and training. Just like the participants in Ffrench's (2003) study, the participants in the current research were nearly unanimous in their preference for the paired oral test. Their main reasons of this preference included the following:

> It is fun to have a topic for talking with someone you don't know. I can do the conversation in context. It is very interesting to practice speaking this way.

Moreover, Taylor (2000) indicated a number of advantages associated with the paired speaking test, including positive washback, more varied samples of interaction, less asymmetry in interaction, and more varied language function. The study results support Taylor's (2000) argument. In the interview, participants answered that there are many different characters and topics to talk about. Among the total 40 interactions in the paired oral test, 33 were collaborative and only 4 are asymmetric.

VI. Conclusion

The present study proposed that interlocutor proficiency may influence both the test scores received and the amount of talk produced in paired oral assessment for EFL learners. In addition, most of the interactions in the paired oral test were collaborative. The participants were nearly unanimous in their preference for the paired oral test. O'Sullivan (2002) suggested that any test format that employs tasks requiring interaction between individuals calls for rather urgent and extensive study. Lazaraton and Davis (2008) also pointed out the great need for legitimate scrutiny of the paired format. Through providing empirical evidence and description, the current study is expected to shed some light on the administration of EFL paired speaking tests, and ultimately to teach Taiwanese college students to become more effective EFL speakers.

The Author

Huei-Chun Teng received her Ph.D. in Second Languages Education from the University of Minnesota. She is currently a professor in the Department of Applied Foreign Languages at National Taiwan University of Science and Technology. Her research interests include L2 listening research, communication study, language assessment, and learning strategy. Email: tenghc@mail.ntust.edu.tw

References

Bachman, L. F. (2001, February). *Speaking as a realization of communicative competence*. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Association of Applied Linguistics – International Language Testing Association (AAAL-ILTA) Symposium. St. Louis, MO, USA.

Bonk, W. J., & van Moere, A. (2004, March). *L2 group oral testing: The influence of shyness / outgoingness, match or interlocutors' proficiency level, and gender on individual scores*. Paper presented at the Language Testing Research Colloquium, Temecula, CA, USA.

Brown, A. (1993). The role of test-taker feedback in the test development process: Test-takers' reactions to a tape-mediated test of proficiency in spoken Japanese. *Language Testing, 10*, 277-303.

Brown, A. (2003). Interviewer variation and the co-construction of speaking proficiency. *Language Testing, 20,* 1-25.

Brown, A., & McNamara, T. (2004). "The devil is in the detail": Researching gender issues in language Assessment. *TESOL Quarterly, 38*, 524-538.

Buckingham, A. (1997). *Oral language testing: Do the age, status and gender of the interlocutor make a difference?* (Unpublished master's thesis). University of Reading, UK.

Cao, Y. (2011). Investigating situational willingness to communicate within second language classrooms from an ecological perspective. *System, 39*, 468-479.

Davis, L. (2009). The influence of interlocutor proficiency in a paired oral assessment. *Language Testing, 26*(3), 367-396.

Egyud, G., & Glover, P. (2001). Oral test in pairs: A secondary school perspective. *ELT Journal, 55*(1), 70-76.

Ffrench, A. (2003). The change process at the paper level. Paper 5, Speaking. In C. Weir & M. Milanovic (Eds.), *Continuity and innovation: Revising the Cambridge proficiency in English examination 1913-2002* (pp. 367-446). Cambridge, UK: UCLES/Cambridge University Press.

Fulcher, G. (2003). *Testing second language speakin*g. London, UK: Pearson Longman.

Galaczi, E. D. (2008). Peer-peer interaction in a speaking test: The case of the first certificate in English examination. *Language Assessment Quarterly, 5*(2), 89-119.

Iwashita, N. (1996). The validity of the paired interview format in oral performance assessment. *Melbourne Papers in Language Testing, 5*(2), 51-66.

Kenyon, D. (1992, February). *Introductory remarks at a symposium on development and use of rating scales in language testing*. Paper presented at the Language Testing Research Colloquium. Vancouver, Canada.

Lazaraton, A. (1996). Interlocutor support in oral proficiency interviews: The case of CASE. *Language Testing, 13*, 151-172.

Lazaraton, A., & Davis, L. (2008). A microanalytic perspective on discourse, proficiency, and identity in paired oral assessment. *Language Assessment Quarterly, 5*(4), 313-335.

Lumley, T., & O'Sullivan, B. (2005). The effect of test-taker gender, audience, and topic on task performance in tape-mediated assessment of speaking. *Language Testing, 22*, 415-437.

May, L. (2009). Co-constructed interaction in a paired speaking test: The rater's perspective. *Language Testing, 26*(3), 397-421.

McNamara, T. F. (1996). *Measuring second language performance*. London, UK: Longman.

McNamara, T. F. (1997). "Interaction" in second language performance assessment: Whose performance? *Applied Linguistics, 18*(4), 446-466.

McNamara, T. F., & Lumley, T. (1997). The effect of interlocutor and assessment mode variables in overseas assessments of speaking skills in occupational settings. *Language Testing, 14*, 140-156.

Morton, J., Wigglesworth, G., & Williams D. (1997). Approaches to validation: Evaluating interviewer performance in oral interaction tests. In G. Brindley & G. Wigglesworth (Eds.), *Access: Issues in language test design and delivery* (pp. 175-196). Sydney, Australia: National Center for English Language Teaching and Research.

Nakatsuhara, F. (2004). *An investigation into conversation styles in paired speaking tests* (Unpublished master's thesis). University of Essex, London, UK.

Ockey, G. J. (2009). The effects of group members' personalities on a test taker's L2 group oral discussion test scores. *Language Testing, 23*, 161-186.

O'Sullivan, B. (2002). Learner acquaintanceship and oral proficiency test pair-task performance. *Language Testing, 29*, 277-295.

Porter, D., & Shen, S. H. (1991). Gender, status and style in the interview. *The Dolphin, 21*,117-128.

Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Taylor, L. (2000). Investigating the paired speaking test format. *Cambridge ESOL Research Notes, 2*, 14-15.

Van Lier, L. (1989). Reeling, writhing, drawling, stretching and fainting in coils: Oral proficiency interviews as conversations. *TESOL Quarterly, 23*, 480-508.

Van Moere, A. (2006). Validity evidence in a university group oral test. *Language Testing, 23*, 411-440.

Classroom Management

Classroom Management Strategies to Live By

Amanda Maitland EL Amri
Chonbuk National University, Jeonju, Jeollabuk-do, Korea

Effective classroom management is often the benchmark by which teachers are measured, leading many to become dispirited if their daily teaching strategies and their own personal authority appear to fail them in the classroom. Traditional teacher-training courses do not usually provide much training on classroom management, thus leaving the novice teacher ill-equipped for the "challenging" classroom. This article aims at providing information that could diminish teachers' stress through the provision of reliable positive classroom management strategies as well as some related classroom management theory. The article also discusses the advantages of a having a "first-rate" school behavior system and the system's influence on whole-school behavior and classroom management. A school behavior system can support even a teacher with low personal authority to effectively manage difficult students. Management strategies may change depending on the age range of students, and this topic will also be addressed in the article. A wide range of strategies will be provided in the article for coping with common classroom management issues.

I. Introduction

This paper will be of interest to experienced and inexperienced teachers alike. The main area of focus will be middle school classroom management, which has traditionally been the teaching arena found most challenging for teachers. There will also be some reference to strategies that can be used in an elementary school.

The strategies presented in the article will help to create a positive work day in which teachers feel less weary and worn down by disruptive classroom management events. The paper's content has been distilled from the author's own baptism by fire in the U.K. school system, where a mixture of in-school training and guidance from other more-experienced teachers helped her to overcome a wobbly start and quickly become effective in a large variety of difficult classroom management situations. The author learnt to live and remain optimistic when faced with the sometimes dauntingly steep rock-face that is teaching. It is hoped that teachers will benefit from the author's experience and will leave with a set of strategies, practical advice, and tips to "live by."

II. BEHAVIOR MANAGEMENT

Classroom management is a critical teaching skill, yet it is often scarcely visible in teacher-training course curricula. Teaching-training courses have a propensity to focus on the presentation of knowledge in the classroom and on the development of syllabus, curriculum, and related knowledge. Often, teacher-training courses hold to the belief that classroom management needs to be learnt through experience. This has meant that traditionally little has been taught in the teacher-training classroom about management strategies and school behavior systems. This attitude is partly due to the fact that each situation in a classroom can be unique, and that the personalities of teachers and students will differ. In addition to this, teachers have different teaching styles and levels of personal authority. For these reasons, it is not possible to adopt a "one size fits all" approach for every teacher or every school, nor is it possible to prescribe teaching strategies and teaching systems for every classroom setting.

However, it is possible to present a range of possible strategies that teachers can adapt to their own personal teaching styles. It is also possible to identify the core features that should be present within a positive school behavior system that supports individual teachers and learners. The foundation of behavior in any school comes from the whole-school behavior system. The first question a manager needs to ask is: *What management system does my school require?* And the first question a teacher should ask is: *What is the behavior management system at my school?* If, at an interview for a teaching post, the hiring manager is unable to advise the candidate on the school's behavior system, the author would recommend that the candidate view this as a negative factor in deciding whether or not to work at that particular school.

A behavior management system should consist of a system of rules and conventions for teaching and learning that need to be adhered to by both students and staff. It is also useful to include staff, parents, and students in the actual development of the system, as individuals are more likely to support a system that they have personally helped to construct. The system, itself, should be supported by a documentation process that records behavior events within the school. This is important for evidencing patterns of behavior and is thus useful in negotiation with parents and with other groups of professionals, such as counselors and social workers. The system should also contain a set of predefined rewards and consequences. It is of utmost importance that the management team supports its teaching staff in the consistent application of these rewards and consequences. A system can easily fail if a teacher threatens a consequence that does not materialize, since students soon learn that they are able to behave in a disruptive way with little or no consequence for their actions. Likewise, if promised rewards are not forthcoming, students will lose their motivation to respond positively and will lose faith in the school behavior system. Therefore, overall good behavior standards in a school arise from the existence of a school system, from the competence of management in supporting that system, and from the contribution of individual teachers working within the system.

A teaching system should be supportive of all teachers, no matter what level of personal authority they may have. The system should not require raised voices, physical punishment, or strictness. It requires consistency in application; in other words, all teachers should apply the same system of rewards and consequences. It also requires a strict application of the behavior documentation process and the use of positive behavior-system and classroom-management strategies. Most of all, it requires cooperative and supportive teamwork from all the system's stakeholders.

III. Routines and Organization

The repetitive use of routines and good organization can decrease the amount of behavior management necessary in a classroom situation. For example, students should always know the general format that their lessons will take. The system should also include routines for lesson commencement, entrance, and exit. In addition to this, it should include registration routines, break-time routines, reward-giving routines, and formalization of the roles and responsibilities of the students within the lessons. It may also include routines for homework, book-giving, and for the handing out of equipment such as pens, erasers, etc. Classroom routines and good organization provide natural boundaries that make students feel secure; they are less likely to be disruptive when they know what to expect and what is expected of them. Therefore, it is important to establish routines and to be consistent in their execution. In addition, if a class has effective organization and routines then there will be less "dead" classroom time, in turn leading to less disruptive behavior.

IV. Controlling Noise and Disruptive Behavior

A. Using the Board to Support Classroom Management

The Noise Box

////

Figure 1. The Noise Box, suitable for students ages 8-15.

There will often be a need for students to make productive noise in the classroom. A teacher must be able to distinguish noise that is productive from that which is disruptive, and must also find a positive mechanism for controlling noise levels; a "noise box" is one such effective tool. The teacher should draw the box on the board at the start of the lesson (see Figure 1). If noise levels rise, the teacher should place a strike in the box and explain that if five strikes are put in the box due to continued excess noise, then the students will receive a sanction (such as staying in at break time, extra homework, staying after school, or tidying the classroom). As with all behavior management methods, students must be allowed the chance to redeem themselves by improving their behavior.

This redemption scheme will allow the teacher to gradually remove the strikes and will promote a “feel-good” atmosphere in the classroom as students come to realize that improvements in their behavior will be rewarded. If punishments are fixed in stone early in a lesson with no opportunity for redemption, then there is no incentive for students to improve their behavior; and if a child feels that there is no chance to redeem the situation then they may continue to behave in an inappropriate way, knowing that the punishment will occur regardless of their behavior for the remainder of the lesson. A teacher who perceives that the class noise becomes more productive and/or lower in volume should gradually remove strikes to reward and acknowledge the improvement in behavior. The value of the noise box is that it is very visible and flexible. If one or two students continue to make noise in an inappropriate way these students may be given their own noise box and personal sanctions (see Figure 2).

John	///
Gemma	/

FIGURE 2. The Personal Noise Box.

B. Behavior Chart

Using a behavior chart on the classroom board can be a positive way to record and highlight both good and inappropriate behavior. Adding smiley faces or funny faces can add fun and humor to the situation. Younger students can get great joy from seeing their names in the happy-face column. Students will also be mortified to find their name in the sad-face column that indicates that they have behaved in an inappropriate way. The behavior chart (see Figure 3) will usually encourage children to seek rewards for positive behavior and to avoid using inappropriate behavior.

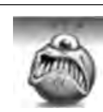
	
John Gemma Oh	Jin Joy

FIGURE 3. The Behavior Chart.

C. Round-Robin Lines

Giving lines to students is an old-fashioned method of punishing students. Traditionally, if a student is “given lines,” they must write out a prescribed phrase many times; for example, “I must not interrupt my teacher when she is talking.” If we change the manner in which we give out lines, we can add humor and ease classroom tension, thus creating a more positive relationship with the students. Humor is a very important part of good classroom management. “Round-robin lines” are a way of introducing humor, fun, and variety into this traditional classroom management technique. If a student talks, the teacher gives the student a blank bit of paper to be used for writing down the lines. Then, if another student speaks inappropriately, the paper is passed to them. The student who eventually gets to write down the lines is the student who is left holding the paper at the end of the lesson.

This method of giving lines encourages students not to talk inappropriately. It also allows a student the chance to improve their behavior in the hope that another student will receive the lines for talking. The method also creates a fun atmosphere, as there is an element of chance in the technique that makes it almost like a game. The students often receive their punishment with a smile, and at the same time, learn a valuable lesson about not talking when the teacher is talking.

D. Managing Teenagers, and Turning a Blind Eye

Younger children accept the natural authority of an adult more readily than older children. Therefore, it is easier for teachers in a kindergarten or elementary school to give orders to children. As children get older, however, they need to develop a sense of conscience about their own actions. Older children and teenagers need to be encouraged to think about and discuss the consequences of their actions. This is an important part of the process that allows a child to develop into a mature adult. Generally speaking, the older the child, the slower they will be at reacting to requests and orders. Pushing a teenager to respond before they are ready will often lead to unproductive conflict, creating negative feelings and disrupting the lesson. Teenagers need to be given sufficient time to respond; and usually if they are prompted with gentle reminders of the school behavior system and are given some time to think about your request, they will react positively and complete the action that you require of them. It is sometimes best for teachers to walk away from the teenager for a few minutes to allow them this time, thus avoiding a possible confrontation that might destroy a lesson.

It may also be desirable to deal with minor rule infringements at a time of your own choosing, rather than at the time that the offense occurs. For instance, a teacher’s responses to gum chewing could be left until a natural break in the lesson; prior to that, a teacher can pretend not to notice. This way, the teacher retains control of the lesson and avoids unnecessary disruptions.

In a recent workshop I was asked what to do if the other students are calling out minor infringements and I want to ignore them. I would suggest that you tell the students that you intend to deal with the situation. You should also remind the students that if they call out, it is against the rules; and remind them that if they keep calling out, they too could end up with an infringement slip. You will notice that I am falling back on the school behavior system and also reminding the students that it is my role to manage behavior, not theirs, so I remain in control.

Classroom management strategies can take a significant amount of time to become obviously effective. A common error is to give up too early. It can take up to six weeks to see definite and consistent changes in a class's behavior. The author recommends that adequate time be allowed for the establishment of a new management and behavior system, and that a system is properly trialed for a significant period before any changes are considered. Constantly tinkering with a behavior system is likely to confuse students, and at worst may cause conflict with them.

E. Appealing to the Whole Class, Then the Individual

Many teachers make the error of trying to respond to individual students as a first response to non-conforming behavior. For example, a teacher might enter a classroom and find students wearing a coat, which is against this particular school's rules. If a teacher says, "Gemma, take off your coat," "John, take off your coat," "Sharon, take off your coat," it is not a successful strategy. This turns into a situation not unlike the fairground game where you have to use a hammer to hit the ducks as they jump up at you. As soon as you manage to hit one duck, another pops up. This practice can be exhausting and unfruitful as the teacher is continually engaged in managing behavior and is unable to start teaching. While the teacher is distracted, the other students start to misbehave during this negative strategy. A much better way to approach the situation is to make a general request to the whole class: "Could everyone still wearing an outdoor coat please remove it?" Then it is possible to remind the whole class of the rule.

Should anyone still be wearing a coat after the teacher's requests, the teacher should still commence the class; and then once the students are engaged in their work, the teacher should give each student a gentle reminder to take off their coat and a prompt of the consequences for not listening to the teacher: "I can see you are still wearing your coat. What is the school rule for wearing outdoor coats in the classroom?" Once the student states that they know the rule, the teacher can give the student five minutes to conform to the rule; if the student still refuses to conform, the teacher must then use the school system.

In many systems, at this point a referral slip or a card will be given to the student. The teacher provides options to the student. The student is given the choice of having the slip torn up if they conform to the rule about outdoor clothing or to receive the consequence connected to receiving the card and triggering the school behavioral system. Most students, when given the alternatives, will respond after a few minutes and be pleased to see the visual tearing up of the card or referral slip. The positive behavior has led to the teacher rewarding them with the removal of the card or slip. It is clear to the student that their good response to the request has been seen and responded to. This will encourage the student to act positively in the future.

Dealing with the issue quietly when the other students are working means that the student can gain less negative attention, and it will reduce the temptation for the student to act out using disruptive behavior in front of the whole-group audience. The student will also feel less threatened. A threat or warning issued in front of the whole class may trigger a conflict situation with students who have authority issues or behavioral issues. Keeping the situation calm, but firmly sticking to the school system, helps keep the behavioral event in perspective. Wearing a coat in the classroom may be against the school rules, but it is not on the same level as acting out with violence or being rude to the teacher. The teacher's firm but fair response whilst using the system helps the students see that the teacher is reasonable and that it is not a personal attack.

Discipline in schools should never be emotional or personal. Emphasis must always be placed on the school system and not on the individual teacher's personal opinions or feelings. One of the worst examples I have seen of this was in an English class. I heard some loud shouting, and I found a student who was about to start an English test in an inconsolable state. I asked the class teacher what the student had done to deserve such a serious telling off. The teacher responded by telling me that the student had forgotten her pen. I asked the teacher why she was so angry, and she told me that it was because the student had hurt her feelings because the student had forgotten her pen for a second time. This teacher had let her own feelings take over and had created a very negative situation; she had lost control. The student was unable to function well in her test due to her tearful state, and this ultimately was no use to the student, or even the teacher, as the student's score would have been low and the stressful atmosphere in the classroom could have affected the other students' performance.

F. Placing Students Outside the Classroom

There may be times that a student ignores warnings or commits a serious offense that requires removing them from the classroom. Ideally, a student should be out of the classroom for only a short period of time. At best, this strategy is used as a cooling off period. Leaving students in the corridor for long periods can lead them to engage in further acting out; for example, pulling faces at the classroom door or classroom window, unsettling the next-door class, or even leaving the school building. It is not always practical unless the school corridors are patrolled by senior members of staff who are ready to deal with the offenders and discuss the offenses committed when students are found outside classroom doors. After the child has been outside of the classroom for a short time, the teacher should attempt to discuss the event that took place and ask the student if they realizes what they did wrong and if they are ready to go back in the classroom and attempt to work off their referral slip.

Generally, most students are ready to come back in and decide that it is in their best interests to avoid a punishment that is recorded in the school system. If a student continues to act out, they should be removed to the school behavior unit or other place where they are made to work in silence. If the school has no behavior unit, then the teachers can adopt the tactic of sending an older student to work in a younger-students classroom, or to place a young student in an older-students classroom. This action can have a subduing effect on the student's behavior, and the student is still able to focus on their class work and is not free to cause havoc in the school corridors.

If students are frequently sent to the behavioral unit or other place to work alone, it is often an effective strategy to make the students carry out a course in controlling their behavior or a course that makes them think about their inappropriate behavior. The successful completion of this course would then allow the student to move back into the classroom with their friends. This strategy works due to the fact that teenagers like to be with their friends and in fact feel seriously inconvenienced when they are removed from their peer group. Experiments have shown that it is better to make students enter school early, before their peers come to school, and to leave later than their friends. The students should eat their lunch separately from their peers and have no lunchtime or break-time with their peers. In this way, the students feel the isolation and are motivated to improve their behavior and class work in order to rejoin their class.

In situations where students continue to act out despite a teacher's attempts at motivating appropriate behavior, it is possible to negotiate with parents to provide their child one-to-one classes, obviously at a slightly higher cost. It may also be possible to serve notice on the child, telling them that they have, for instance, a month to show an improvement in behavior or they will be requested to leave the school. It does not help a school to retain students who are exhibiting seriously challenging behavior. If there are no consequences, the behavior becomes contagious, and the students copy the student who is behaving inappropriately. Soon the school has the problem of gaining a bad reputation and loses many students due to the original student who acted out.

G. Making an Example and Responding Quickly

It is useful to act quickly in a lesson; giving a disruptive student many chances and the benefit of the doubt can only serve to encourage the inappropriate behavior. By responding quickly, the teacher is giving the message that they will not tolerate inappropriate behavior, and this will prevent the students from copying and joining in with the negative behavior. From my personal experience of teaching, it is possible to say that it was always when I did not react quickly to serious inappropriate behavior that I had a rough ride in a class, and it was often a cause of regret when I reflected on lessons. Many teachers aim at making an example of a student at the start of a class or the start of the course. This can be a useful tactic; however, it needs to be a fair action. A student needs to deserve the consequence, or the students can perceive the teacher as being unfair or unjust, and this can lead to the students resenting the teacher and challenging the teacher further.

THE AUTHOR

Amanda Maitland is a professor at Chonbuk National University in Jeonju, South Korea, where she is Director of TESOL Teacher-Training and Education. Before she came to Korea, she was a senior professor at the University of East London, where she taught linguistics, language studies, education theory, and TESOL courses. Amanda Maitland also has extensive experience teaching in the secondary sector in the U.K. and has developed a large personal portfolio of strategies for classroom management. Her other duties have been related to course design and the development of primary, secondary, post-compulsory, and TESOL teacher-training courses. In addition to this, Amanda Maitland has been published in the fields of reading and reflective journal writing. Email: Maitland39@hotmail.co.uk

Cross-cultural / Intercultural Communication

The Meaning and Practice of Professionalism

Simon G. Gillett
International Leadership Development, UK

Professionalism in education is keenly debated by ethical professionals, but TESOL professionals face ethical challenges from bad pedagogy and working conditions. Those challenges are particularly acute in Korea because TESOL is not considered a profession. David Carr's writings on ethics and professionalism are invoked to address those challenges. I reflect that research produced in Korea is not best placed to define professionalism in Korea, since professionalism is ethical, but research produced in Korea is positivistic since it is based on an analysis of local policy issues, parents' demand, curriculum, and student achievements. Ethics are necessary for ethical professionalism. I attempt to illustrate that by inquiring into a Christian school. I find that Christianity represents a possible deontic ethics for maintaining professionalism amidst areas of potential conflict over subjective nationality, language, curriculum, and critical issues. I conclude that ethics is central to the meaning and practice of professionalism.

I. Introduction

Having been teaching TESOL for the better part of my working life I have become increasingly interested in professionalism, especially how TESOL teachers can become professional. Professionalism is a keenly debated topic in education (Evans, 2008; Stronach, Corbin, McNamara, Stark, & Warne, 2002; Watson, 2006) and in TESOL (Neilsen, 2009), but there is little discussion of TESOL teachers as professionals even though there are many suggested methods towards achieving the status of a professional and almost as many definitions of what professionalism might mean (Allwright, 2005; Leung, 2009). TESOL professionals in Korea face job instability and may not have a career (Johnston, 1997). In this paper, I am going first to describe the meaning and practice of professionalism with particular reference to my experience in Korea. Second, I will describe the situation for professionals in Korea. Third, I will attempt to resolve criticisms of TESOL and the difficulties facing TESOL teachers in Korea into what I will term "professional values."

At the Korean tertiary level, there are more and more universities that are teaching in English, requiring either a Korean lecturer to lecture in English, or the recruitment of English-speaking lecturers to work at Korean universities, or non-Korean universities to open campuses on Korean territory. Examples of each are the Korean Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST) where all instruction takes place in English; second, mandatory English language courses at all universities in Korea; third, the Friedrich Alexander University of

Erlangen-Nuremberg and the Netherlands Shipping and Transport College in Gwangyang, Korea. Additionally, Korean university rankings include a figure for the ratio of faculty that are international, so higher rankings are achieved by those universities who employ more Western TESOL teachers.

In my opinion, Christian ethics can be professional when it highlights excellence in teaching, service, integrity, humility, and cross-cultural sensitivity (Purgason, 2004, pp. 712-713). I agree with Purgason that professionalism includes ethical values, political awareness, linguistic aptitude, and a service-oriented mind. A similar opinion is held by David Smith, who has analyzed modern foreign languages education by questioning more than which methods work best (Smith & Carvill, 2000). He has proposed a new approach to the field based on Christian understanding of hospitality. Since there are so many English language teachers all over the world who are away from their home countries, Smith reasons, hospitality is (for me also) an attractive description of the kind of attitude in which TESOL should thrive and which professionals ought to encourage; however, it must be combined with ethics.

I am going to introduce a professional conception of ethics. The middle part of this paper, section III, will be a positivistic description of TESOL in Korea based on secondary literature, or with a less negative connotation, of a value-free description. In section IV, I will reflect on the importance of Christian ethics and other ethics, and how important ethics are for the meaning and practice of professionalism.

II. Ethics and Professionalism

Ethics can be defined as the moral principles that govern a person or group's behavior (Steutel & Carr, 1999). It has a long and distinguished intellectual tradition, going back to Aristotle, through Spinoza, Rousseau, and Kant, to name but a few. Framing the terms of the discussion is David Carr's writings on professionalism, so that solutions to the problems of TESOL professionals can be better understood and perhaps even solved (Carr, 1981, 2006; Steutel & Carr, 1999).

Carr says that the important lesson to be taken to heart in the course of recognizing that education is a professional matter requiring professional studies is that education is more than just a practical activity — it is essentially a form of moral conduct (Carr, 1981, p. 154). It follows from this that different and possibly irreconcilable conceptions of how the conduct should proceed may be entertained among different educators. The first requirement of a good practical teacher, therefore, is that he should have arrived at a clear appreciation of this circumstance — at an awareness that his actions in the classroom require to be guided by moral and rational choices and decisions. But this is just the beginning, for at the end of a course of teacher education, a student must, in the process of clearly formulating a coherent and consistent set of educational aims and objectives, become acquainted with an enormous amount of empirical data, psychological, sociological, historical, and comparative, without which he cannot engage in any serious reflection on the moral and social questions that are defined by the various ideological conflicts in education. Of course, there are many teachers working in schools who have not had the benefit of such studies who are, nevertheless, good practical teachers as a result of their natural thoughtfulness and sensitivity.

III. Studies of TESOL in Korea: Professionalism Without Ethics?

Joseph Sung-Yul Park has written extensively on language ideology and language identity, English language in Korea, language and migration, and language and globalization (Park, 2009, 2010, 2011; Park & Wee, 2009, 2011; Shim & Park, 2008), all of which are important in a discussion of the meaning of professionalism for all professionals in Korea. Park is critical of the adoption of neo-liberal economics in South Korea and of the politics of those who promote English as a global language of opportunity. He identifies himself, *pace* Pennycook, as an antidote to the triumphalism of Crystal (1997) who has claimed the realization of English as a global language (Pennycook, 2001). Park takes up the critical baton in Park and Wee (2008) when he is critical of what he calls the "essentialist model" and how that model promotes English language to the detriment of the Korean language. He says that Koreans who are too enthusiastic about the English language can be accused of being traitors to their own identity. Park mistakenly, in my view, tends to see the increasing influence of global languages such as English as causing anxiety, so he criticizes the language politics of "English fever" (*yeongeo yeolpung*) in Korea (Shim & Park, 2008, p. 136). Park is critical of two cases where large sums of money are paid by parents to have their children schooled outside of Korea, so aggravating the class divide between the rich and poor, and reinforcing the income inequalities that Korea as a nation faces. That unequal relationship between Korea (or Korean) and English is described anthropologically by Park in a later article analyzing the "success stories" of English language learning in the Korean conservative press (Park, 2010). He claims that economic constraints are obscured in order to ultimately rationalize and justify the neoliberal logic of human capital development. He is highly critical of the press, so he describes how successful learners of English are hypocritically portrayed as innately possessing what is needed to become a successful English speaker without any representation of the economic advantages and privileges they possess, even whilst criticizing those who do not thoroughly or entirely immerse themselves in the target language. The economically underprivileged, says Park, have been erased from the sociolinguistic picture of successful learners who are not elites, such as those who simply managed to acquire good English skills by slowly but diligently working through the official system of English language teaching in Korean schools. Thus, he says, a distorted figure of the successful learner is born. The outcome is a Korean speaker of English whose competence is naturalized, attributed entirely to the inherent moral traits of the individual (Park, 2010, pp. 33-34). Park cites the case of singer Seung-jun Yu, who immigrated to the USA at an early age and, from his musical debut in 1997, had enjoyed great popularity in the Korean music scene. However, when he gave up Korean citizenship, most Koreans saw this as an act of betrayal; in order to evade the military service that is required of all Korean male nationals, he had denied his Korean identity and chosen an American one. Consequently the Korean Ministry of Justice banned him from entering the country (Park & Wee, 2008, p. 251). Jeon specifically criticizes Western TESOL teachers (Jeon, 2009, p. 241), but her conclusions are limited because she forgets that most Western TESOL teachers in Korea do not work in public schools. Furthermore, she falsely describes TESOL as a “market-driven world” (p. 241) without mention of the ethics and professionalism of TESOL teachers who do not believe that TESOL is a technical occupation divorced from values. I will show later (with an inquiry at Seoul Foreign School) that Jeon’s criticism of TESOL teachers is uncritical in the sense that it fails to consider their professional values.

Unfortunately, research produced in Korea does not value values. As an example, according to Hye-sook Shin of the Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI), new international schools have had difficulty in attracting students and have only been able to involve students at below target capacity (Shin, 2011). His report says it is crucial to determine demand for education, so that an analysis of those schools can be based on objective data. He sent a questionnaire to 45 international schools registered with the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 31 of which responded. Questionnaire topics included the school name, address, admission policy, student enrollment and faculty status, curriculum facilities, and financial information. The results of his survey are available at a government website (KEDI, 2011). As a result of his survey, he developed an evaluation index model based on a general school evaluation, an analysis of policy issues, parents’ demand, educational objectives and their attainment, educational environment, curriculum and teaching methods, and student achievements. He analyzed student-to-staff ratios, the subjective quality of the faculty, legal status, financial independence, tuition costs, availability of scholarships, campus amenities and facilities, enrollment, and student diversity, which are all largely technical values.

Another technical study also ignorant of ethics (and also of KEDI) is a study published by Mee-ran Kim on the attraction and establishment of international educational institutions (Kim, 2011). Her focus is on higher education, and she analyzes cases from Japan, China, Singapore, Dubai, and Qatar, all of whom have been actively pursuing and attracting foreign educational institutions and schools for years. She makes a number of recommendations, including cooperation between the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and the Ministry of Knowledge Economy and Free Economic Zones. Most universities from outside Korea with branch campuses in Korea are situated in free economic zones. Her opinion is that the number of international educational institutions in Korea will increase, but gives no clear method how that is to be accomplished.

The present Minister of Education, Science and Technology, Ju-ho Lee, has said that Korean government policy is to expand the number of international schools (personal communication, December, 2011). For TESOL teachers who are wondering about their career in Korea, that is welcome, however most teachers who are not Korean lack stability in their careers and frequently question whether TESOL is a profession (Johnston, 1997, p. 706), as we saw in the second section. Prospects for professionalism are poor, for although teachers act professionally in the day-to-day sense of working conscientiously and responsibly, the socio-economic conditions make it impossible (or at least extremely unwise) for them to make a long-term commitment to teaching. Again, although this lack of commitment is probably the best move for the teachers themselves, it perpetuates systemic problems of rapid teacher turnover and lack of qualified teachers for many posts, especially in public education and especially for younger learners.

IV. Ethical Professionalism

The Korean context has two major problems for the meaning and practice of professionalism in TESOL. The first problem is Korean nationalism. Thus, in section III we saw that Korean researchers are very good at positivistically describing issues, but they may not have interpreted well the ethical problems faced by non-Korean TESOL teachers. Unfortunately, nationalism was far stronger than professionalism in the Korean identity, so where professionalism existed, it served only to identify Korean professionals to each other. As a result, TESOL teachers from other countries were treated unethically. Joseph Sang-Yul Park raised critical issues, but if we valued the ethical in the professional, TESOL professionals' ontology should be found to be more important than critical issues: just because English is important in Korea does not make it meaningful to criticize TESOL professionals. The practical hurdles of criminal background checks, single year-contracts, and too much private sector involvement places burdens on TESOL teachers in Korea. Consequently, there were not enough TESOL teachers in Korean schools.

The second problem was TESOL pedagogy. That is more difficult to address, but Jeon's research is typical of the positivism of Korean research. Put simply, to improve TESOL pedagogy, we need professional teachers, and those are often TESOL professionals from other countries who can see past nationalism. A TESOL professional requires ethical professionalism that may come from Christian service, as in the case of professionals at Seoul Foreign School, or *pace* David Carr, aretaic values (Carr, 2006). Carr delineates the key dimensions of professional value in teaching into three categories:

1. Deontic Ethics
2. Aretaic Ethics
3. Technical Ethics

With regard to deontic ethics, it is held that aspects of the professional conduct of the teachers are properly (though not exclusively) implicated in the observance of moral principles and duties. According to Carr, the deontic dimension of teaching rests on something like an internal or conceptual connection between any distinctive conception of profession and notions of ethical right and duty. Consequently the idea of a profession as a distinct occupational category is rooted in time-honored recognition that the principles that drive some human enterprises are not just contractual but moral. Any conception of teaching as more closely related to such traditional professions as medicine and law than to other categories of human occupation and service may turn precisely on the concern of teachers with the basic moral (not technical) right to education.

I think that the emphasis of Socrates and Carr on the aretaic development of teaching is important for understanding professional pedagogy. From this point of view, it seems high time to recognize the valuable status of the craft, technical, or skill dimension of educational practice. In the case of some occupations, such as (perhaps) orchestral musician, surgeon, or cabinet maker, it might be appropriate to begin any exploration of professional values by reference to the sort of satisfactions inherent in the perfection or achievement of the craft skills or technical standards of such pursuits (Carr 2006, p. 180). Skilled tradespersons or artists may often seem to be driven to cultivate self-discipline or to give of their best to others because any personal indiscipline or giving of less than their best would be a betrayal of the internally defined standards of perfection of their art or trade. I believe that it is seriously misleading to suggest that the principal standards and values of teaching are measurable in technical terms, and that the key sources of educational wisdom are to be found mainly in social or other scientific research and enquiry (Carr 2006, p. 182).

Much here may also turn on confusion between technicality and difficulty, and on the idea that TESOL as an occupation needs to scientifically be shown to involve techniques or skill; only then can it aspire to the sort of practical sophistication and/or complexity that merits professional status (Carr, 2000). But this fails to recognize that the professional status of teaching rests on the need for good teachers to develop forms of insight, understanding, judgment, appreciation, and good sensibility that precisely cannot be reduced to technical instrumentalities of a scientifically generalizable kind, and which are therefore and to that extent indeed inseparable from the wider moral values of education.

Sociolinguists like Blommaert (2003, 2009), Blommaert, Kelly-Holmes, Lane, Leppanen, Moriarty, Pietikainen, and Piirainen-Marsh (2009), Heller (2003) and Phillipson (2008) are critical of the hegemony of US English but do not address the professionalism of TESOL teachers nor their ethics. Blommaert discussed the sociolinguistics of globalization and how from languages we should move to language varieties and repertoires. He says that what is globalized is not “an abstract language, but specific speech forms, genres, styles, and forms of literacy practice” (Blommaert, 2003, p. 608). He gives examples of what he means by “language varieties”: a personal letter from Tanzania, Pennycook’s *Rip Slyme* and global flows, and *Cosmopolitan* magazine — to which can be added TESOL in Korea. Blommaert calls these “reallocation processes” and as in his critique of internet courses in American accent (Blommaert, 2009), he is highly critical. He thinks that such courses are offered by corporate providers to specific groups of customers: people in search of success in the globalized business environment. He gives it the term “language policing” (Blommaert et al., 2009), an unflattering term that is pessimistic about language policy. Monica Heller similarly cites emerging tensions between state-based corporate identities and language practices, between local, national, and supranational identities and language practices, and between hybridity and uniformity (Heller, 2003). Given that the number of privately employed TESOL teachers in Korea exceeds those employed in Korean schools, she is missing the point because she does not address the issue of ethics.

Whilst critical issues abound in sociolinguistics, there is too much interpretivism and not enough ethics. Julian Edge’s *TESOL Quarterly* interpretivist “Imperial troopers and servants of the Lord” (Edge, 2003) castigates with a gush of fury and vitriol Christians who think that teaching English may be the 21st century's most promising way to take the good news to the world. Seoul Foreign School shows he is not entirely correct, in my opinion. I think Edge's mistake came from trying to connect military, scientific, and economic issues with ethical values. I think TESOL professionals need ethics and professionalism to depend on ethical values, but what those values might be is open to debate. Varghese and Johnston have also been critical of evangelical Christians and teachers in training at Christian colleges in the United States. Religious beliefs and the relationship between faith and English language teaching raises a key moral dilemma (Varghese & Johnston, 2007, p. 5). Language teachers who are Christian need to respond to critique because teaching is a profession. I think that Varghese and Johnston pay insufficient attention to the ethics of Christian professionalism, however.

V. Conclusion

In ethical professionalism, TESOL professionals have a duty to respect a basic right to education. The next step beyond duty and principle is the non-technical dimension through opposition to market-economic views. Moral development is not a matter of technical development, but is the development of powers and qualities of moral character, sensibility, and judgment. Professional ethics are a critical component of the meaning and practice of professionalism. This is true globally, but especially where TESOL is not a profession. Professionals are especially challenged by teaching TESOL when TESOL is not yet widely regarded as a profession. The professionalism of TESOL teachers is therefore largely dependent on the individual ethics of the TESOL teacher. That ethics may be Christian, or involve some other form of deontic ethics (Shepard-Wong & Canagarajah, 2011).

Most teachers of TESOL teach for a year or two, work in the private sector, are under-qualified compared with, for example, state-licensed teaching professionals, yet have the same professional duties and responsibilities as professionals. Taking professionalism seriously is therefore essential for TESOL teachers in Korea. That is true everywhere — as it is for more established professions, such as lawyers.

I have not touched much upon how to raise the level of professionalism in TESOL in Korea through opposition to market-economic ideology. It would be unwise, in my opinion, to predict the nature of those developments, although much must be made of ethics. To become professional, TESOL must move away from a technical approach to English language education. The traditional Korean technical approach with emphasis on detailed curricula and private English language schools (*hagwon*) cannot end soon enough.

To professionalize English education in Korea, professionals must reach out to *hagwon* teachers and set examples of ethical practice. Teachers at *hagwons* are subjected to unfair commercial exploitation by large companies that have little interest in professionalism. Commercial ethics is something of an oxymoron, yet it leads to bad TESOL pedagogy, and it must be stopped. There are a number of lessons to be learned from *hagwons* about what not to do.

The clear lesson that must be learned is that professionals must look, *pace*

Carr, outside to “know thyself.” The ethics of Korean professionals have not been extended to TESOL teachers in Korea, yet without some form of ethics, professionalism will not be possible. To be professional in Korea, therefore, TESOL professionals must look to TESOL colleagues. Engaging in a debate about the ethics of professionalism is a useful first step towards giving meaning to the professionalism of those professionals (Carr, 2000). Pedagogy is likely in the future as a result of the need for the teacher to become more professional from regular contact with TESOL professionals overseas, perhaps since TESOL professionals necessarily have an international dimension to their practice, which although it may enrich and enliven the meaning and practice of professionalism immensely, it infects yet further debate over professionalism and its attendant ethics. Whether that ethics sufficiently or necessarily includes a form of deontic ethics, or not, is a useful avenue for further inquiry.

THE AUTHOR

Simon G. Gillett is an English language teacher with teaching experience in England, Scotland, China, Australia, and Korea. Prior to Korea, he studied education at university, specializing in modern foreign language (MFL) education. He has taught English, French, and German at primary and secondary levels, and has sympathy or fluency in many more languages. Currently teaching at Sookmyung Women’s University and a doctoral candidate at the University of Exeter’s Graduate School of Education, he has written about TESOL professionalism, educational research, e-learning, and critical issues. He is an executive member of the Korean English Extensive Reading Association and ex officio at KOTESOL. His research interests include language education and education consulting with his company International Leadership Development. Email: gillett_simon@hotmail.com

REFERENCES

Allwright, D. (2005). Developing principles for practitioner research: The case of exploratory practice. *Modern Language Journal, 89*(3), 353-366. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2005.00310.x

Blommaert, J. (2003). Commentary: A sociolinguistics of globalization. *Journal of Sociolinguistics, 7*(4), 607-623.

Blommaert, J. (2009). A market of accents. *Language Policy, 8*(3), 243-259. doi:10.1007/s10993-009-9131-1

Blommaert, J., Kelly-Holmes, H., Lane, P., Leppanen, S., Moriarty, M., Pietikainen, S., & Piirainen-Marsh, A. (2009). Media, multilingualism and language policing: An introduction. *Language Policy, 8*(3), 203-207. doi:10.1007/s10993-009-9138-7

Carr, D. (1981). Professionalism in education and physical education: A reply. *British Journal of Educational Studies, 29*(2), 152-158. doi:10.2307/3120022

Carr, D. (2000). Professionalism and ethics in teaching. London: UK: Routledge.

Carr, D. (2006). Professional and personal values and virtues in education and teaching. *Oxford Review of Education, 32*(2), 171-183. doi:10.1080/03054980600645354

Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a global language*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Edge, J. (2003). Imperial troopers and servants of the lord: A vision of TESOL for the 21st century. *TESOL Quarterly, 37*(4), 701-709.

Evans, L. (2008). Professionalism, professionality and the development of education professionals. *British Journal of Educational Studies, 56*(1), 20-38. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8527.2007.00392.x

Heller, M. (2003). Globalization, the new economy, and the commodification of language and identity. *Journal of Sociolinguistics, 7*(4), 473-492.

Jeon, M. (2009). Globalization and native English speakers in English Program in Korea (EPIK). *Language Culture and Curriculum, 22*(3), 231-243. doi:10.1080/07908310903388933

Johnston, B. (1997). Do EFL teachers have careers? *TESOL Quarterly, 31*(4), 681-712. doi:10.2307/3587756

KEDI. (2011). *International schools in Korea*. Retrieved from the International School Information website: https://www.isi.go.kr/English/IsiInfo/SInfo01E.php

Kim, M. (2011). *Attraction and establishment of foreign educational institutions*. Seoul, Korea: Korean Educational Development Institute.

Leung, C. (2009). Second language teacher professionalism. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education (2nd ed. pp. 49-57). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Neilsen, R. (2009). *Travellers' tales: The expatriate English language teacher in the new global culture*. Newcastle upon Tyne, UK: Cambridge Scholars.

Park, J. S.-Y. (2009). *Thelocal construction of a global language: Ideologies of English in South Korea*. Berlin, Germany: Mouton de Gruyter.

Park, J. S. Y. (2010). Naturalization of competence and the neoliberal subject: Success stories of English language learning in the Korean conservative press. *Journal of Linguistic Anthropology, 20*(1), 22-38. doi:10.1111/j.1548-1395.2010.01046.x

Park, J. S.-Y. (2011). The promise of English: Linguistic capital and the neo-liberal worker in the South Korean job market. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 14*(4), 443-455. doi:10.1080/13670050.2011.573067

Park, J. S. Y., & Wee, L. (2008). Appropriating the language of the other: Performativity in autonomous and unified markets. *Language & Communication, 28*(3), 242-257. doi:10.1016/j.langcom.2008.01.010

Park, J. S. Y., & Wee, L. (2009). The three circles redux: A market theoretic perspective on World Englishes. *Applied Linguistics, 30*(3), 389-406. doi:10.1093/applin/amp008

Park, J. S. Y., & Wee, L. (2011). A practice-based critique of English as a lingua franca.*World Englishes, 30*(3), 360-374. doi:10.1111/j.1467-971X.2011.01704.x

Pennycook, A. (2001). *Critical applied linguistics: A critical introduction*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Phillipson, R. (2008). Lingua franca or lingua frankensteinia?English in European integration and globalisation.*World Englishes, 27*(2), 250-267. doi:10.1111/j.1467-971X.2008.00555.x

Purgason, K. B. (2004). Readers respond to Julian Edge's "Imperial troopers and servants of the lord": A clearer picture of the "Servants of the Lord". *TESOL Quarterly, 38*(4), 711-713.

Shepard-Wong, M., & Canagarajah, S. (2011). Conclusion: Christian and critical language educators in dialogue: Imagining possibilities. In M. Shepard-Wong & S. Canagarajah (Eds.), *Christian and critical English language educators in dialogue: Pedagogical and ethical dilemmas* (pp. 290-291). New York, NY: Routledge.

Shim, D., & Park, J. S. Y. (2008). The language politics of "English fever" in South Korea. *Korea Journal, 48*(2), 136-159.

Shin, H. (2011). *A study of foreign schools and foreign educational institutions in Korea*. Seoul, Korea: Korean Educational Development Institute.

Smith, D. I., & Carvill, B. (2000). *The gift of the stranger: Faith, hospitality and foreign language learning*. Grand Rapids, MI/Cambridge, UK: William B. Eerdmans.

Steutel, J., & Carr, D. (1999). Virtue ethics and the virtue approach to moral education. In

D. Carr & J. Steutel (Eds.), *Virtue ethics and moral education* (pp. 3-18). London, UK: Routledge.

Stronach, I., Corbin, B., McNamara, O., Stark, S., & Warne, T. (2002). Towards an uncertain politics of professionalism: Teacher and nurse identities in flux. *Journal of Education Policy, 17*(1), 109-138.

Varghese, M. M., & Johnston, B. (2007). Evangelical Christians and English language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly, 41*(1), 5-31.

Watson, C. (2006). Narratives of practice and the construction of identity in teaching. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 12*(5), 509-526.

Korea TESOL and ATEK: A Comparative Study of Their Current and Potential Benefits for English Teachers in Korea

Tory S. Thorkelson
Middlesex University, London, UK

By comparing KOTESOL and ATEK in terms of their membership data, purposes, governance documentation, and responses to a survey of members of either or both organizations, this study highlights some similarities and differences between these two English-speaking Language Teacher Organizations (LTOs) in Korea. From these similarities and differences are derived some clear and concrete suggestions for improving KOTESOL's ability to address the needs of its members and better handle potential challenges from other organizations like ATEK.

I. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to discover the ways and means for Korea TESOL (KOTESOL) and the Association of Teachers of English in Korea (ATEK) to work more closely for the betterment of English language teaching and its broader implications in Korea. Having been a KOTESOL member for thirteen years, and having seen ATEK evolve from its rocky beginnings into a potential rival for our long-established organization, it seemed essential for the best interests of both of our organizations — whether separately or in cooperation — that we at least understand each other's strengths and weaknesses in terms of who we are and what we do. Since ATEK's demise, my purpose has changed to evaluating both organizations for their strengths and weaknesses with the intention of deriving lessons about how KOTESOL can better deal with challenges from similar organizations in the future as well as better meet the needs of current and potential members.

II. KOTESOL and ATEK

KOTESOL and ATEK, as the only two English-medium, expat-managed and -dominated professional organizations in Korea led primarily by non-Koreans and catering to the needs of English language teaching (ELT) professionals, exhibited a natural overlap in terms of membership, benefits, services, and goals. Our growth and continued existence depended on either differentiating what we did or cooperating more closely to better meet the current and future needs of our members.

While we shared similar goals, our approaches were quite different. While

KOTESOL memberships cost anywhere from 20,000 to 5-million won per year, ATEK membership was free. While KOTESOL has focused on publications, chapter meetings, and conferences with a lesser, but significant, focus on social events like Christmas or Thanksgiving dinners, for example, ATEK used mostly email and a public forum to communicate amongst themselves about services and workshops on a number of issues and for addressing the broader needs of their members ― such as legal and medical assistance. Their services and benefits were also of concern to the broader expat community rather than simply ELT professionals per se ― and were often addressed by entities such as the Seoul Global Center for Expats.

Both organizations also had problems with communication related to our webpages, forums (KOTESOL's is private), and the behavior of our leaders online and off, in some cases. All of these provide points of comparison that I would like to explore in this research at a more micro-level while respecting confidentiality and the reputations of individuals and the organizations concerned, of course.

In reviewing the articles and books available in the areas of both organizational behavior and analysis ― with regard to non-profit and volunteer organizations ― as well as management in language teaching organizations (LTOs), and the purposes and perceptions of teachers organizations in EFL (English as a foreign language) settings, some clear overlaps appear in terms of the way that various organizations are assessed and measured in terms of their management (White, Hockley, van der Horst Jansen, & Laughner, 2008), purposes (Cowie, 2010; Gautam, 2003) and modeling of their behaviors in terms of the people, barriers, environment, and overall cycle or process involved in keeping an all-volunteer organization running well (MacPherson, 2001). Several models are relevant here (Mullins, 2002; McNamara, 2006; Kolb, 1984; Sydanmaanlakka, 2002), but the concepts of GEM and the workings of a "cystem" as encompassing the creators, consumers, and complementors as actors within and upon an organization (as well as the environment, culture, context, etc.) seems to be the most generalizable with regard to analyzing our two organizations at the macro level (Kennedy, 2005).

In view of the somewhat limited amount of literature available that is applicable to this comparison of two similar but very different LTO's (namely, KOTESOL and ATEK), this study looks at how these organizations are similar and dissimilar in terms of membership and governance to reveal ways for these two groups to cooperate more closely for the betterment of ELT stakeholders in Korea and the lot of the individual ELT professional in the Korean context as well. This is divided into two parts:

1) The creation of profiles of typical members of KOTESOL, ATEK, or both.
2) Analysis of the governance documents and styles of these two organizations.

The ultimate goal of this study is to establish a concrete way for ATEK and KOTESOL to work more closely together.

III. Comparable Data Collected

A. Organizational Profiles

KOTESOL data collected is from March 2011. ATEK data is from 2010, presumably, and has not changed since that time. (See Appendix A.)

Types of Members

- ATEK: Only general members can vote, so a maximum of 136 people can make the decisions here.
- KOTESOL: With the exception of the problems with international member's votes, all KOTESOL members can vote (but not everyone does so. Many elections over the years have been decided by 200 or so voters on average and annual business meetings are worse with as few as 45 people potentially making bylaws changes).
- KOTESOL Commercial and Organizational Partners (OPs) also do not have a vote but pay membership fees ranging from 500,000 won to 5,000,000 won to promote their publications or programs at conferences, chapter meetings, and other events.

Chapters and PMAs

1. While Seoul contains around 30% of each organization's members, and the numbers of international members are also quite similar (around 30), other areas show some intriguing differences.
2. ATEK had almost 25% of its members in Gyeonggi, and Incheon brings it up to 26.5%, while Suwon and Yongin Chapters are only about 6.7% of KOTESOL's total. ATEK also had many more members in Busan (over 3 times as many as KOTESOL) and close to twice as many as KOTESOL in Gangwon and Jeju.
3. KOTESOL has over 25% more members in Daejeon as well as 2.5 times ATEK's reported Daegu membership and almost 9 times as many Gwangju members as ATEK.
4. Both organizations had very similar numbers of members in the Jeonju/Jeollabukdo area, but if we add Jeollanamdo, ATEK had 69 members in this area versus 50 for KOTESOL.
5. ATEK also had decent-sized PMAs (provincial and metropolitan associations) in a number of other areas such as: Gyeongnam (80 members); Gyeongbuk (42 members), Chungbuk and Ulsan (35 and 31 members), and Chungnam (17 members).

Gender

1. KOTESOL has a slight majority of female members.
2. ATEK was resoundingly "male dominated."

Job Types

1. KOTESOL's largest bloc of members is employed at colleges and universities while ATEK's was predominantly language institute teachers, but a large number of ATEK members did not specify their jobs.

2. If we combine adult education teachers with college and university instructors, 38.3% of ATEK's members were in these jobs. On the other hand, both organizations had large groups of public school teachers: 167 (21.69%) for KOTESOL versus 230 (18.8%) for ATEK.

Number of Members

1. KOTESOL shows what are presumably natural ups and downs based on economic and other trends of Korea (e.g., the "IMF period" in the late 1990s), but ATEK shows a rocketing membership with no downward trends. This may have been due to the short period of their existence/growth as well as their dominant groups (language institutes and public schools have historically had regular turnovers of expat instructors while college and university jobs are generally more stable).
2. The re-launched EPIK (July 2002)/GEPIK and TaLK (launched in 2008) programs which bring in large numbers of first-language English speakers to work in public schools has also had an impact on this as well.(1) Many of these teachers stay for only a year or two with a small number staying up to 6 years or more according to anecdotal evidence.(2)

B. Governance

The key similarities and differences between ATEK and KOTESOL are summarized as follows (see also Appendix B):

1. Both ATEK and KOTESOL were created to serve the needs of English educators, according to their mission or purpose. KOTESOL's purpose is more focused and limited to professional means while ATEK took a broader view addressing expat issues as well.
2. Both organizations view Robert's Rules of Order (RRO) as necessary to ensure their organizational professionalism and order for meetings and day-to-day operations, but they use different versions and have addressed the perceived gaps in RRO with regard to overseas organizations like ours by creating bylaws (ATEK) and a combined constitution-bylaws as well as a policies and procedures manual (KOTESOL).
3. While both organizations are apparently open to all, ATEK restricts membership to English teachers and has two layers of membership with only general members being able to vote, hold office, etc., while associate members are more like observers. KOTESOL has a much wider range of membership levels, and except for Organizational Partners such as publishers, all can vote and run for or volunteer for positions at some level virtually from the day they join.
4. In terms of officers, KOTESOL has up to 27 while ATEK has 35 listed positions. While there are some differences in terms of titles/duties, the same jobs and duties are dealt with by both groups of leaders.
5. The fact that both organizations have limited officers such as president to either general members (ATEK) or those with some recent national council experience (KOTESOL) has caused similar problems for both organizations, and the two-year presidency for KOTESOL, as opposed to the one-year

term for ATEK, has also dissuaded many from running for office — especially when you consider that, combined with the KOTESOL Immediate Past President position, it is a four-year commitment.

6. Finally, ATEK's documents make explicit the fallibility of the organization, its members, and leaders, and even the bylaws themselves, while KOTESOL's documents do no such thing. Further, while both organizations acknowledge Robert's Rules of Order as the source for solving many of their operational or other problems, ATEK makes explicit the need to respect the laws of the Republic of Korea while KOTESOL does not.

IV. Further Research

Further research is required into organizational overlap in terms of membership and services/benefits to analyze their different styles of governance and propose a plan for complementing each organization's strengths and weaknesses as well as offer suggestions for improving their working relationships and better meeting members' needs through mutual cooperation. This could lead to a foundation for a theoretical framework for comparing similar organizations competing for members and with overlapping services in other countries.

V. Conclusion

It is hoped that this study shines some light on what KOTESOL and ATEK have done well, and not so well, separately and together, along with positively influencing the broader Korean ELT environment as a whole through our domestic and international partnerships. This seems to be the only viable way to both attract more ELT professionals to join our organizations and ensure that they are taken seriously by the many other organizations that inhabit the Korean educational and ELT milieu. Finally, ATEK's existence may also have polarized their membership as well KOTESOL's — contributing to the rise in members for both groups but also ensuring that those people who identify with one organization or the other joined the professional group they favor because of their own preferences on a personal or professional level.

The Author

Tory S. Thorkelson (M.Ed. in TESL/TEFL) is a proud Canadian who has been an active KOTESOL member since 1998 and has presented at or worked on many local and international conferences in Seoul. He is a past KOTESOL president and is an associate professor in Hanyang University's English Language and Literature Department. He has co-authored research studies and a university-level textbook, *World Class English*, with a team of fellow KOTESOL members. He is a doctoral candidate in the Doctorate of Professional Studies program at Middlesex University in the UK.

REFERENCES

Cowie, N. (2010). Emotions that experienced English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers feel about their students, their colleagues, and their work. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 27*(1), 235-242.

Gautam, G. R. (2003). Professional organization and professional development: A ten-year journey of NEELTA. *Journal of NEELTA, 8*(1-2), 88-96

Kennedy, B. (2005). A cystems approach to training and complexity. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 29*(6), 509-521. Retrieved from http://www.emeraldinsight.com/journal.htm

Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

MacPherson, M. (2001). Performance measurement in not-for-profit and public-sector organisations. *Measuring Business Excellence, 5*(2), 13-17. Retrieved from http://www.emerald-library.com/ft

McNamara, C. (2006). *Field guide to nonprofit program design, marketing and evaluation* (4th ed.). Minneapolis, MN: Authenticity Consulting.

Mullins, L. (2002). Organisation structure and design. In L. Mullins (Ed.), *Management and organisational behaviour* (pp. 200-214). Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.

Sydanmaanlakka, P. (2002). *An intelligent organization: Integrating performance, competence and knowledge management*. Oxford, UK: Capstone.

White, R., Hockley, A., van der Horst Jansen, J., & Laughner, M. (2008). *From teacher to manager: Managing language teaching organisations*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

FOOTNOTES

(1) Based on conversations with EPIK, GEPIK, and TaLK staff and admin people while giving workshops for these programs over the past 2+ years.

(2) See http://www.epik.go.kr/ and http://www.talk.go.kr/ for more details.

APPENDIX A

Comparable Data for ATEK and KOTESOL

1. Types of Members

ATEK	Number of Members	Percentage
General Members (Vote):	136	12%

KOTESOL	Number of Members	Percentage
Lifetime	61	7.80%
Student	3	0.04%
International	27	3.50%
One-Year	689	88.30%
Total	780	100.00%

2. Membership by Chapter and PMA

Chapters (KOTESOL)	No.	Percent	PMAs (ATEK)	No.	Percent
Seoul	265	33.9%	Seoul	338	27.7%
Suwon	45	5.76%	Gyeonggi	293	24%
Busan	51	6.57%	Busan	156	12.8%
Daejeon	104	13.33%	Daejeon:	75	2.9%
Daegu	109	13.97%	Daegu	40	3.3%
Gangwon	25	3.2%	Gangwon	45	3.7%
Gwangju	80	10.25%	Gwangju	9	0.7%
Jeonju	50	6.4%	Jeollabuk	47	3,8%
Jeju	8	0.1%	Jeju	15	1.2%
Yongin	7	0.89%	Incheon	31	2.5%
International	31	3.97%	International	27	2.2%

3. Membership by Gender

KOTESOL	Number (%)	New Count	ATEK:	Number (%)
Male (Mr.)	289 (37%)	384 (49.23%)	Male	689/55.9%
Female (Ms/Mrs.)	284 (36%)	394 (50.51%)	Female	450/36.9%
			Transgender	2/0.2%
Unspecified	207 (26%)	2 (0.25%)	Unspecified	2/0.2%

4. Membership by Job Type

Job Type (KOTESOL)	Number of Members	Percentage of Members
College or University	390	50%
Elementary School	76	10%
Middle School	50	6.4%
High School	41	5.29%
Government	9	1.0%
Teacher Training Institute	12	1.5%
Student/Trainee	10	1.28%
Language Institute	72	9.23%
Freelance	19	2.43%
Corporate	9	1.0%
Non-ELT	4	0.50%
Other ELT	12	1.5%
Unknown	6	0.76%

Job Type (ATEK)	Number of Members	Percentage of Members
Language Institute	370	30.3%
Public School	230	18.8%
Adult Education	165	8.6%
Tutor	7	0.6%
Other	102	8.4%
Non-ELT	43	3.5%
Unspecified	356	29.2%

5. Membership Totals

Year (KOTESOL)	Members	Period (ATEK)	Members
1992	*	9/8 to 9/6/2009	510
1993	150	10/4/2009	575
1994	395	11/29/2009	600
1995	655**	1/10/2010	650
1996	655	2/21/2010	700
1997	800	3/7/2010	750
1998	716	4/4/2010	825
1999	560	5/2/2010	890
2000	724	5/16/2010	940
2001	293	5/30/2010	1000
2002	389	6/13/2010	1050

2003	535	7/11/2010	1100
2004	430	8/8/2010	1150
2005	500	8/22/2010	1200
2006	615	9/9/2010	1250
2007	600	10/17/2010	1250
2008	610	11/14/2010	1250
2009	690	11/28/2010	1250
2010	780**	12/26/2010	1250
2011	790	2012	2000****

* No data, but accounts differ over whether KOTESOL began in 1992 or 1993.
** KOTESOL: 1995 year-by-year data not found.
*** March 2010 (up to 800 has been stated for the end of the year 2010).
**** ATEK shows a rapid (all upward) trend, though the period has been short.

Non-comparable Data

- Visa Types. (ATEK Only)
- Nationalities. (ATEK only)
- Dr. or other titles (Reverend/Prof.). (KOTESOL only).
- Top Referrals (ATEK only).
- Phone versus no Phone (ATEK only).

APPENDIX B

Comparable Governance Documents for ATEK and KOTESOL

KOTESOL: Category	KOTESOL: Section(s)	ATEK: Category	ATEK: Section(s)
Preface	C-1; Pol. Man. - 1.	No Preface	
Name	C (Article I) - 1.	Nature of Entity	B (Article III) - 1 & 2.
Purpose	C (Article II) - 1.	Mission	By - 1 (2x).
Relationships with other Organizations	C (Article II) - 1 (Purpose).		B (Article XIX - Affiliation of the Association with Other Organizations).
Official Language	B (Article I) - 3.	None.	B 14 - English Medium of Instruction mentioned.
Membership and Dues	C (Article III) - 1 & 3.	Membership	B (Article IV) - 2 & 3.
Membership Criteria	C (Article IV) Not limited to English teachers per se but voting members (I) & Non-Voting (Institutions / Agencies / Organizations).	Membership Criteria	B (Article IV: Membership) All But General members must be employed as English Teachers (2(a); 6 (Equality & Exclusivity): deals with many of the "isms" related to gender, race, etc.; Article V: Equality balanced by Fair Hearing (11) & Limitations (12) & Article VI (1): Best Interests / Good Faith; (2): Mutual Collaboration) & Ethical Behavior: 3-5.
Meetings of the Members	C (Article IV) - 1.	Meetings of Members	B (Article VII:2&5); B (Article XXII:32).
Executive Officers & Elections (Voting)	C (Article V) - 1 & 2; B (Article II (1 & 2); Article III (N & E Chair); 6; Article IV (The Council) - 3, 4, 5, 6; Article V (Committees) - 4; Article VI (Chapters) - 5(a)(b)(c)(d); Article VII (Elections) - ALL; PM (Article 4: a); 6 (Voting Substitutions at Council Meetings): a).	Voting & Holding Office (Elections)	B (Article V:1-4; Article VI: 7:7, 9 & 10 (No 8); Article VIII: 9-11 and 14-17; Article IX: 11-13; Article X:3, 4, 5, 8, 9 & 12); Article XIII (President): 1, 4, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16-22; Article XIV (General Members General Vote): 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 10, 11, 12,

			13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19 & 20; Article XV (National Committees): 21-23; Article XVI (National Special Status Committee): 12-15 & 30.
National Council	C (Article VI); PM(Article 1: All; Article 2: All; Article 3 (General): a; (Annual Budget): a; (Events): d; (Spending): c; (Reimbursements) a, b; (Accountability): b, c, d; (Audits): a; 5 (Council Meetings): a, b, c; 6 (Voting Substitutions): a); 7 (Appointments): All; 9 (Transition of Officers): All.	National Council (or National Executive / National Officers) (2).	B (Article VII: Power & Function of National Council): All; (Article VIII: Composition & Conduct of National Council): All; (Article IX: Standing Commissions): All; (Article X: National Executive Composition): ALL; (Article XI: Duties & Responsibilities of Officers): All; (Article XII: Roles & Responsibilities of Officers): All; (Article XIII: Elections and Appointments): 1, 6, 7, 16, 17, 18, 22, 23: (Article XIV: General Members, General Vote & Referendum): 5, 8, 9, 19; (Article XV: National Committees & Groups): 4, 8, 9, 28); (Article XVI: National Special Status Committees): 8, 20, 26, 28, 30; (Article XVII: PMA's): 2, 5, 10, 17, 21; (Article XVIII: Ombudsperson): 1, 6, 7, 10 i), ii), 14; (Article XIX: Affiliations with other Associations); (Article XXI: Central Office); (Article XXIV: Amendments): 2.
Terms of Office	C (Article V) President: 2 years,	Terms of Office	B (Article VIII (18-26) but limited

	other officers 1 year, but no limits on numbers of reelections.		to 2 years max (1-year gap allows for re-election).
Publishing Minutes (Secretary)	B (Article III: 4) Minutes to be published on the KOTESOL website. Records to be made available as necessary to council or members (unclear).	Minutes	B (Article VII: 3 & 4): Available to General Members only for inspection and only record vote counts with ¼ of council vote.
Committees of the Council (Elected and Appointed)	B (Article V: All) Publications; International Conference Committee; Nominations and Elections; Membership; & Financial Affairs Committee. Elected: N & E / Conference; Appointed by President with approval of Council (all others). (B: Article V: All).	Standing Commissions	B (Article IX): All. But (3): Public Schools Commission; Private Language Institute (Hagwon) Commission; Adult Education Commission & Private Lessons Commission. And: National Permanent Committees: (B: Article XV: 11: All): National Permanent Committees i) Leadership Development Committee ii) Membership Issues Committee iii) Employment and Legal Issues Committee iv) Professional Development Committee v) Secretarial Committee vi) Communications Committee vii) Social Committee viii) Emergency Needs Committee ix) Key Issues Committee x) Volunteer Committee xi) Human Rights Committee xii) Inter-cultural Committee National Special Status

			Committees i) Ethics Committee ii) Elections Committee. (14) Chair elected from and by the committee.
Finances	C (Article VII); B (Article II: Dues); Article III (5): Treasurer): Article IV: The Council (Subsection a: Annual Budget Approval); Article V (6) (Financial Affairs Committee) l Article VI: Chapters (Section 2: Membership Fees & Subsection 3 (Chapter Treasurer); Article IX (Audits): PM (3: Financial Accountability / Annual Operating Budget / Event Budgets / Spending / Reimbursements / Accountability / Audits / Chapter Finances): All; (Article 7: Appointments): Assistant Treasurer): 7.		B (Article X: 1 (viii)): National Fiduciary Officers.
Amendments	C (Article VIII)	Amendments	B (Article XXIV); Article VII (Rules and Codes (11))
Publications	B (Publications Committee): V (2); PM (IOC Chair duties & Publications Chair)		B (Article XXI)
Not Present		Limitations	B (Article V (12); Article VI (8); Article XVIII (Severability)
Not Present		Investigations	Article XVI (16-19)
Accountability	PM (3 Financial Accountability: Accountability: a-g)	See above (Limitations & Officers roles and responsibilities)	
Policy Making, Transparency and Authority	PM (1: a-e)	See above (Limitations & Officers roles and responsibilities vis a vis Authority)	

Note. C = Constitution; B = Bylaws; PM = Policy Manual.

English for Specific or Academic Purposes

Using Symbols, Acronyms, and Shorthand in ESP

Michael Guest
University of Miyazaki (Japan)

This paper discusses the utility of teaching English for specific purposes (ESP), symbols, acronyms, and other shorthand forms, and is based upon the author's successful classroom applications and adaptations of this content. The argument will be made that the teaching of symbols, acronyms, etc. is not only important but is highly consistent with sound pedagogical practice and that it may currently be undervalued in ESP circles. First, five benefits of teaching symbols, acronyms, and shorthand explicitly in the ESP classroom will be discussed. The author will then address three criticisms which may explain why it is an underappreciated area, and finally will offer six practical means of expanding the use of such materials so as to be more fully integrated into ESP discourse.

I. Introduction

This discussion is based upon a workshop carried out at the 2012 KOTESOL Conference. It is based upon the author's experience in teaching symbols, acronyms, and other shorthand forms to university medical students, with this being a prominent part of the required English Communication course.

Very little, if any, formal research has been carried out regarding the teaching of short forms (which should be distinguished from specialist jargon) in ESP classes. Yet such a focus is a logical extension of Swales' (1990) pioneering work in genre analysis, in which the analysis of different discourse communities reveal distinct communicative norms, which will clearly be relevant to those studying a specialist field in English. But while symbols, acronyms, and shorthand forms are extensions of genre analysis, it is their practical pedagogical application that we are most concerned with in this paper.

II. The Case for Inclusion in an ESP Curriculum: Cracking the Code

A case could easily be made that the general public loves "insider talk." Internationally successful medical dramas such as *ER*, police dramas such as *The Wire*, reality police/crime programs, and the popularity of investigative reports such as *Mayday: Air Crash Investigation* all attest to this fact. All prominently employ specialist "codes" in their dialogues or utilize actual codes in their re-creations. These specialist codes include numerous abbreviations, acronyms, and other shortened forms that are generally not known outside of the specialist field. This is precisely the allure to the prospective audience. Can you crack the code and feel like an insider?

ESP students have an even greater motivation for responding to the decoding challenge. Learning an internationally accepted code for their area of interest or specialization is likely to make them feel as if they are learning about the real world of medicine, aviation, or policing. It has immediate, instrumental value — they will likely be using these items just a few years down the line. If this fails to garner attention in the classroom, we might well wonder what will.

Even if learners are not swayed by the likelihood of near-future practicality, the intrinsic joy of cracking a code, of being privy to insider knowledge, may serve as a stimulant.

But what I have described above is somewhat subjective — I am assuming the students' intrinsic interest. There are, I believe, more objective reasons for highlighting these items in an ESP course. Five, that have become apparent due to the author's teaching of medical students, are listed below:

1. Teaching of such items can, and in fact should, engage and integrate all four skills. Decoding a written document (reading) can easily be turned into a writing exercise where a student creates a similar document. The written details can also be verbalized (writing to speech) and recorded by another student (listening to writing).
2. Because the focus is upon specialist content, usually the transmission of specific data, learners should be more cognitively engaged with the material (Goodman, 1988). The challenges of creating, interpreting, reporting, and recording the data accurately places a premium upon engaging with meaningful content. Manipulating this information demands further cognitive engagement and is rewarded not only by a real sense of achievement but often a consolidation of previously learned input. Swain (2000) sees such a process as part of the output hypothesis, in which the manipulation of language forms using cognition aids acquisition.
3. Symbols, shorthand, abbreviations, etc. tend to have a narrow, concrete one-to-one relationship between sign/symbol and meaning. Longer rhetorical units of discourse can be messy and hard for both teachers to teach and learners to learn, but these items can be easily grasped. They can then be used as scaffolds to engage with longer units of discourse.
4. The introduction of such items into a curriculum alleviates, to some degree, the imbalance created in mixed-level classes, where students who already have skills and knowledge of English may be bored or unchallenged by the curriculum. Since few, if any, students are likely to be familiar with this content, it ensures that all students start on a more equal footing.
5. The use of realia and other authentic materials, such as actual specialist documents, in the ESP classroom has been widely recognized as a valuable pedagogical ESP tool: from Widdowson's (1990) advocacy of authentic materials to more recent specific ESP classroom applications (see Benavent & Peñamaria, 2011; Berardo, 2006; Senior, 2005). The use of realia is said to connect learners to actual professional discourse and content. The notion that "this is real medical (or aviation or financial) English" can serve to establish connections between classroom study and the "real world."

Realia's role in locating specialist discourse for students, giving students a sense as to how real discourse is carried out in the field, thereby serves as a motivational tool (Guariento & Morley, 2001; Nuttall, 1996; Peacock, 1997).

III. Criticisms of the Inclusion of Short Forms in ESP Curricula

Some doubts have been voiced regarding giving a prominent place to short forms within an ESP curriculum, which may lead some teachers to avoid employing them in the ESP classroom. I will address three of these here:

A. Such items should be added, like a decoration or topping, only after a strong general languages base has been established.

This argument presupposes the notion that language is or should be learned sequentially, and in a very strict sequence at that. However, much of what we might consider to be basic or foundational English is often extremely complex (the copula, articles, and the perfective come to mind) and can take many years, indeed a lifetime, to fully absorb. Often it is only after learners encounter these items presented in real, meaningful contexts and then try to manipulate these forms to produce content that they become internalized. Although authentic materials may contain unnecessary and complex language (Richards, 2001), a focus on special detail and minutiae, drafted into a productive task, will help students to actually consolidate the "basic" or "foundational" English they have already encountered by integrating knowledge (Alderson, 2000) and allows for an organization of content which benefits long-term memory (Widdowson, 1983) by engaging learner schemata. This top-down, content-based approach helps them to locate the appropriate forms. In such a case, the learning of short forms is not just icing on a cake but an essential ingredient in holding that cake together.

B. Non-professionals in a particular field are not qualified to teach specialist areas. They are English teachers, not doctors, pilots, or travel agents.

It should be remembered that ideally, ESP teachers are not so much attempting to teach the subject in English per se, as they are helping learners to become more aware of particular discourse norms in English. The medical ESP teacher does not presume to be educating students about the cardio-vascular system, but rather learns and conveys how the discourse in a cardio-vascular check-up might be carried out, or how it might fit into a related discourse unit such as taking a patient history. This is the role of the language specialist, not the field specialist.

Symbols, abbreviations, and shorthand are rarely complex mysteries accessible only to the professional. Rather, the concepts or items they describe can often be understood perfectly well by the layman. To learn thirty or forty of these short forms should take a non-professional only a few days. To understand how these are used to generate, connect, or hold discourse together, whether written or spoken, takes an experienced ELT professional.

C. Symbols, acronyms, and shorthand can easily become a mere list to memorize, a taxonomy that does not really further learners' discourse skills.

This is a perfectly legitimate argument and is a call to caution for any ESP teacher focusing upon any type of vernacular, jargon, or field-specific language. Teachers who present this data as a list to be memorized are divorcing the data from the meaningful discourse-based context in which it naturally occurs, which is likely to negative affect the students' acquisition of these target items.

Rather, it is recommended that such items be introduced within an authentic, or realistically simulated, complete text or document so that the context or purpose of the document (such as a patient's case chart for medical students) will allow for more accurate and cognitively engaging decoding.

The list approach also increases the likelihood that comprehension of such items will remain at a receptive level, that the items may be recognized but not used productively for communicative purposes. It is likely that taxonomic lists of this sort will be forgotten soon after any test or evaluation, separated as they are from any type of deeper cognitive engagement.

IV. Expanding on Tasks for Encoding, Cognitive Development, and Other Productive Skills

In order to expand beyond mere decoding, or worse, a simple memorization of a list of discrete items, it is essential that ESP teachers be aware as to how the manipulation of symbols and acronyms can be expanded into wider units of discourse in which a wide variety of skills are employed. Six such expansions upon the basic decoding lesson are presented here:

1. Turn the written data into spoken data by reporting it back in speech for confirmation or to transmit to a third party (who then re-writes it as code). This can be done in full sentence or elliptical mode. For example, a medical chart in which *also c/o nausea++, allergy(?)* appears would be rendered in speech either as, "The patient also complains of extreme nausea. This may be due to an allergic reaction" (full form) or "Also complains of extreme nausea, possible allergy" (elliptical form), depending upon the communicative purpose.
2. Have students try to decode data starting with items that they may know, or that non-specialist proficient English speakers are likely to know. For example, many may know that *BP=120/80* refers to a blood pressure measurement, but this scaffold of existing knowledge allows for the introduction of the slash to be read as "over" and will allow students to guess that acronyms and symbols located in a similar area might also refer to something categorically similar-in this case vital signs. In other words, the pre-existing knowledge is utilized to help students make better hypotheses regarding the meaning of lesser-known items.
3. Prepare a simple information gap activity using two simulated realia documents. Student A reads their data to student B who takes down the data and puts it into code. The same thing is then done in reverse.

Afterwards, students can check with each other's original documents to see if the data is accurate and if the code is being used correctly.

4. Add an analytical task or project. Have students summarize three or more central issues. What do they want to know or do next regarding this case? What, if any, are problematic or unusual factors? What hints does the data provide towards identifying a solution or follow-up course of action? Expansion tasks of this sort demand analytical and summative skills while helping students to further internalize the code.
5. Include a task in which students have to imagine the original question that was asked in order to generate the data they have been given in code. Thus, by reversing the cognitive process, they may become more aware of not only interrogative forms, but also how the data is generated in the first place and holds together as a unit of discourse.
6. Have students generate their own case studies using short forms. This calls not only for creativity and a certain degree of autonomy on the part of the student, but as a productive task, it also engages cognition and critical thinking. Care should be taken to ensure that data presented is realistic and contains no contradictions. More advanced students should also aim at complexity. These student-produced case studies can later be given to other students to interpret, expand upon, or to ask for further relevant information or clarification. This can be further developed into role-plays that mirror the type of interactions that occur naturally among people in the same professions.

V. Conclusions

The benefits of explicitly teaching symbols, acronyms, and other short forms in the classroom are substantial and should hold higher priority in ESP curricula than they currently appear to.

They are not just discrete-point minutiae which act as linguistic flavorings, but often serve as the glue which allows discourse to work beyond the sentence level. They are intrinsically motivating because of their salient ties to specialist fields of practice, which holds an initial attraction for students. Moreover, used wisely and creatively in more extended discourse, they can be catalysts in the internalizing of general English and thereby have long-term value in terms of the student's holistic English skill development.

The Author

Michael Guest is Associate Professor of English in the Faculty of Medicine at the University of Miyazaki in Japan. He is a regular columnist on ELT matters in the Daily Yomiuri newspaper and a well-known blogger on EFL topics in Japan.

REFERENCES

Alderson, J. C. (2000). *Assessing reading*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Benavent, G. T., & Penamaria, S. S. (2011). Use of authentic materials in the ESP classroom. *Encuentro, 20*, 89-94.

Berardo, S. A. (2006). The use of authentic materials in the teaching of reading. *The Reading Matrix, 6*(2), 60-69.

Goodman, K. (1988). The reading process. In P. L. Carrell, J. Devine, & D. E. Eskey (Eds.), *Interactive approaches to second language reading* (pp. 11-21). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Guariento, W., & Morley, J. (2001). Text and task authenticity in the EFL classroom. *ELT Journal, 55*(4), 347-353.

Nuttall, C. (1996). *Teaching reading skills in a foreign language* (2nd ed.). Oxford, UK: Heinemann.

Peacock, M. (1997). The effect of authentic materials on the motivation of EFL learners. *English Language Teaching Journal, 51*, 2.

Richard, J. C. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Senior, R. (2005). Authentic responses to authentic materials. *English Teaching Professional, 38*, 71.

Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 97-114). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Widdowson, H. (1983). *Learning purpose and language use*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, H. (1990). *Aspects of language teaching*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Grammar

Teachers: Stop Talking and Use Your Hands!

Richard “Steve” Eigenberg
Kyungnam University, Masan, Korea

Teachers of English (teaching in English) face a large hurdle when communicating with their students. Error correction, elicitation, and grammar explanations can be difficult. Native English-speaking teachers often try to explain these concepts and answer questions in English. This often has the result of further confusing the students. The use of hand signals can give a structure or scaffolding from which students can produce and correct their own English sentences. By using hand signals, teachers can minimize the students’ mental processes used to understand the native English-speaking teacher. These additional mental resources can then be used to better understand and produce the desired target language. In addition, hand signals provide a non-variable standard set of visual aids, which increase students’ attention and gives a visual component for learning.

I. Introduction

Communicating with beginner and intermediate students can be a challenge. Most ESL teachers quickly learn that verbal explanations, while possible, are indeed very difficult.

It is well known that visual aids have many benefits to students. Visual aids assist the teacher in vocabulary, sentence structure, creating context, and elicitation. That said, most visual aids are created during lesson planning and this leaves an opportunity for a non-variable standard set of visual aids that can be used in the classroom.

Often ideas from other disciplines give opportunities to new disciplines. These hand signals were born in part by considering the hand signals used by scuba divers. Scuba divers communicate under water by learning a set of hand signals prior to diving. Using this idea gave rise to creating a set of English hand signals that students could learn before English production. The signals are intuitive, easy to learn, and are quickly mastered by most students. They have the added benefit of adding a visual component to the learning process. The hand signals also add entertainment value, which assists the teacher in maintaining classroom attention.

II. Language Structure as a Barrier

Korean and English sentence structures are very different. Korean uses “markers” and post-positions to identify the elements of a sentence (subject/object/prepositions etc.), whereas English largely uses word order to identify sentence elements.

Korean often omits the subject of a sentence. English rarely omits the subject. (Imperatives or commands are one example where the subject is omitted; however, commands are directly given, so the subject is implied.) Many words that we consider adjectives in English are used as valid verbs and sentences in Korean. The Korean words for “pretty,” “fat,” and “good” are such examples. In Korean, a speaker can say these as verbs and they are accepted as perfectly valid sentences. The corresponding English often uses three-word sentences for these adjectives. *Subject + “be” + adjective* would be the corresponding English sentence.

Imagine this problem from the Korean students’ perspective: the old rules for building understandable sentences no longer work; they must learn new vocabulary (a monumental task in itself); they must try to understand the teacher speaking in English (a very intimidating task); and now the teacher wants to explain the new rules in a language they don’t fully comprehend.

The students need a simple structure they can use to produce better English. Options to solve this problem include: (a) Explaining the structure in their first language; (b) Explaining the structure in English; (c) Hoping that through listening, reading, speaking, and writing (in English), they will find and realize the subject-verb structure we use in English.

I propose that visual aids such as hand signals and minimal explanation in English and Korean be the preferred solution. These hand signals are non-variable, standard, and repeatable during the classroom experience.

III. The Hand Signals by Groupings

A. Time: Past / Present / Future

The first hand signals taught are for past, present, and future tenses. These concepts are easy to understand for the students as their first language has similar constructs. I use simple, well-known, standard verbs such as *study*, *talk*, and *listen* when teaching these hand signals. I elicit the past, present, and future of each verb while giving the hand signals. I often elicit the past, present and future form of a Korean verb during the initial teaching of these signals (see Figures 1-3). This helps the students grasp the concept very quickly. While teaching the hand signals, many “time words” can be used to give the students an additional chance to understand the context.

Figure 1. Indicating the past (e.g., *yesterday, last week, last month, 3 years ago*).

FIGURE 2. Indicating the present (e.g., *now, right now, today, everyday*).

FIGURE 3. Indicating the future (e.g., *in one hour, later today, tomorrow, next week, next year, in 20 years*).

B. Sentence Structure: Subject / Verb / "Blah Blah"

Sentence structure signals are the most important of the hand signals. These provide the scaffolding that students can use to produce better English sentences. It is a greatly simplified version of the "Subject + Verb + Object + Manner + Place + Time" model given in many academic sources.

While "blah blah" is not exactly academic language, I have found it assists the students by simplifying the "object, manner, place, time" portion of the sentence. I also contend that errors made in this part of a sentence tend to be far less detrimental to communication. A preposition in error or an out-of-place adjective is easily fixed by a native English speaker. As always, it is a trade off between fluency and accuracy. I prefer to concentrate on accuracy for the subject and verb. I prefer to concentrate on fluency for the "blah blah" portion of the sentence.

There are a few items of note for effectively using this structure. The teacher must understand that the true structure is: Subject Phrase + Verb Phrase + Everything else. The teacher should, as soon as possible, teach the students that "verb" can be two or more words in English (such as continuous verbs, perfect verbs or model verbs). Addressing the "two-or-more-word verb complex" situation early greatly eases the teaching of question production later.

Teachers should look for opportunities to show the students irregular sentences. After identifying the irregular sentences, I suggest rebuilding the sentence into the "subject + verb + blah blah" model. Take the example "In the morning, I will do it." Now visualize trying to understand this sentence as a beginner English student. I suggest letting the students know that this is "good English," but "Let's change it to 'easy English.'" Using hand signals, elicit the subject "I"; continue using hand signals to elicit the two-word verb phrase of "will do"; and finish the sentence to elicit the "blah blah" of " . . . it in the morning." The student now gains confidence that even if they cannot reproduce this sentence structure, they can produce a synonymous sentence using the common structure of "subject + verb + blah blah."

C. Error Correction: Make a Sentence / One or Many / You Forgot an "S"

Largely because of Korean/English differences, Koreans will produce English which is simply a verb or adjective. This appears to be partially due to L1 interference. The teacher can signal with their hands "Make a Sentence" (see Figure 4). If the student has problems making a subject-verb sentence, the teacher can resort to "subject + verb + blah blah" to elicit the items of the sentence. Finally, if the student makes a sentence but it is the wrong time tense, the teacher can elicit the proper time tense with "Past, Present, or Future."

FIGURE 4. Make a sentence.

Again largely because of Korean/English differences, Koreans forget to use an article or plural "-s" with their sentences. This manifests itself in sentences such as "I have boyfriend." The teacher can use the "One or Many" signal (see Figure 5) to indicate the confusion. Further, the teacher can walk the student through the sentence with "subject + verb + blah blah," and then elicit an article (by using the "1" hand signal), which will likely be "a" or "an."

FIGURE 5. One or many?

An “s” is also used to correct the third-person “s” in present simple sentences (see Figure 6). While there is an ongoing debate on the importance of this form, I would argue that it should be corrected early.

With advanced students, I explain that “He talk__ with the principal” can confuse a native speaker. The native speaker must guess or infer whether this sentence is past or present tense. Is the intended sentence “He talked with the principal” or is the proper sentence “He talks with the principal”?

It is not my intent to solve this third-person “s” debate, but rather to give the teacher a tool to correct it if they see fit in their learning environment.

FIGURE 6. Make an “s”.

D. Questions: Make the Verb Strong / Yes, No Questions / General Questions

The question hand signals are the last and most difficult signals to teach. Teachers should ensure that the students are ready to make this leap before introducing these signals.

Yes/no questions in English are the base for general questions. Yes/no questions are created by exchanging the subject and the “helping verb.” This works for both modal “helping verbs” and other auxiliary “helping verbs.” Exceptions to this structure are with present simple and past simple verbs. Finding an easy way to communicate the usage of the “do-support” verb is challenging. Even with present simple and past simple verbs, the “be” verb is also an exception. To solve this problem, the teacher can use the “make it strong” hand signal.

1. Make the Verb Strong

Great care and effort is suggested in teaching the “make it strong” (see Figure 7) concept. A context I have had success with is a conversation with my mother regarding studying. I play-act the conversation and over dramatize the mother’s voice and my reactions. After each sentence, I elicit the “subject + verb + blah blah” structure from the students to ensure they realize the *do*-support in the verb.

Mother: Steven, study every day.
Me: I study everyday, Mother. (Delivered very happily and lovingly.)

FIGURE 7. Make it strong.

Setting context: I am angry at Mother today. I am not happy.
Mother: Steven, study every day.
Me: I *DO* study everyday, Mother!!!! (Delivered strongly and angrily.)

Now the simple present conversation above (the same conversation can be changed to simple past) follows the standard yes/no-question creation. I suggest the teacher repeat many times that this "strong" concept only applies to the simple present, the simple past, and main verbs (not "be" verbs).

2. Yes/No Questions

When the sentence is a "two-or-more-word verb" complex or "*be*-verb" form, the subject is exchanged with the first verb of the verb complex. I whistle when I give this hand signal (see Figure 8). I also whistle when I give the "general question" hand signal. The whistle serves as another indicator to the students that we are making questions now.

FIGURE 8. Yes/No question.

3. General Questions

With the yes/no question formed, making a general information question (see Figure 9) is simply adding a question word (*who, what, when, where, why, how, how much*) in front of the yes/no question. Often this leads to some erroneous questions because the students are following a flow chart model to create the English. This error is easily fixed and students soon stop making the error. For example:

Starter Sentence:	He eats *kimchi*.
Strong Sentence:	He does eat *kimchi*.
Yes/No Question:	Does he eat *kimchi*?
Incorrect General Question:	*What does he eat *kimchi*?
Corrected Question:	What does he eat?

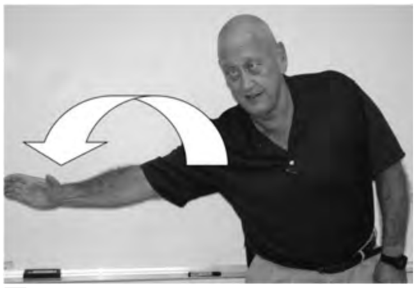


FIGURE 9. General question.

E. Miscellaneous Hand Signals

Students can be prompted to speak or repeat simply by putting a hand behind your ear. Raising your hand when asking a question tells the students to do the same to answer. Correct English production can be indicated by a large dramatic thumbs-up. Sometimes I indicate that I want a positive or negative sentence by putting my thumbs up or down when I signal the verb portion of a sentence. Nodding your head and a big smile encourages students when they are creating a good sentence. This same nodding of the head and big smile ensures them that the wait time they are using to think is OK and expected. A high-five or a double thumbs-up always gets a big smile of accomplishment from a student.

IV. Conclusion and Proposal

These hand signals have not been academically reviewed or studied. I have no academic proof or data that they improve outcomes, improve learning, or improve quality of production. I have no references to cite that support my anecdotal evidence that these hand signals work. What I do have is four years experience using and refining the hand signals in two countries. I have used them with learners ranging from middle school students through to adult learners.

I have seen presentations that did cite academic sources on the use of colors to teach sentence structures. I believe using your hands to indicate a subject or a verb is just as valid as using colors on a PowerPoint sentence to make that same indication.

While the use of these hand signals has not been vetted through academic research, this is an area for future exploration that the author would be interested in cooperating in.

THE AUTHOR

Richard "Steve" Eigenberg teaches at Kyungnam University. He holds a CELTA and a 120-hour TESOL certification that emphasized task-based learning. His MBA is from Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa (USA). Steve is a certified science teacher and certified Microsoft trainer in the USA. He has taught computer science and networking concepts at the collegiate level and in private industry. Steve won the Busan Public School Teaching Competition in 2009. He is a certified Merchant Marine captain and spent several years captaining scuba boats. Many of his non-verbal ideas developed as a result of non-verbal scuba communications. Email: steve@tggroup.biz

AUTHOR NOTE

While I have created the majority of these hand signals, I did not create the concept or the first hand signals. I must pass on a big "thank you" to a mentor and good friend, Anthony Hocking. I met Mr. Hocking when we were teaching for EPIK in Busan, South Korea. Like many new teachers in Korea, I had no experience in language teaching at the time. I did however have a strong desire to learn and serve the students well. Anthony taught me a lot. He helped me design many lessons during my first weeks in Korea. He taught me the past, present, and future hand signals and encouraged me to get my CELTA for which I am also very grateful. Anthony Hocking currently works for the British Council in Seoul, South Korea.

APPENDIX: GLOSSARY OF HAND SIGNALS

Verb Tense Signals

Past

Present

Future

Assist the Students in Building Better Grammatical Sentences

Subject

Verb

"blah blah"
Object+Manner+Place+Time

Miscellaneous Signals

Make a Sentence

Speak / Repeat / Louder

"S" Hand Signals (the "a" signal is a logical addition to elicit the "a" or "an" article)

You Forgot a 3rd-Person "s"

One or Many? (Plural Error)

One (Elicit an "a" or "an")

Question Hand Signals

Make the Verb Strong
(*Do* Assist for the Present Simple and Past Simple)

Make a Yes/No Question

Add a Question Word
(Make an Information Question)

Learning Preferences / Styles

Use of Language Learning Strategies Among Low-Proficiency Japanese University Students

Andrew Thompson
Kyushu Sangyo University, Fukuoka, Japan

Robert Cochrane
Kyushu Sangyo University, Fukuoka, Japan

Since the initial research into the identification of characteristics associated with "good language learners" by Naiman et al. (1978), Rubin (1975), and Stern (1975), researchers have found that through the conscious use of appropriate learning strategies, learners are able to achieve higher language proficiency (Ikeda & Takeuchi, 2003; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). This pilot study explored the use of specific language learning strategies (LLS) by 168 first- and second-year Japanese university students enrolled in a compulsory English course. Participants were given a four-part survey, which included eight questions adapted from Oxford's (1989, 1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). The results of this pilot survey suggest that future research relating to the use of LLS by low-proficiency Japanese university students would benefit from a more qualitative approach in order to understand student awareness, beliefs, and use of English learning strategies in the classroom.

I. Summary of Past Research

In the past, second language instruction focused on teacher-centered rather than learner-centered instruction (Cohen & Dornyei, 2002). During the 1970s English language teaching became more focused on the learner's role in the classroom. This lead to several researchers examining "good language learners" (GLLs) in the hopes of finding fundamental traits or practices that could be taught to students of lower language proficiency. Initial research into the identification of characteristics associated with GLLs by Rubin (1975), Stern (1975), and Naiman et al. (1978) has found that through the conscious use of appropriate learning strategies, learners are able to achieve higher language proficiency (Ikeda & Takeuchi, 2003; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989).

In 1989, a leading researcher in LLS, Oxford, defined LLS as being specific action that a learner takes to make the process of learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more effective, and more useful when dealing with new learning situations. Oxford (2003) later clarified her definition of LLS noting that strategies are neither good or bad, and went on to state that an effective strategy needs to (a) relate to the task, (b) relate to the learner style, and (c) be used effectively by the student. The benefit to learners engaged in effective LLS use has been found to allow students to become more independent, autonomous, and lifelong learners (Allwright, 1990; Little, 1991).

II. DEFINING LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

It should be noted that current research suggests that there are a wide variety of strategies that learners can use. The exact number of strategies available to learners to make learning easier is still highly debatable (Oxford & Cohen, 1992). Furthermore, methods of classification have been varied and contested by Skehan (1989), and more recently by Dornyei (2005), with new classifications continually being introduced (Rose, 2012).

Possibly the most recognized taxonomy of strategies was developed by Oxford (1989, 1990), which also lead to the creation of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). Even though the validity and the reliability of the SILL has been challenged, it remains the most extensively used taxonomy of strategic language learning by researchers throughout the world (Bremner, 1999). It was for this reason that the SILL was chosen as the source of the items selected for this pilot study.

The SILL, which consists of fifty items, is designed to identify the frequency of strategy use for each strategy type and measure the frequency with which a student uses a particular strategy. The SILL is divided into two main sections: direct and indirect strategies.

Direct strategies are used in dealing with a new language. The three groups that belong to direct strategies are memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. Direct strategies involve the mental processes of receiving, retaining, storing, and retrieving language.

Indirect strategies are used for language learning management, organization, and the handling of the physical and social aspects associated with language learning. The three groups that belong to indirect strategies are metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Indirect strategies involve the processes of planning, identifying feelings, and engaging with other language learners, as can be seen in Table 1 below (Rausch, 2000).

TABLE 1. Language Learning Strategies

Direct Strategies	Indirect Strategies
Memory Strategies • Connecting new language to images or pictures • Reviewing new language and English lessons	Metacognitive Strategies • Arranging and planning learning • Scheduled evaluation of learning
Cognitive Strategies • Saying and writing new language • Analyzing and negotiating meaning	Affective Strategies • Trying to relax and lower anxiety levels • Identifying feelings
Compensation Strategies • Guessing meaning • Overcoming limitations through adaptation	Social Strategies • Asking questions • Practicing with others students

This pilot study specifically focused on the usage of selected memory and cognitive strategies among low-proficiency Japanese learners. The reason for selecting these two groups was based on published research in the area of LLS highlighting that these strategy groups are frequently used among "good" Japanese learners (Takeuchi, 2003).

A. Memory Strategies

Memory strategies help language learners connect one concept or language item with another. These strategies are most commonly associated with learning vocabulary and include grouping or using imagery and the use of flashcards. Memory strategies are directly related to helping students store and retrieve new language.

B. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies enable the learner to manipulate the language material in direct ways. These strategies have been found to significantly relate to language proficiency and include notetaking, summarizing, and reasoning deductively. Cognitive strategies enable learners to understand and produce new language (Oxford, 1996).

III. Purposes of This Pilot Study

This pilot study was motivated by a need to initially identify the present usage and awareness of standard memory and cognitive strategies among low-proficiency Japanese learners in a university context. It is planned that, following the identification and investigation of these findings, future qualitative research will be conducted in order to focus more directly on which strategies are most relevant to learner types and learner objectives.

There were two key purposes:

1. To quantitatively identify the specific type of memory or cognitive strategies used and the frequency of use by low-proficiency Japanese learners at university.
2. To qualitatively identify additional strategies or other ways students studied English and the students' self-study schedule.

IV. Research Questions

- Do low-proficiency Japanese university students use commonly researched memory and cognitive language learning strategies?
- What other language learning strategies do low-proficiency Japanese university students report using, and how many hours do they self-study per week?

V. METHOD

A. Participants

Data was collected in December 2011 from 168 students at a private Japanese university. Of these students, 113 were first-year and 55 second-year students, comprising 28 female students and 140 male students. These students represented first- and second-year students of various majors enrolled in a compulsory English program with TOEIC Bridge scores ranging from 60 to 140. The specific goal of the program was for students on completion of two years of study to graduate with a TOEIC Bridge score of over 140.

The students had one 90-minute English conversation class per week (30 classes/year) with a native English teacher and one 90-minute English class per week (30 classes/year) with a Japanese teacher. The English conversation classes specifically focused on improving basic communicative listening and speaking skills. It must be noted, the students involved in this study were not explicitly taught LLS during the academic year of 2011.

All students participated in a center-wide vocabulary program over the two years of English study. The 1,600 most frequent spoken and written English words were selected from the *Longman Eiwa Jiten* (Pearson Education, 2006) and presented over ten weeks each term. The goal of the program was for the students to master these words. Pre- and post-tests were mandatory for all classes; however, each teacher decided on the method of instruction. Consequently, many teachers required students to complete a vocabulary notebook each week followed by a weekly vocabulary quiz. This notebook generally required approximately two hours of homework per week.

Generally, low-proficiency Japanese university students have low motivation and do the minimum required work to complete the course. Their TOEIC Bridge scores suggest that they do not exhibit or employ the traits of "good language learners," especially in the use of strategies.

B. Instrument

The survey consisted of four-parts:

- Part A: Student background information.
- Part B: Identifying frequency of strategy use.
- Part C: Asking students what other ways they studied English.
- Part D: Asking students to state the amount of time they studied English outside of scheduled classes.

The central section of the current study involved Part B. This part consisted of eight strategy statements adapted from Oxford's (1989, 1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and was used to collect information on frequency of strategy use. The strategy statements were adapted from the SILL and then translated from English into Japanese. The translated version was then back-translated. Some minor modifications were then made in the wording of certain strategy statements in order to ensure accuracy of translation. The strategy statements on the survey were designed on a six-point Likert scale of “Never,” “Very Rarely,” “Rarely,” “Occasionally,” “Frequently,” and “Always.” The survey was deliberately designed to be completed in five to ten minutes prior to the commencement of class.

Two statements were adapted to better fit with the students’ current situation. Statement 3 was changed to “vocabulary notebook” from the original “flashcards” found in the SILL to reflect the use of vocabulary notebooks in the students’ current program. Statement 7 was also adapted from “I do not translate word-for-word” to “I translate word-for-word” to keep a consistent tone to the questions.

VI. FINDINGS

From the results of this pilot survey, it can be understood that both first-year and second-year students reported using all eight strategy types. Table 2 shows that across the eight strategy statements, student strategy utilization was found to be medium (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). The data collected shows that students used cognitive strategies at a greater frequency than memory strategies, and interestingly, first-year students used strategies at a slightly higher frequency than second-year students. The higher use of cognitive strategies may reflect the fact that cognitive strategies, such as saying or writing new language, were the preferred strategy type of students prior to the class’s weekly vocabulary quizzes.

An important point to note is the response to Statement 7, “I translate word-for-word.” This item was reported as the most-used strategy with all students. The first-year students reported greater use than the second-year students. This result shows high reported use of a less effective strategy that first-year students may have used in their Japanese high school grammar-translation-style classes, where there is predominantly a dependency by low-proficiency students on using rote learning patterns when studying new vocabulary (Fewell, 2010).

The high reported use of word-for-word translation may suggest that first-year students still have a limited repertoire of cognitive strategies and rely on what they used in high school English classes. This reinforces the idea that both “good” and “not so good” language learners use strategies, but quite possibly, good language learners use them more, use them more effectively, and re-evaluate when and where to use a given strategy. Lower reported use by the second-year students may suggest that after exposure to communicative language learning in the first year of university, they are able to use varying strategies when analyzing and negotiating new vocabulary.

TABLE 2. Frequency of Language Learning Strategy Use

No.	Statement	1st-Year Students n = 114	2nd-Year Students n = 54	All Students n = 168
1	I use new English words in sentences so I can remember them.	2.67	2.60	2.65
2	I remember a new English word by connecting it to an image or picture.	3.26	3.04	3.20
3	I use a vocabulary notebook to remember new English words.	3.05	3.01	3.33
4	I review English lessons.	2.97	2.96	2.97
5	I say new words several times.	3.55	3.00	3.36
6	I write new words several times.	3.28	3.14	3.24
7	I translate word-for-word.	3.84	3.75	3.82
8	I practice the sounds of English.	3.11	2.98	3.07
Overall mean reported frequency of use.		3.27	3.06	3.21

Note. Mean reported frequency of language learning strategy use for first-year students, second-year students, and all students (whole sample), with number of strategies used quite frequently by each group (bold figures).

In Table 3, the data indicates that a large number of students had no other ways of studying English. This may be due to a lack of study skill training, or quite possibly, students were just simply not interested in making a comment, with more than 55% of students leaving this part of the survey blank.

That some students actually chose to report their own ways to study is encouraging, but it bears further examination into how students actually watch English TV or movies to study. Are they meaningfully engaging in understanding what they are watching or merely watching English-language TV with subtitles and reporting that as studying? If students report using strategies, how can their lack of proficiency be explained?

TABLE 3. Student Self-Report Comments

Number of Comments	Student Self-Reported Comments
22	Nothing.
10	Watch English TV or movies.
9	Listen to English (international) music.
9	Do class homework.
8	Use the university E-learning system.
7	Write new words several times.
6	Listen to English-learning CDs.
1	Read Japanese and translate to English.
1	Check Japanese meaning in dictionary.
1	Imagine English questions.
1	Do not translate.

Note. In Part C of the survey, both first-year and second-year students were asked “What other ways do you study English?” Only 45% of the students (N = 168) made a comment, with similar comments grouped into six groups for convenience.

Below are some translated examples of student comments showing the other ways students study English. These insights may offer suggestions on how English teachers could better engage with Japanese students in the classroom or with homework assignments, especially with low-proficiency learners.

Translated Examples of Other Ways Students Study English

- "Watch movies with subtitles."
- "Watch Major League Baseball in English."
- "I listen to music and check the lyrics, and then shadow the song."
- "Listen to English music."

A concerning finding was in Part D (Table 4), with more than 58% of all students (N = 168) reporting that they study less than two hours per week outside of scheduled English conversation class. Many English language teachers would say that this is well below the minimum needed to improve language proficiency. Note that it is not clear if students are including their mandatory homework in this number or not.

TABLE 4. Hours of Self-Study per Week

Student Level	0-1 Hour	1-2 Hours	2-3 Hours	3-4 Hours	4+ Hours
1st-Year Students (n = 113)	17%	59%	17%	5%	2%
2nd-Year Students (n = 55)	18%	55%	22%	5%	0%

Note. In Part D of the survey, both first-year students and second-year students (N = 168) were asked "How many hours per week do you do self-study for English lessons?"

VII. CONCLUSION

The key focus of this pilot study was to explore the use of memory and cognitive strategies among low-proficiency Japanese learners in university education. The results reveal that the students used similar types of strategies regardless of their academic level. Also, students used cognitive strategies more than memory strategies, possibly due to the fact that cognitive strategies have a direct impact on processing new vocabulary and sentences.

The next step is to further investigate how and what exactly students do when they report using these strategies. One drawback of the survey results is that they do not report exactly how students interpret the questions. These results suggest that more investigation into how students understand strategies and their use is required.

As mentioned earlier, the results of this pilot study clearly suggest that future research relating to the use of LLS by low-proficiency Japanese university students needs to take a qualitative approach, as suggested by Woodrow (2005), in order to understand student awareness, beliefs, and actual LLS. For this reason, we hope that future research in Japan will look at strategy use using larger sample sizes and varying survey items to truly investigate what happens when Japanese learners study English.

THE AUTHORS

Andrew Thompson is an English Lecturer at Kyushu Sangyo University in Fukuoka, Japan. He has a Master of Applied Linguistics from Monash University and a B.A. in Communications and Sociology from Griffith University, Australia. His areas of research interest include curriculum development, language learning strategies, student interest, and motivation. Email: thompson@ip.kyusan-u.ac.jp

Robert Cochrane has taught at all levels in the Japanese education system, from elementary school to university. With a master's degree from the University of Birmingham, he is now lecturing and conducting research at Kyushu Sangyo University in western Japan. His present research covers material development based on task-based language learning, language learning strategies, cognitive approaches to second language acquisition, and CALL. Email: cochrane@ip.kyusan-u.ac.jp

REFERENCES

Allwright, D., (1990). Autonomy in language pedagogy. *CRILE Working Paper 6*. Lancaster, UK: Centre for Research in Education, University of Lancaster.

Bremner, S. (1999). Language learning strategies and language proficiency: Investigating the relationship in Hong Kong. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 55*, 4.

Cohen, A. D., & Dornyei, Z. (2002). Focus on the language learner: Motivation, styles, and strategies (pp. 170-190). In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *An introduction to applied linguistics*. London: Arnold.

Dornyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Fewell, N. (2010). Language learning strategies and English language proficiency: An investigation of Japanese EFL university students. *TESOL Journal, 2*, 159-174.

Ikeda, M., & Takeuchi, O. (2003). Can strategy instruction help EFL learners improve reading comprehension? *JACET Bulletin, 37*, 49-60.

Little, D. (1991). *Learner autonomy 1: Definitions, issues, and problems*. Dublin, Ireland: Authentik.

Naiman, N., Froanhlich, M., Stern, H. H., & Toedesco, A. (1978). *The good language learner*. Toronto, Canada: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE).

Oxford, R. L. (1989). Use of language learning strategies: A synthesis of students with implications for strategy training. *System, 17*(2), 235-247.

Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Oxford, R. L. (Ed.). (1996). *Language learning strategies around the world: Cross-cultural perspectives*. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Centre.

Oxford, R. L. (2003). Language learning styles and strategies: Concepts and relationships. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching Journal, 41*(4), 271-278.

Oxford, R. L., & Cohen, A. D. (1992). Language learning strategies: Crucial issues of concept and classification. *Applied Language Learning, 3*(1-2), 1-35.

Oxford, R. L., & Burry-Stock, J. A. (1995). Assessing the use of language learning strategies worldwide with the ESL/EFL version of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning. *System, 23*(2), 153-175.

Oxford, R. L., & Nyikos, M. (1989). Variables affecting choice of language learning strategies by university students. *Modern Language Journal, 73*, 291-300.

Pearson Education. (2006). *Longman Eiwa Jiten* [English-Japanese Dictionary]. Harlow, UK: Author.

Rausch, A. S. (2000). Language learning strategies instruction and language use applied to foreign language reading and writing: A simplified "menu" approach. *Literacy Across Cultures*. Retrieved from http://www2.aasa.ac.jp/~dcdycus/LAC2000/rausch.htm

Rose, H. (2012). Reconceptualizing strategic learning in the face of self-regulation: Throwing language learning strategies out with the bathwater. *Applied Linguistics, 33*(2), 92-98.

Rubin, J. (1975). What the good language learner can teach us? *TESOL Quarterly, 9*, 41-51.

Skehan, P. (1989). *Individual differences in second-language learning*. London, UK: Edward Arnold.

Stern, H. H. (1975). What can we learn from the good language learner? *The Canadian Modern Language Review, 31*, 241-258.

Takeuchi, O. (2003). What can we learn from good language learners: A qualitative study in the Japanese foreign language context. System*, 31*, 385-392.

Takeuchi, O., & Wakamoto, N. (2001). Language learning strategies used by Japanese college learners of English: A synthesis of four empirical studies. *Language Education and Technology, 38*, 21-43.

Woodrow, L. (2005). The challenge of measuring language learning strategies. *Foreign Language Annals, 38*(1), 90-100.

Materials / Course Design

Ideas for Evaluating Homework Design

Robert Cochrane
Kyushu Sangyo University, Fukuoka, Japan

Homework is a part of almost any teacher's curriculum and can take on many purposes: academic functions, socialization purposes, curriculum requirements, and even in some cases, punishment. In communicative language teaching, the classroom is king and homework frequently an afterthought. This paper presents the results of exploratory action research into the use of homework to scaffold low-proficiency English language learners accustomed to grammar-translation lessons into a communicative language-learning classroom. A homework program based on the task-based learning framework was created to provide support and better use of limited class time. A variety of task types were presented, both novel and familiar to students, along with a survey recording student perceptions on factors of time required, difficulty, interest, relevance, and desire to do the task again. The results were positive but somewhat unexpected. Results suggest some areas for consideration when designing homework and further research.

I. Introduction

Homework is taken for granted as a part of almost any course of study and can fulfill various functions: from academic functions, socialization purposes, and curriculum requirements to punishment (Epstein, 1988). General education research reports that homework, overall, has a positive effect on academic performance (Cooper & Valentine, 2001). Some teachers do not always think carefully about the homework they assign. In a series of interviews with ten full-time native English-speaking instructors at one university located on the island of Kyushu in Japan, nine of the ten reported assigning homework in every class. Of those teachers, two reported creating original materials while the remaining teachers reported assigning activities from the textbook or unfinished class work. Unfortunately, some teachers reported using homework as a threat or a form of punishment. At the university level, class time is limited. One ninety-minute class per week is usual, so homework can be vital to increasing student time with the target language. For good language learners (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975), seeking out ways to interact with the language is natural, so assigning homework may not be necessary, but for low-proficiency learners, assigning homework may be the only way in which students will even think about the target language outside of class. For homework to be truly effective, students must actively engage themselves with the homework and with what they are doing. As Coutts (2004, p. 5) suggests, "If we want students to be intrinsically motivated to learn and to complete homework, it would be of benefit if the task itself was valued and viewed as interesting and engaging, regardless of any links between the task and other outcomes."

A great deal of communicative language-learning research is dedicated to creating engaging classroom activities; however, not much time is devoted to researching how to create engaging out-of-class or homework activities. For low-proficiency learners, homework can be especially important. Properly designed homework activities can provide the scaffolding and support that students require as well as allowing them to engage with the language in their own time on their own schedule. The pressure to perform is decreased, and students can utilize a wide range of resources that are not available in class. Effectively designed homework can provide support by helping students prepare for class and review class work to help reinforce what they have studied in class.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants in this study were first-year students enrolled in a mandatory English course at a mid-level Japanese technical university. All English classes are under the umbrella of the Language Education Research Center (LERC), which is responsible for the English instruction of all departments. The study examined four classes using the same intermediate-level textbook with TOEIC Bridge scores ranging from 100-115 (N = 108). Students have two 90-minute English classes per week during two 15-week terms. One class (Eigo) focuses on grammar and reading and is taught by a Japanese teacher, the other (Eigokaiwa) is a listening and speaking course taught by a native English-speaking instructor. In this study, different instructors taught the Eigo classes while a single instructor taught the Eigokaiwa class.

Students take the TOEIC Bridge test at the beginning of the year as a placement test and take it again at the end of the year as an achievement test. The TOEIC Bridge test is worth 30% of their final grade. The students also take a vocabulary pre-test and post-test to measure vocabulary gains based on the in-house vocabulary program. Also at the end of each term, the university administers a class evaluation survey. The survey is multiple-choice with an optional section for comments.

These students are not what would be considered "good language learners" (Rubin, 197; Stern, 1975), and generally do not exhibit traits like seeking out ways to use the target language or organizing their time. There are some assumptions that can be made regarding their study habits. From their TOEIC Bridge scores, it may be assumed that they do not know or employ effective study strategies. They are accustomed to studying English for exams and most likely have been taught English in Japanese using the grammar-translation method. Exposure to English listening has probably been via textbook dialogues. Exposure to authentic English for study purposes has probably been very rare. Most likely the predominant study strategy is to cram before a test and hope that enough information can be remembered to pass.

With these assumptions in mind, communicative language learning is a challenge for these learners. Having English-speaking instructors will also be a major challenge, especially if the teacher expects students to be active, motivated, and outspoken. The learners generally have little motivation to study in general or to study English in particular. Lack of achievement has led many of them to believe that they are just not good at English. Viewing English as a collection of rules and words to learn for a test rather than a tool for communication is a major obstacle to effective communicative language learning.

A solution may be to find a way to change students' perceptions of English, increase their engagement with the language, support their use of class time, and improve their English study skills. Homework could possibly be the solution if factors that increase student engagement can be discovered.

B. Procedure

Through a series of observations, the problem being addressed became evident. The observations were that these learners did not do homework, and did not do work in class. When they did complete homework, it was done poorly, frequently looking like it was done in the five minutes before class started. Their participation in class activities was half-hearted, and they took a great deal of time to get started. Many of these students were smart, but they seemed to have given up on English.

These students were accustomed to studying English solely for tests, especially university entrance exams. English was a subject for exams and not necessarily a tool for communication. It may have been perceived by students as a list of words to belearned and complex grammar rules to be memorized. The idea that English was actually used by people to communicate seemed like an alien concept to many of these students.

They were also accustomed to a grammar-translation method of teaching with little exposure to spoken English. What little exposure they had would be in the form of scripted textbook audio that rarely contained the features of authentic speech. This became a problem when they entered university and were faced with a native English-speaking teacher using a communicative approach who expected them to have discussions in English. Students were reticent and reluctant to respond because they had no knowledge or experience in what to do. Unfortunately many university teachers do not have experience teaching at the high school level and do not see the huge gap between what they expect students to be able to do and what the students have experience doing.

One possible solution to the issue is to find some way to scaffold students into a communicative teaching environment within the limited amount of class time available. A solution presents itself with task-based learning. Task-based learning is an approach that brings real-world relevance to language. The focus is not on learning the language but on learning how it is applied, and then learning the language needed to accomplish tasks. One framework provides a three-step approach: pre-task, task, and post-task (Willis, 1996). As task-based language teaching mainly focuses on classroom activities, the pre-task and post-task parts of the framework are the focus of the current research.

In order to help students use class time more effectively and to be better prepared, homework activities were created with the pre- and post-task phases in mind. Homework has several benefits:

- Low pressure — Students can do it on their own time.
- Unlimited resources — Students can use reference materials.
- Novelty — Assignments can take the form of activities that have a closer connection to the real world.

The main research questions then became:

- What types of tasks have a positive effect on student engagement?
- What design factors, if any, have an effect on engagement and student desire to do a task again?

Willis (1996, p. 26) provided a list of task types that served as a basis for the homework creation.

1. Listing
2. Ordering and Sorting
3. Comparing
4. Problem Solving
5. Sharing Personal Experiences
6. Creative Tasks

Assignments were also ranked on the dimensions of novelty and personalization.

Assignments were designed to prepare students for class work, review language points, reinforce vocabulary, and expose students to ways English is used to communicate. A wide variety of assignments were created to expose the students to as wide a variety of activities as possible. All assignments were posted on a website created by the teacher containing information relevant to all classes. Each class had its own individual weekly blog on this site. The blog contained the homework assignment for the next week. Students were responsible for downloading, printing, and completing the assignments for the following class. Students were also responsible for completing a survey for each assignment.

The website was employed for several reasons. The main reason was to make students responsible for seeking out and completing their assignments. The website also helped students become more familiar with using computers. If students were absent from a class, they were still responsible for assignments, and the website made it possible for students to complete them. Overall, it was designed to help make students more active in their studies.

In addition to the assignments, all classes participated in a mandatory vocabulary program. The vocabulary program covers the most frequent 1600 spoken and written words according to the *Longman Eiwa-Jiten Dictionary*. Each year covers eight hundred words. The words are divided into twenty lists of forty words each. All classes must participate in the program and must take a pre- and post-test. Instruction of the list is left up to each individual instructor. The students in this study each week completed a vocabulary notebook and were administered a 15-question quiz. The quiz was used by students to check their progress. Students were instructed to complete the wordbook in a specific format that included the word, word class, two meanings, and two example sentences from the *Eiwa Jiten*. The students were also presented with and encouraged to use a four-day cycle to complete each weekly list. Each day required approximately 25 minutes to complete the work.

A survey was administered with each assignment. The survey was originally written in English, translated into Japanese, and back-translated to ensure accuracy in the translation. The survey contained five questions and a space for comments. The questions asked about time, interest, difficulty, relevance, and desire to do the same type of activity again. Each question had four answers. See Appendix A for the English/Japanese version of the survey.

III. RESULTS

Survey results were collected for six target activities, TOEIC Bridge practice activities from the textbook, and the vocabulary wordbook. The target activity surveys were completed along with each assignment, but the surveys for the TOEIC Bridge and wordbook were administered once at the end of the term with students asked to reflect on an average week when answering the questions. This was due to the fact that these homework activities contained the same features and only the content changed week to week.

In each class, there were several students who did not complete the homework assignments and surveys, and if they did it, it was done inconsistently and poorly. This happened even though students were informed on a regular basis that homework was mandatory and a large part of their grade for the term. The results of the survey can be seen in Figure 1.

	1-time	2-difficulty	3-interest	4-utility	5-likeability
Countries	1-6-19-44	4-27-33-6	5-25-33-7	1-13-50-6	2-30-33-5
	7 64	31 39	30 40	14 56	32 38
Where is Mat?	3-11-25-41	13-39-23-2	3-20-38-17	2-22-50-4	1-21-46-10
	14 66	52 25	23 55	24 54	22 56
Books & movies	1-3-16-69	2-22-47-18	15-32-36-6	13-33-41-2	8-38-40-3
	4 85	24 65	47 42	46 43	46 43
Trailers	3-7-34-51	9-34-38-12	10-37-34-12	8-34-45-6	7-32-50-4
	10 85	43 50	47 46	42 51	39 54
Convenience store challenge	10-12-20-20	10-22-20-5	9-18-28-4	6-25-22-5	8-17-27-3
	22 40	32 25	27 32	11 27	25 30
Alfred's Family	9-25-29-24	5-36-33-9	10-26-36-11	8-21-43-11	10-23-45-5
	34 53	41 42	36 47	29 54	33 50
11,12 & 13	3-3-39-64	3-17-69-19	14-44-48-1	5-20-64-19	9-54-43-2
	6 103	20 88	58 49	25 83	63 45
Wordbook	2-2-4-77	3-23-57-25	24-54-29-1	2-18-58-30	17-53-35-3
	4 81	26 82	78 30	20 88	70 38

FIGURE 1. Survey results measured time, difficulty, interest, utility, and likeability for the six target activities (Countries - Alfred's Family), the TOEIC Bridge textbook practice activities (11, 12, & 13), and the vocabulary wordbook.

The top four numbers under each question are the actual scores. Under those scores is a combination of positive and negative scores for ease of comparison. It should be noted that the total number of surveys collected varied from activity to activity because students did not always complete assignments.

The results of particular interest are the scores for the traditional tasks; wordbook; and parts 11, 12, and 13 of their textbook, which consist of TOEIC practice. The desire to do these activities is low, but the relevance is high. These activities are directly related to tests students must take. Student completion of these activities was also quite good. These activities were also the least interesting to the students.

The target activities were generally well received. The activity that required the most personal thought and opinion (Books & Movies) was the activity that was least desirable. It was also the least interesting to the students. This activity required students to list their favorite books and movies along with information such as author, main character, and genre. This was cognitively challenging as students had to think about their own opinions and make decisions. There was no easy answer to copy. This was also rated the most difficult of the target tasks.

The activity that students most wanted to do again was the video activity (Where is Mat?), which was the most novel. It was also the most interesting to the students. This activity required students to watch a three-minute video on YouTube, "*Where the Hell is Matt? 2005*" (Harding, 2005), which showed a man doing a silly dance in various locations around the world. The name of each location is presented on the screen, and students needed to write the names of all the locations. This was a simple listing task with very little cognitive challenge.

Class evaluation comments provided some valuable information. These comments were entirely voluntary, students were free to just answer the survey questions, but many chose to provide comments. There were two spaces for comments, positive and negative features of the course. The negative comments fell into two groups: "too much homework" and "teacher needs to speak more Japanese in class."

The positive comments were varied, but they also fell into several groups. The groups were comments stating that the students felt "the homework really helped and made class easier," "using only English helped my listening," and "there was a lot of homework, but it helped me improve my English." Generally the positive comments outnumbered the negative by 4 to 1. Some students even tried to write comments in English even though the survey was entirely in Japanese and was administered in all of their classes, not only English class.

TOEIC Bridge results were difficult to calculate. The average gain was quite small (0-5 points). However, when the students were divided into groups of students who completed the majority of the homework versus students who completed little or no homework, the results were very different. For students who did the assignments, TOEIC Bridge gains were approximately 15-20 points. For the remaining students, there were no gains or negative gains. The average gain for the entire first-year English program was 5 points.

IV. DISCUSSION

The homework tasks seemed to have a positive effect on student achievement on vocabulary test scores and TOEIC Bridges cores. Students who completed most, or all, of the homework assignments showed above average gains on their TOEIC Bridge scores. Students who did not see a gain, or who saw a decrease, generally did not do much of the homework. This suggests that the tasks did help students understand and improve their English comprehension. The class evaluation comments also support this suggestion. Student comments reported that homework helped them, made the class easier to understand, and made English study interesting.

There were 4 or 5 students in every class who did not do any assignments but continued to come to class. There were also several students who only came to a few classes and were never seen again. Further studies could benefit from select interviews to expand on students' perceptions and attitudes towards homework and why they do not do their assignments. One option may be to make homework activities optional, but the potential drawback to this approach is that students will not do anything if given a choice.

One interesting point regarding the task types is that the most personalized, and possibly most cognitively demanding, activity was the least desirable of the target tasks. It is worth further investigation as to why this was so. Was it due to the fact that they previously had little experience expressing their own opinions and were accustomed to remembering the answers their teachers gave them? Was it that they did not have their own opinions or were rarely asked to express them? Could it be possible that the students wanted to merely copy what they were told was the right answer and did not want to think? This may deserve further research.

The more traditional tasks had a high completion rate yet did not rate high on desirability or interest. They were seen as very relevant probably because the students saw a direct relationship to the tests they were required to write. It does not answer how engaged the students were in the activities. They were accustomed to doing a great deal of homework in high school but may have been stumbling through it without an effective approach. This would result in poor English proficiency. The familiarity of the activities may have made them more compelling than the other tasks, which were not directly related to tests.

Students did seem to enjoy the target activities, and class evaluation comments suggest that eventually they saw the value in them. It may have taken some time for students to adjust to a different type of English class. Some students managed to see the connection between the homework and the class work. This suggests that this line of research may merit further study, especially with low-proficiency learners.

The class evaluation comments, which were voluntarily reported by the students, indicate that the homework assignments had a positive influence on the students' attitudes towards the homework assignments. The comments support the original idea of the study: that homework can influence students' beliefs and behaviors. It suggests that if students do this type of homework, they will see the value in it. Creating activities that are interesting and relevant to students may increase student engagement, which over time, can change students' attitudes.

One other point to consider that may require further investigation is the role of the survey itself. The survey caused students to stop and contemplate the activities that they had just completed. It is possible that these students previously did not engage in self-reflection of this kind. It may be worth investigating what influence the survey itself had on students' engagement.

V. Conclusion

One thing that may be taken away from this study is some ideas to consider when designing an action research project or homework activities. The first would be to keep activities relevant. It seems to help students when they know what the purpose of the activity is. Even if it is time-consuming or uninteresting, if it is directly related to a test, they will do it. Second, try to avoid activities that require personal information or opinions. These can be used when students reach a level where they can discuss topics. For low-proficiency students, it may help to start with activities that require available information. Also, try to introduce activities that introduce and reinforce how English is a communication tool. Grammar activities are acceptable if they are related to communication. Using homework to prepare students for classroom activities is another point to consider along with homework as consolidation. Overall, homework can be a very useful scaffolding tool that with time can change students' perceptions of studying English.

It may be said that this study provided some positive results but no concrete conclusions. Its purpose was achieved in showing that positive gains can be attained with a careful approach to homework, but how this is achieved is still unknown and has opened the door to a range of possible future studies. Further research is needed in narrowing down the effects of each activity type and why students rate them the way they do. Much of the current second language research focuses on the classroom, but more studies investigating homework may also prove beneficial, especially in the case of poorly motivated, low-proficiency learners.

The Author

Robert Cochrane has taught at all levels in the Japanese education system from elementary school to university. With a master's degree from the University of Birmingham, he is now lecturing and conducting research at Kyushu Sangyo University in western Japan. His present research covers material development based on task-based language learning, language learning strategies, cognitive approaches to second language acquisition, and CALL. Email: bobklingon@gmail.com

References

Cooper, H., & Valentine, J. C. (2001). Using research to answer practical questions about homework. *Educational Psychologist, 36,* 143-153.

Coutts, P. (2004). Meanings of homework and implications for practice. *Theory Into*

Practice, 43(3), 182-188. doi:10.1353/tip.2004.0034

Epstein, J. L. (1988). *Homework practices, achievements, and behaviors of elementary school students*. Baltimore, MD: Center for Research on Elementary and Middle Schools, Johns Hopkins University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. PS017621)

Harding, M. (Producer). (2005). *Where the hell is Matt? 2005*. Retrieved from http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7WmMcqp670s

Rubin, J. (1975). What the “good language learner” can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly, 9*(1), 41-51.

Stern, H. H. (1975). What can we learn from the good language learner? *The Canadian Modern Language Review, 31*, 241-58.

Willis, J. (1996). *A framework for tasked-based learning*. London, UK: Longman.

Appendix

The English/Japanese Version of the Homework Survey

学生番号: ______________________________ Class code=______________

アクティビティ番号:

講義時間帯:	火曜日	水曜日	木曜日	金曜日	1	2	3	4	5	6
	☐	☐	☐	☐	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥

今回の課題アクティビティについて、アンケートに答えてください。最も当てはまると思われる率直な答えを選んでください。質問を読み、よく考えた上で選択肢の中から当てはまる回答を選んで○をつけてください。1質問につき1回答とします。すべての質問に答えてください。なお、アンケート結果が成績に影響することはありません。ご協力の程よろしくお願いします。

How long did this activity take to finish? (How much time did you spend doing the activity?)
このアクティビティをやり終えるのにどのくらいの時間がかかりましたか?(このアクティビティにどれくらい時間を使いましたか?)

Under 5 minutes	5-10 minutes	10-20 minutes	over 20 minutes
5分以下 ①	5~10分 ②	10~20分 ③	20分以上 ④

How easy or difficult was the homework to understand for you?
課題は簡単に理解できましたか?それとも難しかったですか?

Very easy	a little easy	a little difficult	very difficult
とても簡単 ①	まあまあ簡単 ②	少し難しい ③	とても難しい ④

How interesting was the homework? (Did the activity keep your attention?)
課題は面白かったですか?(興味を引くような課題でしたか?)

Not interesting at all	not very interesting	somewhat interesting	very interesting
まったく面白くない ①	あまり面白くない ②	まあまあ面白い ③	とても面白い ④

How helpful was the homework? (Did it help you learn, remember or understand?)
課題はどの程度役立ちましたか?(課題をやることで、英語の学習、暗記、理解に役立ちましたか?)

Not helpful at all	not very helpful	somewhat helpful	very helpful
まったく役立たない ①	あまり役立たない ②	まあまあ役立つ ③	とても役立つ ④

Did you like this homework activity? (Would you like to do similar activities in the future?)
この課題のアクティビティを気に入りましたか?(今後、同じようなアクティビティを行いたいと思いますか?)

I hated it	I did not like it	I liked it	I loved it!
大嫌い ①	嫌い ②	好き ③	大好き ④

他に意見はありますか?アクティビティをより良いものにするため、みなさんの意見を提案してください。前向きで、役立つ意見をお願いします。日本語で記入して構いません。

Teach Me to Teach English in English: Navigating "Top-Down" Implementation of Target Language as the Medium of Instruction for Korean-Speaking Teachers of English Language

Mercurius Goldstein
Australian Postgraduate English Language Services / The University of Sydney, Sydney, Australia

From March 2010, the South Korean Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST, 2009) began implementing a Teaching English Through English (TETE) policy to institute English as the medium of instruction in English language classes throughout general public high schools. A notable feature of the TETE teacher education program is a 4-8 week overseas intensive postgraduate TESOL course hosted at universities in "core" English-speaking countries, including the USA, Canada, and Australia. The present study adopted a multiple-strategy qualitative approach to explore the perceived effects of one such postgraduate program (RIAP, 2010, 2011) on the capacity and willingness of a cohort of Korean-speaking teachers to meet TETE policy requirements. Recommendations are made to develop teacher education courses that will equip these teachers with a higher degree of professional agency with which to navigate the challenges of TETE policy.

I. Introduction

Trends first identified during the 1990s indicate both the absolute number and the proportion of the international TESOL teaching corps whose first language is not English outnumbers and will continue to further eclipse native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) as English consolidates and maintains its status as a global lingua franca this century (Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 2006). Consequently, there is an urgent need to further develop our understanding of TESOL teacher education methods that can assist non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) of English to overcome the challenges they face when attempting to teach in a medium other than their first language (Braine, 2006; Kamhi-Stein, 2009; K. K. Samimy & Kurihara, 2006).

This study has the potential to elucidate not only some instrumental training components that prove successful in an NNEST TESOL teacher education context, but also the role and significance of teachers' professional self-concepts both as individuals and as members of a professional learning community who are navigating a "top-down" educational policy environment. This study also acknowledges that the widespread advocacy for, and adoption of, English-only policies for TESOL in EFL contexts has been challenged in the literature, and has been implicated in critiques that portray such policies as a form of latter-day linguistic colonialism, which contest the status of native-speaker English as the ideal form, and which seek to affirm the validity and vitality of multiple Englishes, in which non-native speakers hold an integral and equal stake with native speakers (Canagarajah, 1999; Graddol, 2006; Kang, 2008; Kim, 2008; Littlewood & Yu, 2009; Liu, 2007; McKay, 2009; Pennycook, 1994; Phillipson, 1992).

A. Research Questions

This study poses the following research questions:

Question 1: What are the effects of an overseas English-immersion program (e.g., RIAP, 2010, 2011) upon experienced Korean-speaking teachers' perceptions of the practicality of the TETE method in their classroom?

Question 2: What are the vectors of challenge and resistance to the TETE policy that arise within the micropolitical context in which these teachers work?

Question 3: Does there exist an acknowledged community of practice (CoP) in the teachers' immediate working context, and if so, how do the teachers engage in this CoP in an effort to overcome obstacles to implementation of the TETE policy that they are charged to deliver?

B. Prior Research Specific to the Current Context

The issues explored in the present study are presently receiving attention in the literature, perhaps due to intersecting priorities of national language planners and education authorities in urgent need of teacher supply for EFL and by internationalized universities seeking to emulate and improve upon world's-best practice in language teacher education.

A recent doctoral dissertation published at Ohio State University by Jeong-Ah Lee (2009) explored many of the issues encompassed by the present study, albeit from the perspective of South Korean elementary school teachers. While Lee's dissertation contributed to our understanding of Korean NNESTs' sense of professional efficacy from the monadic psychological perspective of their individual agency, the present study seeks to build upon this understanding by considering the social and structural aspects of the political and industrial framework in which these teachers work, and the micropolitical behaviors that arise. These are in addition to the obvious point of difference that the present study is concerned with middle and high school teachers.

An early study into Korean teachers' attitudes towards their status as NNESTs revealed hopeful signs that the "native speaker fallacy" was not overly corrosive to their self-perceptions as professionals, and their orientation was more towards expertise as EFL teachers rather than the inactiveness of their speech (Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999). However, more recent studies (e.g., Borg, 2006, p. 29) suggest that the "native-speaker fallacy," long since discussed, critiqued, and largely dispelled amongst academics in the field of ELT, nevertheless remains widespread among EFL teachers and learners in many countries, including Korea:

> ". . . [a teacher] with an attitude close to the Native Speaker (NS) model may have a lower sense of efficacy in teaching English, due to his/her self-perception as an illegitimate and deficient nonnative English speaker, while one with an attitude close to the EIL or WE perspectives may feel a higher sense of efficacy, due to his/her self-perception as a legitimate EIL speaker." (J.-A. Lee, 2009, p. 8)

There yet exists an enduring notion among some practicing TESOL teachers that there is one, ideal, authoritative English against which other forms must be found deficient. Among many Japanese and Korean EFL teachers, the orientation is turning towards American English as the "standard" or even idealized [sic] form, over that of Australian, British, Canadian, or South African English, much less the Englishes to be found in India, Europe, and China (J.-A. Lee, 2009, pp. 42-44). Left unexamined, this factor alone has the potential to confound or overwhelm the positive effects or improvements that might otherwise be available to TESOL teachers through professional development courses such as RIAP (2010-11).

The most recent available research describes some NNESTs as being beset with feelings of "guilt" and professional inadequacy, which they ascribe to TETE policies they felt unable to properly fulfill due to self-perceived insufficient proficiency in English. This was despite their general support for, and agreement with, the principle of teaching through the medium of the target language (TL). In a paper carefully delineated to address situations such as in Hong Kong, China, and South Korea, where the TL is taught in a largely monolingual first language (L1) setting, and as a foreign language where students' exposure to the TL is almost entirely in the classroom setting, the L1 is most usually utilized in three domains: (a) for explaining unfamiliar grammatical forms or abstract vocabulary, (b) for classroom management, discipline, and routine administration purposes, and (c) for praise, encouragement, and developing rapport with students - despite the fact that all three of these domains are achievable using the TL (Littlewood & Yu, 2009).

Arguments in support of L1 use in the TESOL classroom include that the students' proficiency may be insufficient for meaningful TL interaction and that L1 use can provide a supportive affective environment for students who would otherwise feel disoriented and discouraged from further language study in a purely TL environment. One measurement from 2004 shows an average of 68% L1 use by Korean NNESTs in the classroom (Liu, Ahn, Baek, & Han, 2004).

C. Features of the Overseas TESOL Immersion Course

In order to evaluate how the present study engages with prior studies of ELT teacher education, it is essential to include an account of the instructional design and methods of the TESOL teacher education program from which the original participant sample was drawn (RIAP, 2010, 2011):

1. Do-Evaluate-Design

The course was based on a three-step approach promulgated by Cullen (1994), in which "teachers-in-preparation engage in language lessons as learners (input stage), then they analyze and evaluate the lessons as professionals (processing stage), and finally they develop their own lesson plans (output stage)" (Kamhi-Stein, 2009, p. 95).

2. Sociolinguistic Experiences

Adopting an approach espoused by Lavender (2002), "if the program is offered in English-speaking countries, [it] should integrate the teachers' experiences in the country into the program" by making available to teachers the opportunity to engage in authentic socio-cultural settings, but then also to reflect upon and draw on those experiences to inform their practice both during and after the course (Kamhi-Stein, 2009, p. 95).

3. Not "One Size Fits All"

Citing Borg (2006), a program should "work to address how the *local context* contributes to affecting the teachers' instructional practice," not to treat teachers as a "monolithic" group, and take into account the "beliefs and values that are unique to the setting in which [teachers] operate" (Kamhi-Stein, 2009, p. 97).

4. Teaching Grammar and Vocabulary in Context

Based on the principles and instrumental features of Content-Based Language Teaching, which is "the concurrent study of language and subject matter, with the form and sequence of language presentation dictated by, or at least influenced by, content material" (Snow, 1999, p. 462, as cited in Archibald, et al. 2006, p. 29), the course enabled teachers to design classroom tasks that presented new grammar and vocabulary as embedded within instructional tasks, requiring students to collaborate on solving a problem using target language (Snow, 2001; Swain, 2001). This represented a considerable divergence from teachers' existing practice, which approached language elements as isolated units of meaning, divorced from a specific subject or instrumental context.

5. Contesting the "native speaker fallacy" (Phillipson, 1992)

The program was designed implicitly to challenge the myth of the native speaker as the ideal speaker, so that the teachers could attain a sense of ownership of the language — a sense that they are *proprietors* of English, rather than approximators of some Platonic native-speaker "Ideal English." The aim was to provide a context for teachers to develop a more "positive professional identify" and "a sense of professional legitimacy and self-confidence," with a reduced anxiety of performance and a reduced need for reliance on linguistic coping strategies (Kamhi-Stein, 2009, pp. 96-97).

II. METHODOLOGY

A qualitative approach triangulating an open-ended questionnaire (online), with classroom observations and semi-structured interviews at multiple sites was selected as being the most likely to result in credible, dependable, and confirmable results within the limitations of time and resources available for the study (Harbon & Shen, 2010; Heigham & Croker, 2009; Holliday, 2010; Mackey & Gass, 2005).

The semi-structured nature of the interviews provided the researcher with an opportunity to introduce a minor modification to the traditional serial interview format that simulated aspects of a focus group style of discussion, to better elucidate issues pertaining to the research questions. Whereas in a conventional focus group, participants are gathered simultaneously to discuss issues, the conventional serial interview format does not by its nature enable synchronous discussion or exploration of issues between participants. The researcher developed the term “mediated dialogue” to describe this modification: A “mediated dialogue” is one in which the researcher acts in the role of an intermediary in an asynchronous discussion between serial interview participants, to better ascertain whether a particular sentiment expressed by a single participant might be held in common with other participants.

III. Results

Data were obtained from 13 individuals at 8 South Korean schools over a three-week period during December 2011, in the metropolitan regions of Seoul (3), Gyeonggi-do (4), and Daejeon (1). While these results cannot be considered comprehensive or generalizable to the teaching population in South Korea, they can be accepted as a rich experiential account of the daily practice and challenges faced by these 13 teachers in their delivery of TETE policy requirements.

Responses to research question 1 indicate that participants perceived that the desirability and practicality of the TETE method in their respective classrooms tended to be overshadowed by the demands of university entrance exams.

Responses to research question 2 indicate that these teachers are navigating a diverse range of competing micropolitical priorities in the delivery of the TETE method. These priorities include the demands of parents and students, the administrative workload, the presence of native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) in their schools for “conversation” classes, and some contemporary social concerns about linguistic imperialism and competition for university places.

Responses to research question 3 indicate that the presence of a “community of practice” (Wenger, 1998) in these teachers’ working lives is sporadic, with most collegiate consultation revolving around strictly procedural and administrative concerns rather than pedagogy and professional development. A unified strategic view of the purpose of TETE policy was not in evidence.

IV. Discussion

Following the method of hermeneutic phenomenology suggested by Van Manen (1997), the data were read with a view to identify themes pertinent to each of the three research questions.

A. Question 1: Effects of Overseas English-Language Short Program for TESOL Teachers

The thematic response to this question is that these thirteen high school teachers of English in Korea felt engaged to "teach to the test" first, and for language acquisition second. The university entrance exam is the overriding preoccupation of every aspect of their classroom practice, program design, lesson planning, assessment, and reporting. In all interviews, the test was the dominant theme to which discussion returned time and again.

B. Question 2: Vectors of Challenge and Resistance to the TETE Policy

The thematic response to this question is that a pervasive sense of strategic *anomie* suffuses the working life of these teachers — they know "what" and "how," but not "why." These thirteen teachers were being asked to reconcile mutually incompatible policy objectives, without any clear sense of why those objectives have taken their present form. Without this crucial piece of professional empowerment, many showed a tendency to opt for the path that leads to, as Alderson suggested, the quieter life that lets them be with their family (2009, p. 11). As predicted by Alderson, frustration and professional self-doubt are the unwelcome by-products of this strategic vacuum. Applying the aphorism that "absence of evidence is not evidence of absence," it could indeed be the case that these teachers do have an awareness of reasons for the present policy impasse, but in any case, they did not express this awareness in their interviews.

C. Question 3: Community of Practice for TETE in the Middle and High School Context

Participants in this study were generally working in a state of self-imposed professional isolation, with few regular professional contacts outside their immediate staffroom colleagues. Intra-staff arrangements appeared traditionally hierarchical, with an overlay of Confucian filial piety, where seniors have an obligation to protect and direct juniors, and juniors owe obedience and deference towards seniors. Where teamwork was in evidence, it was directed towards the instrumental goals of curriculum delivery, to promote fairness in division of labor, and allocation of classes to the perceived best-fit teachers, rather than as a means to mutual support, collaboration, and professional development. The few teachers who stated an awareness of the larger professional community "out there" also reported that they were not in the habit of regular consultation or participation, citing lack of time or a stated preference to engender self-sufficiency within their own staffroom.

The thematic response was that these teachers felt they were "on their own" in a struggle to bridge the gap between their Korean-speaking classroom and the English-speaking world. These teachers strive to provide context, relevance, and meaning to their students for the day-to-day purposes of using English in the "real world," yet their relative professional isolation — their practical habit of avoiding "real world" professional engagement outside the classroom — militates against this goal.

V. Suggestions for Future Research

Future research in this area would best be calibrated for application at both policy and school levels. The current mismatch between TETE policy requirements and those of the university entrance exams can be rectified through bringing classroom goals (the TETE method) and testing goals (university entrance) back into alignment. It would be useful to ascertain how widespread is the self-reported professional isolation of TESOL teachers within the Korean teaching community in general — whether it is particular to English language teachers, whether other subject areas enjoy greater levels of collaboration and collegiality, and what might be done to add a more collegial dimension to the work of English language teachers in Korea.

A line of future enquiry is suggested by the view of one participant: that Korean schools should move towards self-sufficiency in English language teaching through the establishment of an “English village”-style campus-within-a-campus on their premises.

VI. Final Reflections

This study affirms a non-hierarchical approach to language teaching and learning, in which there is no derogation or abrogation of non-native speakers relative to native speakers. All are acknowledged as valid proprietors and practitioners of the language. This approach challenges the current globalized framework for ELT, in which native speakers have long enjoyed a place at the top of a neo-feudal “natural order” that has perpetuated a structural transfer of wealth from English-seeking countries to English-speaking countries, directing a considerable tranche of education budgets towards overseas-based training and local employment of foreign teachers. For this reason, an immediate applied circumstance that recommends itself from this study is to develop teacher education courses that can assist Korean teachers to achieve a kind of linguistic autarchy using the TETE method, to be implemented and managed by those self-same teachers within their own schools.

Such an initiative could serve to affirm Korean TESOL teachers as professional agents — expert practitioners with valid views and experiences of their field and the ability to determine the most suitable methods for their own students’ needs. This would be in contrast to the status quo which constructs Korean teachers of English language as non-agentic, “deficient” non-native speakers who must react to top-down policy prescriptions without a clear sense of the strategic purpose for the policies they are charged to deliver.

The Author

Mercurius Goldstein, M. Ed. (Research), B. Ed. (Hons. I), is Principal Consultant for Australian Postgraduate English Language Services (APELS). He is accredited at the level of Professional Accomplishment by the NSW Institute of Teachers and received the Outstanding Graduate Award from the Australian College of Educators. His teaching experience includes public and private, urban and rural, child and adult learner settings;

and as an instructor for overseas teachers in TESOL method at the International Leaders Program at The University of Sydney. This study was developed as a thesis for the degree of Master of Education (Research) at The University of Sydney. Email: mercurius.goldstein@apels.net.au

REFERENCES

Alderson, J. C. (2009). Setting the scene. In J. C. Alderson (Ed.), *The politics of language education: Individuals and institution* (pp. 8-44). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Archibald, J., Roy, S., Harmel, S., Jesney, K., Dewey, E., Moisik, S., Lessard, P. (2006). *A review of the literature on second language learning* (2nd ed.). Edmonton, Canada: The University of Calgary.

Borg, S. (2006). The distinctive characteristics of foreign language teachers. *Language Teaching Research, 10*(1), 3-31.

Braine, G. (2006). A history of research on non-native speaker English teachers. In E. Llurda (Ed.), *Non-native language teachers: Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession* (pp. 13-23). New York, NY: Springer Science+ Business Media.

Canagarajah, A. S. (1999). *Resisting linguistic imperialism in English teaching*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Cullen, R. (1994). Incorporating a language improvement component in teacher training programmes. *ELT Journal, 48*(2), 162-172.

Graddol, D. (2006). *English next: Why global English may mean the end of 'English as a Foreign Language'*. London, UK: British Council.

Harbon, L., & Shen, H. (2010). Researching language classrooms. In B. Paltridge & A. Phakiti (Eds.), *Continuum companion to research methods in applied linguistics: Vol. 1* (pp. 274-285). London, UK: Continuum International.

Heigham, J., & Croker, R. A. (Eds.). (2009). *Qualitative research in applied linguistics: A practical introduction*. Basingstoke, Hampshire, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Holliday, A. (2010). Analysing qualitative data. In B. Paltridge & A. Phakiti (Eds.), *Continuum companian to research methods in applied linguistics: Vol. 1* (pp. 98-110). London, UK: Continuum International.

Kamhi-Stein, L. D. (2009). Teacher preparation and nonnative English-speaking educators. In A. Burnes & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 91-101). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Kang, D.-M. (2008). The classroom language use of a Korean elementary school EFL teacher: Another look at TETE. *System, 36*(2), 214-226. doi:10.1016/j.system.2007.10.005

Kim, S.-Y. (2008). Five years of teaching English through English: Responses from teachers and prospects for learners. *English Teaching, 63*(1), 51-70.

Lavender, S. (2002). Towards a framework for language improvement within short in-service teacher development programmes. In H. Trappes-Lomaz & G. Ferguson (Eds.), *Language in language teacher education* (pp. 237-250). Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamin.

Lee, J.-A. (2009). *Teachers' sense of efficacy in teaching English, perceived English language proficiency, and attitudes toward the English language: A case of Korean public elementary school teachers* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Ohio State University, Columbus, OH. Retrieved from http://gradworks.umi.com/33/46/3346604.html

Littlewood, W., & Yu, B. (2009). First language and target language in the foreign language classroom. *Language Teaching, 42,* 1-14. doi:10.1017/S0261444809990310

Liu, D., Ahn, G.-S., Baek, K.-S., & Han, N.-O. (2004). South Korean high school English teachers' code switching: Questions and challenges in the drive for maximal use of English in teaching. *TESOL Quarterly, 38*(4), 605-638.

Liu, J. (2007). Empowering non-native English speaking teachers through collaboration with their native English-speaking colleagues in EFL settings. In J. Liu (Ed.), *English language teaching in China: New approaches, perspectives and standards* (pp. 107-123). London, UK: Continuum International.

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design* (1st ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

McKay, S. L. (2009). A critical examination of the Teaching English Through English movement in South Korea. *Teacher Talk, 37,* 1-5. Retrieved from http://www.cape.edu/docs/TTalk0037.pdf

MEST. (2009). *Major policies and plans for 2010.* Seoul, Korea: Korean Ministry of Education Science and Technology.

Pennycook, A. (1994). *The cultural politics of English as an international language.* London, UK: Longman.

Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism.* Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

RIAP. (2010, 2011). *Intensive TESOL training for Korean secondary school English teachers, Course reader.* Sydney, Australia: Research Institute for Asia and the Pacific, The University of Sydney.

Samimy, K., & Brutt-Griffler, J. (1999). To be a native or non-native speaker: Perceptions of "non-native" students in a graduate TESOL program. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Non-native educators in English language teaching* (pp. 127-144). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Samimy, K. K., & Kurihara, Y. (2006). Nonnative speaker teachers. In K. Brown (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of language and linguistics* (2nd ed., pp. 679-686). Oxford, UK: Elsevier.

Snow, M. A. (2001). Content-based and immersion models for second and foreign language teaching. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 303-318). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Swain, M. (2001). Integrating language and content teaching through collaborative tasks. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 58*(1), 44-63.

Van Manen, M. (1997). *Researching lived experience: Human science for an action sensitive pedagogy* (2nd ed.). Ontario, Canada: Althouse Press, University of Western Ontario.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity.* Cambridge, U.K: Cambridge University Press.

Agency and Belonging as Determiners of Group Success: Case Studies from Two Asian Contexts

Terry Nelson
University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada

Tim Murphey
Kanda University of International Studies, Chiba, Japan

It will be argued in this paperthat agency and belongingness are fundamentally important for positive group dynamics and ultimate group success. Data from two case studies will be presented to support this argument, and an analysis of the data will reveal the ways in which agency and belongingness co-construct each other and play equally important roles in the group learning experience. The first study was conducted in Korea over several years with pre- and in-service teachers in training who worked intensively with out-of-class group projects. The second investigates a class of first-year university students in Japan, and the in- and out-of-class project work they engaged in over a one-year period. What will become evident from reference to these studies is that extensive collaboration in the project completion process served to foster a sense of agency and belongingness which, in turn, helped participants to realize benefits both wider in range and deeper in intensity than those experienced in individual work.

I. Introduction

In this paper, we argue that agency and belongingness are important determiners of group success. We look at data from two case studies to support this argument, and find, through our analysis, that agency and belongingness co-construct each other and play equally important roles in the group learning experience. The first study was conducted in Korea over several years with pre- and in-service teachers in training who worked intensively with out-of-class group projects (Nelson, 2009). The second is Murphey's one-year case study of a first-year university class in Japan and the in- and out-of-class project work which fostered their agency and sense of belonging.

II. Agency and Belonging

Agency has been defined in various ways. The British sociologist, Anthony Giddens (1976), famously described it as the capacity to "act otherwise," or to make contingent decisions. Candlin and Sarangi (2004, p. xiii) conceptualized it as "the self-conscious reflexive actions of human beings," suggesting, like Giddens

(1976), that one exercises agency by taking conscious and purposeful action. Lantolf and his colleagues (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 2001; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006) agreed that agency involves "voluntary control over behavior" (p. 142), and added that this voluntary control includes "the ability to assign relevance and significance to things and events" (p. 143). They also, importantly, located agency within a sociocultural context, noting that it is always realized in contexts with others and therefore must be seen as "socioculturally mediated and dialectically enacted" (p. 238). That is to say, it is, at once, "unique to individuals and co-constructed" (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 2001, p. 148), but it is "never a 'property' of a particular individual; rather, it is a relationship that is constantly co-constructed and renegotiated with those around the individual and with the society at large" (p. 148).

The idea that agency is a constantly co-constructed and renegotiated relationship suggests that group learning provides a context par excellence for its realization, a context that affords a sense of valued participation for its members, i.e., a sense of belonging. Co-construction and negotiation are central to the whole-group learning process and key to its most important practices and outcomes, including the generation of knowledge (Salomon & Perkins, 1998), the development of ideas (Johnson & Johnson, 1994, 1998), and the arrival at an understanding of others' viewpoints and intended meaning (Johnson & Johnson, 1992, 1998).

III. Agency and Belonging in the Group Learning Literatures

Group learning is underpinned by several strands of research, all premised on the belief that learning in groups offers a richer variety of benefits than learning by oneself. The most extensive are the cooperative and collaborative learning literatures, both of which investigate group learning as it transpires inside the classroom, and are, in this way, distinguished from the studies presented here, which investigate group learning as it takes place mostly (Nelson) or partially (Murphey) outside the classroom. Other group learning literatures, including the group project work and peer-learning literatures, do investigate group learning that takes place outside the classroom, but are more limited in scope, and as a result, investigate fewer issues, often leaving out issues related to agency and a sense of belonging.

The most extensive group-learning literature, the cooperative-learning literature, by itself includes a variety of perspectives on learning in groups. Important among these is the social-interdependence perspective of Johnson and Johnson, who hold positive interdependence, or the perception that "one is linked with others in a way that one cannot succeed unless they do" (Johnson & Johnson, 1998, p. 17), as the heart of cooperative learning. They also identify four other essential elements for effective learning in groups: promotive interaction, individual accountability, interpersonal and small-group skills, and group processing. A number of these elements suggest the need for educators to structure group learning in order to maximize its benefits, and interpersonal and small-group skills, which Johnson and Johnson (1998, p. 22) describe as "the key to group productivity" and "high quality collaboration," must, from their perspective, be taught to adults as well as children.

Collaborative learning, for its part, had its genesis in adult and adolescent education (Boud, 2001) and is sometimes argued to be more appropriate for adult learners than cooperative learning. Bruffee (1995) is one researcher who vigorously asserts this latter point, arguing that the teacher-imposed structuring of cooperative learning, including the structuring needed to achieve the outcomes identified by Johnson and Johnson, makes it the kind of training in basic or foundational knowledge that is appropriate for younger learners. In collaborative learning, on the other hand, the emphasis on "help[ing] students renegotiate their membership in the encompassing common culture that until then has circumscribed their lives" makes it appropriate for adult learners (Bruffee, 1995, p. 2). Panitz (1996) essentially concurs, suggesting that collaborative learning is a philosophy of learning, one which recognizes a need to give students power over their own learning, perhaps in the tacit understanding that this will positively affect many aspects of their lives (cf. "Real Voice" below). And while he acknowledges that collaborative learning may include the same specific learning goals and outcomes as cooperative learning, as observed by McWhaw, Schnackenberg, Sclater, and Abrami (2003), he also argues that, in its underlying philosophy, it transcends immediate goals and outcomes. Boud (2001) suggests something different with his assertion that learning, and not education, is the key concept of collaborative learning, that "critical thinking, problem solving, sensemaking and personal transformation, the social construction of knowledge — exploration, discussion, debate, criticism of ideas are the stuff of collaborative learning" (p. 7). But in Boud's conception of collaborative learning, as in Bruffee's (1995) and Panitz's (1996), the learner is clearly positioned and invited to control the learning process. This active positioning of individuals as the source of control is what Murphey (2010a) means by the term *agencing*.

The learner would seem to exercise less agency, or control fewer aspects of the learning process, in Johnson and Johnson's more structured approach to group learning. For Johnson and Johnson, however, guidance in such matters as small group skills helps learners to avoid the kinds of damaging behaviors that interfere with the learning process and potentially lead to group dysfunction. In this way, it can lead to greater control over the learning process and ultimately enhance agency. Their perspective might be viewed as consistent with that of Thaler and Sunstein (2009), who propose that, faced with a daunting number of choices and decisions, and insufficient information to make the right ones, people need to be nudged in the right direction. They can be so nudged, according to the authors, in ways "that maintain or increase freedom of choice" (p. 71) and thus in ways that ensure that they retain control over their decisions. Similarly, providing learners guidance with regard to small-group skills might be seen as helping them choose appropriate behaviors for success in groups and, in this way, as enhancing their agency over the learning process and increasing the chances of belonging and wanting to belong.

IV. Agency and Belonging in Case Studies in Two Asian Contexts

We offer two case studies to support our arguments concerning the roles of agency and belongingness in the group learning experience. The first (section A, below) was conducted in Korea over several years with pre- and in-service teachers-in-training who worked intensively with out-of-class group projects (Nelson, 2009). The second (section B, below) is Murphey's one-year case study of a first-year university class in Japan and the in- and out-of-class project work they completed over a one-year period. We believe that the complementary findings of the two studies help to validate the conclusions we draw in this article.

A. Case Study 1: Group Project Work in a Teacher Education Program in Korea

1. Introduction

Teachers' perspectives on agency and belonging are reflected in a study relating to a 22-week post-baccalaureate TESOL teacher education program in Seoul, Korea. The program was designed to introduce pre- and in-service Korean teachers of English to the basic theoretical underpinnings of communicative language teaching while focusing more on practical considerations. It began operation in the year 2000, and is one of the more established and prominent TESOL programs in Korea.

Group learning, a feature of the TESOL program since its inception in 2000, had become a defining characteristic by its third year of operation. For those three years, however, and for the next two as well, the pedagogical value of learning in groups was, at best, under-appreciated. Faculty members, in their roles as course designers, sought to fully engage program participants in the learning process by maximizing the number of projects and presentations to be completed each session. Getting participants to complete the projects in groups provided a means to an end, in that it allowed course designers to introduce a greater variety of projects without overburdening busy teachers with project assessment. Only by the year 2005 was the value of group learning fully appreciated, and this because participants, for the previous three or four sessions, had been making the value clear in newly introduced final reflections on their learning in the program. Intrigued by the number and types of comments relating to group project work, Nelson, in his role as Methodology instructor, calculated in the second session after final reflections were introduced that 80 percent of the participants in his class had devoted at least one-third of their reflections to their group learning experience, describing the many and varied benefits they derived from it, and also, sometimes, the approach they used to overcome problems encountered along the way. Approximately half described the experience as the most meaningful learning experience of their lives. With this mounting evidence as to the value of group learning — evidence which, fittingly, came from the participants themselves — Nelson and other faculty members came to recognize that, more by accident than design, they had instituted a type of learning which distinguished the program from others in Korea and provided participants a truly memorable and meaningful learning experience.

As suggested above, the reflections of program participants on the value of group learning were the starting point for research (Nelson, 2009), specifically on group project work as experienced in the Materials component of the program, the course in which the project work demanded the most careful collaboration. The goal was to understand, from the emic or participant perspective, the benefits and problems of learning in groups, the factors contributing to each, and the ways in which the overall experience could be enhanced. The research presented here focuses on one aspect of this much larger study, namely, the role of agency and belongingness in the realization of benefits and the enhancement of the overall experience.

2. Study Details in Brief

Details concerning research methods, study participants, and the projects themselves can be found in Nelson (2009). A total of 189 program participants took part in the study over the course of two years, or four program sessions. Data collection included questionnaires, reflective journal entries, and individual and focus-group interviews. The projects under investigation were the three completed in the Materials component of the program. The first of these was a textbook evaluation involving the analysis and evaluation of a recently published four-skills textbook selected by the participants and analyzed according to criteria provided by the instructor. The second was a reading lesson, developed according to communicative language teaching (CLT) principles as discussed in Materials and Methodology lectures. The third was a three-skills unit of material that included the reading lesson — adapted according to feedback from the course instructor — and lessons related to two other skills of the students' choice, again prepared according to the principles of CLT discussed in Materials and Methodology lectures. All projects were completed in groups of three, and the final two, the lesson and the unit of materials, were completed with the same partners, as the latter was a continuation of the former.

3. Selected Findings

Study participants described experiencing 12 kinds of academic benefits and 22 kinds of social and psychological benefits in their group learning endeavors. They made 303 references to the former and 475 references to the latter, almost all of which made explicit that the benefits had been personally experienced. Table 1, below, outlines some of the more commonly experienced benefits and the number of references made to each.

As Table 1 reveals, "generating and exposure to a rich variety of ideas" was the most commonly referred-to academic benefit, with 109 references making clear that the benefit had been personally experienced. "The ability to go beyond personal capabilities" was the next most common, and was referred to 30 times. Commonly experienced social and psychological benefits included cooperation and communication-related skills (204 references), enhanced relationships (91 references), personal development (81 references), professional development (48 references), and enhanced motivation (33 references). While these numbers are, by themselves, indicative of the value of completing projects in groups, the comments related to each type of benefit are yet more revealing. Implicit in almost all are references to the ideas of cooperative and collaborative learning researchers, as well as references to agency and belonging. In describing the academic benefits she realized, for example, one participant wrote as follows:

1. "The biggest benefit of doing groupwork together is of course getting many ideas and better ideas that I couldn't imagine. And it makes my ideas more rich than the first time I suggested it by adding creative and brilliant idea which is from my group mates."

If this comment reveals the richness of the ideas generated in working together, it additionally reveals that participants helped to develop each other's ideas. The interaction and negotiation required to do so is suggestive of the kind of positive interdependence and promotive interaction which Johnson and Johnson (1992) identified as central to successful group learning. The coordination, encouragement, and facilitation needed to interact in this way are, in turn, strongly suggestive of a true sense of belonging to a learning community. A sense of agency is revealed in the comment as well, especially as agency is defined by Lantolf and his colleagues (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 2001; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). The ideas generated, for example, are unique to individual group members, but grow richer through co-construction.

TABLE 1. References to Academic, Social, and Psychological Benefits

Academic Benefits	**Number of respondents who experienced (Exp) or made reference (Ref) to each benefit**			
	Journal Participants 45 Total	Interview Participants 62 Total	Questionnaire Participants 82 Total	Total Participants 189
	Exp + Ref	Exp	Exp	Exp + Ref
• Generating and exposure to a rich variety of ideas	24 + 7	40	45	109 + 7
• Able to go beyond personal capabilities and learn from combining individual strengths	7 + 1	11	12	30 + 1
Social and Psychological Benefits	**Number of respondents who experienced (Exp) or made reference (Ref) to each benefit**			
	Journal Participants 45 Total	Interview Participants 62 Total	Questionnaire Participants 82 Total	Total Participants 189
• Cooperation and Communication	47 + 11	78	79	204 + 11
• Relationships	22 + 4	31	38	91 + 4
• Encouragement and Motivation	10 + 3	13	10	33 + 3
• Personal Development	19 + 0	33	29	81
• Professional Development	16 + 0	21	11	48

In a comment related to one of the social benefits she experienced, namely enhanced relationships, another study participant wrote:

2. In doing group work, human relations felt really important once again. In order to have good human relations, it needs to do a lot of conversation and understanding group members.

Underlying this comment is the idea of belongingness, for the understanding and type of conversation to which the participant refers requires respect and support. Interesting, too, is the wording “once again” in the first sentence, as though previous learning experiences had precluded any significant focus on human relations or belongingness.

Reflecting both agency and belongingness is the comment of a participant who attempts to relate her group learning experience to an aspect of Chinese culture:

3. The Chinese word, human being, is 人. That means two different people helping each to stand. I don’t have what others have. And I have what they don’t have . . . My group work experience was like this.”

Support, reflected in the concept of two people helping each other to stand, is an important aspect of belongingness. A sense of agency is again reflected in the suggestion that ideas of group members are both unique to individuals and co-constructed.

In yet another comment, a participant describes how her group learning experience enhanced her understanding of her chosen profession:

4. And I want to say one more benefit, too. I became awake to the gravity of my task as a teacher. I can start now to be a good teacher and a responsible teacher.

Underlying this comment, too, is a sense of agency, suggesting as it does an ability to act otherwise (as per Giddens’s, 1976, definition of agency) and the ability to assign relevance to things and events (as per Lantolf & Thorne’s, 2006, definition).

When groups proved dysfunctional, as they did on rare occasions, comments describing the situation suggested a lack of agency and belonging.

While only four in number, the comments above exemplify the types of benefits study participants experienced, and illuminate the ways in which group learning provided participants a strong sense belonging and gave them agency over their learning.

B. Case Study 2: Language Learning Histories and Video Creation as Pathways to Agencing and Belonging in Japan

1. [Student Action Log comment: December 2009] “I never thought that we would make a video on YouTube. It’s just GREAT! I was questioning how we learn English from middle school. I didn’t like the way we learn English at JHS and HS in Japan. So I could understand [how] people who don’t like English feel. Our project, it could be just small steps to change MEXT [the ministry of education]! But a lot of small steps come together to be big steps to make change in Japan. Just watching and doing nothing, it won’t change anything. If we want to change something, we have to make first small steps.”

Step One: Thirty first-year students in a university seminar of the English Department each wrote their own language learning history (LLH), choosing to answer some question-prompts or not, after reading a few LLHs from previous students (Murphey, 1999) as models. Their LLHs were redrafted several times with peer review and teacher input. These were printed and made into booklets to give to students on the last day of class that first semester in 2009 (Murphey, Falout, & Trovela (Eds.; 2010).

Step Two: In the fall of 2009, during the second semester, students were placed in groups of 3 or 4 to analyze the collection of LLHs over a period of three or four weeks and to write reports about their findings. In asking the students to analyze and reflect upon the LLHs, students were being invited to participate in research about themselves as their data were looped back to them for analysis. This is a form of critical participatory looping (CPL; Murphey & Falout, 2010). Students were also told that their reports would be sent to the Ministry of Education, which seemed to help many of them take the assignment more seriously and see that perhaps their work might have an impact further up the ladder. The collection was called “Real Voice,” one of the titles suggested by the students.

Step Three: A short video script summarizing the findings from the reports was created by the group, and we spent part of one class near the end of the semester filming students performing the script once or twice in groups of 5 or 6 students, with each student saying every 5th or 6th line, rotating themselves to be in front of the camera to speak. Several students commented on the script and improvements were incorporated. Finally, about 12 volunteers came for the official filming of the script during their free time and signed consent forms for it to be posted on YouTube. The video was posted on YouTube on January 20, 2010, and after three years has over half a million visits (Murphey, 2010b).

The interest from far and wide was evidence that the main message from students (that they wanted less testing and grammar, and more using and learning the language) struck home with many people, as the quotes from the YouTube comment function attest:

2. “I am going to show the video to my ELT methodology class next term.” (University of Seville, Spain)
3. “I loved the video and think it’s a very important contribution to all non-native countries where teachers sometimes focus more on the product and less on the process. Less testing/grammar and more practice of the language would really help...” (Mexico)
4. “Thanks for daring to be the change!!! This is the way to go — to spread your voices so that the world can hear your desires, possible and future selves.” (Brazil)

Moreover, many viewers were impressed that students would dare to make such a video in the first place:

5. “omg, thank you thank you thank you~ brave students. we teachers need to listen up, and do what we can, when we can! thinking about the coming school year’s lesson plans now~ what a great time to see this and remember to keep them in mind, at all times...”
6. “Coming from students themselves makes the call more compelling. Students--take this mission with you when you graduate; continue to push for these changes as teachers, parents, and members of society.”

Step Four: The booklets of the LLHs and the reports as well as the YouTube link were sent to three Japanese national newspapers and the Ministry of Education. One can't expect immediate effects of an initiative of this nature, but as the students say in the video, sound-biting Michael Jordan, "We can accept failure, but we cannot accept not trying."

The students taking more agentive control over their pasts through narrating their stories and analyzing data in the present to make suggestions for the future illustrate Weinstein's (2006) conception of "learners' lives as curriculum," echoing Freire's (1970) and Dewey's (1963) participatory and experiential learning and community involvement. This individual agencing through their narrations became a communal belonging upon reading each others' LLHs and realizing the similarities. Daring to ask for change in their educational system further created solidarity among the students as they dared to hope, and acted on their hopes for the future. (This taking of agency in the past, present, and future is discussed more fully in Murphey and Falout, in press.)

We should also take note of the agency gained through being videoed and seeing one's self speak even a few words to others in English. Seeing yourself speaking a foreign language on video can create a push towards agency that goes far beyond your everyday interactions that are almost never captured and played back to you. In your mind, you can deny that they even exist and go for years insisting that "No, I do not really speak the language." Seeing oneself on video is undeniable proof that can greatly boost students' agency thinking (their confidence) as they begin to identify themselves as speakers of the language. Mistakes are also, of course, noticed and most often attended to promptly, improving performance (Murphey, 2001).

Students later e-mailed comments about the impact making the video had on them. Note in the comments below that while these students are proud to have done the video, they still tie it to change aimed at the younger generations of students with whom they seem to have created an imagined community. Note also their realization that the class allowed them the group agency to accomplish what they did:

7. "I was very surprised at a lot of messages over the world. I was happy that most of them knew our REAL VOICE and agreed with us. And I hope this video will be a good opportunity to rethink about the system or guideline of English teaching. I want JHS/HS students to watch it and hope they feel something about their study." (H)
8. "Watching Real Voice video, I'm very glad and honored to have joined this project. If I were not a student in this class, I couldn't have done such wonderful and useful activity for students who will study English in the future." (S)

V. Conclusions

Drawing on our longitudinal experiences with our respective participants, we conclude that belonging and a sense of personal agency melded with interpersonal responsibility are drivers of intensive participation and motivated action both in the immediate learning context and beyond. With the teachers-in-training in

Korea, we see this in the way they generated ideas together and developed them through a process of interaction and negotiation, growing ever closer to each other and more confident in their own abilities as they did so. We see it, too, in the way some became agents of change in their personal and/or professional lives.

The study in Japan adds important additional support to our argument that agency and belonging lead to enhanced participation and motivated action. Some students in the study seemed to begin with agentively telling their personal stories of language learning, and then realizing that together as a group they could tell a more powerful story to their society, and do so in such a way that they were not acting just for themselves but for future generations. Through seeing similarities in their common stories, their belongingness to one another was created, and they were able to see how they belonged to future generations as well. From this belongingness came their activism to change education and to try to produce something better for the larger group to which they belonged.

The implications of our research seem clear. We propose that education afford more opportunities for students to experience more belonging and agency and, in this way, to invest more of themselves in learning. We suggest that asserting one's own individual agency within the context of a caring group adds the diversity necessary to co-construct knowledge, allow more intelligent activity, and foster commitment and collaboration. For teachers, we propose training students to do group work, and to negotiate meanings, and to accept outliers and appreciate diversity. We additionally propose scaffolding agency by beginning with individual student-centered assignments that can segue into group projects. A number of these proposals may prove logistically problematic to implement, but both our studies suggest that implementation will result in emerging and lifelong educational benefits.

THE AUTHORS

Terry Nelson (PhD, Macquarie University, Australia) teaches TESOL and EAP courses at the University of Alberta in Canada. He spent 19 years teaching, designing, and leading programs of instruction in Korea. Twelve of those years, he spent as a teacher educator in MATESOL and post-degree certificate programs (PDCP) at Sungkyunkwan University, where he also served as deputy director of the PDCP program prior to returning to Canada. He has taught a wide range of teacher education courses, specializing at the graduate level in materials development and assessment. His doctoral dissertation investigated the value of project work in materials development projects demanding extensive out-of-class collaboration.

Tim Murphey (PhD, Universite de Neuchatel, Switzerland) teaches at Kanda University of International Studies in Chiba, Japan. He has published and presented extensively in the TESOL field, and is a regular presenter at KOTESOL, where he has been a plenary speaker at both the national and international conferences. He has published extensively in the field and has recently written a novel about Japan's entrance exam system, *The Tale that Wags* (Perceptia, 2010). He has also just completed a collection of inspired and inspiring essays entitled *Teaching in Pursuit of Wow!* He finds inspiration in fields as diverse as juggling and neuroscience.

NOTE

This is a summary of our research. A more complete rendition of this research can be found in the following paper: Nelson, T., & Murphey, T. (2011). Agency and belonging in the collaborative village: Case studies from two Asian contexts. *Anglistik: International Journal of English, 22*(1), 81-100.

REFERENCES

Boud, D. (2001). Introduction. In D. Boud, R. Cohen, and J. Sampson (Eds.), *Peer learning in higher education* (pp. 67-81). London, UK: Kogan Page.

Bruffee, K. A. (1995). Sharing our toys: Cooperative learning versus collaborative learning. *Change,* 27(1), 12-19.

Candlin, C. N., & Sarangi, S. (2004). Preface. In A. Sealey & B. Carter (Eds.), *Applied Linguistics as Social Science* (pp. xiii-xv). London, UK: Continuum.

Dewey, John. (1963). *Experience and education*. New York, NY: Collier.

Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York, NY: Seabury.

Giddens, A. (1976). *New rules of sociological method: A positive critique of interpretative sociologies*. London, UK: Hutchinson.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1992). Positive interdependence: Key to effective cooperation. In R. Hertz-Lazarowitz and R. Miller (Eds.), *Interaction in Cooperative Groups: The theoretical anatomy of group learning* (pp. 174-199). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1994). *Learning together and alone* (4th ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1998). *Cooperative learning and social interdependence theory*. Retrieved from http://www.co-operation.org/pages/SIT.html

Lantolf, J. P., & Pavlenko. A. (2001). (S)econd (L)anguage (A)ctivity theory: Understanding second language learners as people. In M. P. Breen (Ed.), *Learner Contributions to language learning: New directions in research* (pp. 141-158). Essex, UK: Pearson Education.

Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. L. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

McWhaw, K., Schnackenberg, H., Sclater, J., & Abrami, P. C. (2003). From cooperation to collaboration: Helping students become collaborative learners. In R. M. Gillies & A. F. Ashman (Eds.), *Co-operative learning*. New York, NY: Routledge Falmer.

Murphey T. (1999). Publishing students' language learning histories: For them, their peers, and their teachers. *Between the Keys* [Newsletter of the Materials Writers SIG of JALT], *7*(2), 8-11, 14.

Murphey, T. (2001). Videoing conversations for self-evaluation in Japan. In J. Murphey & P. Byrd (Eds.), *Understanding the courses we teach: Local perspectives on English language teaching* (pp. 179-196). Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Murphey, T. (2010a). Agency and student voice [Video Presentation]. Available at the NFLRC, University of Hawaii website at: http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/get_publication.cfm?id=277&scriptname=searchsite_pub&keyword=Murphey & display_order=alphabetic

Murphey, T. (Producer). (2010b). *The real voice of students in Japan* [Video]. Retrieved from http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MwsZ0KiHhRg

Murphey, T., & Falout, J. (2010). Critical participatory looping: Dialogic member checking with whole classes. *TESOL Quarterly, 44*(4), 811-821.

Murphey, T., & Falout, J. (in press). Individual differences through time in the classroom. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of applied linguistics: Language learning and* *teaching*. Oxford, UK: Wiley-Blackwell. doi:10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0533

Murphey, T., Falout, J., & Trovela, M. (2010). *Real voices: Suggestions for changing English education for future generations from 1st-year university students*. Retrieved from the ELTNews.com website: http://www.eltnews.com/columns/mash/MasterEngRepFresh2010Complete.pdf

Nelson, T. (2009). Group work projects: Participant perspectives from a teacher education program in Seoul, Korea (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia.

Panitz, T. (1996). *A definition of collaborative versus cooperative learning*. Retrieved from http://www.city.londonmet.ac.uk/deliberations/collab.learning/panitz2.html

Salomon, G., & Perkins, D. N. (1998). Individual and social aspects of learning. *Review of Research in Education, 23,* 1-24.

Thaler, R. H., & Sunstein, C. R. (2009). *Nudge*. London, UK: Penguin Books.

Weinstein, G. (2006). Learners' lives as curriculum. In G. H. Beckett & P. C. Miller (Eds.), *Project-based second and foreign language education* (pp. 159-165). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.

Multiple Skills

A Holistic Approach to Storybook-Based Teaching for Beginning Learners

Eli Miller
Seoul National University of Education, Seoul, Korea

Storybooks are a popular source material for teaching English to young learners (YLs). However, they are often taught in a manner that fails to fully engage YLs. This paper seeks to unfold a step-by-step process by which EFL instructors may use storybooks to teach YLs in a way that fully involves the learners in the learning process and helps them develop not only language skills but cognitive abilities as well.

I. Storybooks: An Invaluable but Often Misused Tool in Teaching EFL

In recent years, one positive development in the field of EFL in Korea is the recognition of the importance of teaching young learners (YLs) in a way that is both more enjoyable and more naturalistic than traditional EFL education methods. To this end, many instructors have started using storybooks to teach YLs.

Children have a near-universal natural affinity for storybooks. Storytelling has been a fundamental means of education around the world for millennia, not just children; people of all ages enjoy a good story. Storybooks are particularly effective in teaching YLs because of the illustrations that provide vivid and lively visual support to the auditory input provided by the teacher. In addition, storybooks of varying complexity and length can be found to suit both the attention spans and proficiency levels of a wide variety of YLs.

However, simply putting a storybook in the hands of an EFL teacher and telling them to use it to teach is not sufficient to produce effective use of the material. EFL teachers often present storybooks in a way that is very teacher-centered and invokes little participation from the students. The teacher will very often read the storybook and have the students sit and listen; sometimes comprehension-checking questions are asked, but these are very often yes/no questions or questions that require little real interaction between the students and the teacher or story. Apart from these few questions, in fact, EFL teachers very often actually discourage students from speaking “out of turn” while the story is being read, thereby limiting the students’ participation to a mechanical read-and-repeat stage (where the teacher reads the story and the students repeat it), which does nothing to engage students cognitively. Worse yet, it gives students no chance to express themselves or interact with the text, communicative acts that are key to developing real language skills. This reduces the use of storybooks to a one-way, mechanical exercise that YLs do not find engaging, meaningful, or enjoyable, and ultimately deadens the appeal of both stories and reading to students.

II. A Solution: Storybook-Based Learning

In contrast to the aforementioned method, the use of storybooks in the classroom can be approached in a way that takes advantage of the natural presentation of language, well scaffolded input, and inherently interactive nature of storybooks. The balance of this paper will be spent outlining a method of storybook-based learning that fully engages YLs in a meaningful and enjoyable experience that helps them develop both the linguistic and cognitive skills that they will need for successful language use. This method allows for the production of controlled yet creative output by students, and teaches students to be active rather than passive participants in their own learning.

A. Starting Right: Selecting the Right Storybook

Before going further into this method, though, it is necessary to mention that selecting the right storybook for the teacher's purpose is a crucial first step in the process of effectively using storybooks to teach YLs. Here are some general principles to follow in choosing a storybook.

A good storybook has a story. This may sound obvious, but a lot of storybooks are written around teaching a grammar point, or are so focused on helping children read phonetically that the authors forgot to include a story along the way. Does the story have a beginning, middle, and end? Can the story be summarized in one or two sentences? Think about whether children would want to read this story if it were not presented as class material. If not, then they probably won't find it very engaging in the classroom either.

A good storybook is appropriate for the students' proficiency level. If the students can't understand about 70-80% of the story without the teacher's help, they probably won't be able to understand the story overall. Good illustrations can help make up for a challenging text by giving visual cues as to the text's meaning, but students will be able to more easily talk about the story if they can understand most of it from the first reading.

A good storybook is short enough to read in one sitting. In general, a good storybook should only take about five minutes maximum to read through with students. The story should be a platform for interactive discussion, so it needs to be short enough that the class doesn't just become a reading comprehension activity. A good storybook can be broken up over more than one class period, but only with older or more focused learners, or with a very small class where the teacher can develop good continuity from class to class.

A good storybook provides good visual support for the text. Does the storybook have vivid, clear pictures that help tell the story without being too busy or only tangentially related to the text? For EFL learners, the pictures should provide support for understanding the text, not just be well-drawn pictures that are beautiful to look at. The best storybooks for very young learners are those where the pictures almost tell the story themselves without any text at all.

B. Steps to a Holistic Reading Experience

Once an appropriate text has been selected, following the seven steps below will provide YLs with a holistic learning experience that will develop their linguistic and cognitive skills through a series of engaging activities revolving around the selected storybook.

Step 1: Pre-reading Discussion

Before even introducing the text, the teacher has a very brief discussion revolving around the primary subject matter of the text. It is helpful to provide visual support for the topic in the form of flashcards, pictures on a large screen, or a very brief video. For example, if the storybook revolves around a boy who suddenly realizes he needs to go to the bathroom during recess time, a teacher could show a picture of a playground and ask the students what they like to do at a playground.

Skills developed during this stage include the activating of previous knowledge about the topic and the associating of previous knowledge with current learning.

Step 2: Visual Preview

Instead of beginning by reading the book, the teacher goes through the book page by page and asks the students to describe what they see in each picture. In preparation for this step, the teacher should cover the text of the storybook on each page with small pieces of paper. Better yet, the teacher could scan the storybook then remove the text using image editing software and show a PowerPoint presentation of the book without the text. The teacher needs to emphasize to the students that the purpose of this stage is not to guess what the story is about or how it is progressing, but to simply describe what is happening in each of the pictures. During this step, the teacher should be sure to give each student a chance to speak, especially the students who are weaker in English, since they will find it more difficult to discuss the story later. This activity helps students notice the important elements of a picture so that they are able to effectively describe what they see. In addition, this step helps students realize how much knowledge they can gain about a situation just by stopping and observing what is going on, which will be helpful later when they struggle to understand parts of the text.

Skills developed during this stage include observation, speaking in short sentences, naming objects, and prediction.

Step 3: The Teacher Reads

This is the simplest step ― the teacher simply reads the entire book to the students once through without stopping. The students do not read along, but just listen and look at the pictures as the teacher reads. The teacher should not follow the words of the text with his or her finger in this stage, as the focus is on the students' following the story by auditory input alone, as YLs' listening skills are often not as strong as their reading skills. This is also the natural way that people communicate stories in a conversational context, so it is good for them to get used to following a spoken, as opposed to a written, story.

Skills developed during this stage include listening comprehension and whole language exposure.

Step 4: The Students Read

The teacher has the students read through the story, with a different student reading one to three sentences at a time (depending on the students' proficiency levels and the complexity of the story). This is a good point at which to emphasize correct pronunciation, particularly at the sentence level where students often have a hard time with the overall intonation, stress, and flow of full sentences.

At least once per page, the teacher stops and asks some questions to gauge student comprehension and to confirm that students are accurately following the story. The teacher clarifies the meaning of challenging words that are central to understanding the story; the teacher does not explain every word of the story that the students may not know, as this will make the reading an arduous and monotonous task. Instead of simply telling students what certain words, phrases, or sentences mean, the teacher first asks the students if any of them know what the word/phrase/sentence means. If nobody knows, the teacher refers the students to the picture on the same page and/or surrounding text to see if either can help them guess the meaning of the word/phrase/sentence in question.

Skills developed during this stage include pronunciation, word and sentence stress, comprehension checking, and problem solving and critical thinking (by having students figure out the meaning of words and phrases they don't know).

Step 5: Read Together

The teacher and students read the entire story together. The teacher reads one sentence (or a few together if the sentences are relatively short) and has the students repeat. This read-and-repeat is not meant to build comprehension (that is done in the previous step); rather, it will help the students develop their general verbalization abilities. The teacher spot-checks individuals' ability to appropriately produce the text as needed. Whereas the previous step takes a long time and breaks up the story into small parts, this step helps students to review the entire story as they say the text aloud and reconstruct it into a whole story.

Skills developed during this stage include pronunciation, overall intonation, stress, and flow (fluency).

Step 6: The Students Tell the Story

This is the goal of the entire process, that the students themselves would know and be able to retell the story. The teacher covers the text as in the first step and goes through the story showing one or two pages at a time, having one student tell what is happening in the story. When telling the story orally, the teacher notes that some pages may or may not contribute much to the telling of the story, so one page might generate a good amount of narration, whereas other pages may not generate any narration at all. The teacher aids the students in analyzing the book and determining what information is important to the retelling of the story and what can be left out. The purpose is not to have the students reproduce the story word-for-word; in fact, it is much better if they use their own words to tell the story.

Skills developed during this stage include producing short sentences and storytelling.

Step 7: The Students Tell the Story Again

Reviewing is a very important step in the learning process. It reinforces long-term memory and skills retention. In this final step, the teacher waits until the next time the class meets to have the students tell the story again, just as in Step 6 above. Again, the teacher emphasizes telling the story over remembering every detail of the text. Because students love to read and reread, and tell and retell stories that they have previously learned, this final step can be repeated multiple times, days or even weeks after the storybook is initially taught.

Skills developed during this stage include producing short sentences and storytelling.

V. CONCLUSION

As is illustrated in the steps above, this method of storybook-based learning has several advantages for YLs. It is highly interactive, with both the students and the teacher actively participating in the storybook reading and storytelling process. It helps the students develop the mechanical abilities of speech, including pronunciation, intonation, and word and sentence stress, in a context that is not repetitive or monotonous. This method also allows students the chance to produce novel utterances in a controlled context, the telling of a story, which provides a balance between the control and freedom students need to practice speaking. Perhaps most importantly, this is all done within one of the most fundamental of human communicative contexts, the telling of stories, making it a process that YLs truly enjoy and will member, further reinforcing their learning and language acquisition.

THE AUTHOR

Eli Miller is a career EFL educator and TESOL teacher trainer. Eli has over eight years' experience teaching EFL in the United States, Korea, and China, with a focus on teaching young learners and standardized testing. Eli holds a B.A. in Linguistics from the University of Washington and an M.A. in Applied Linguistics from the University of Massachusetts Boston. He is currently on staff at the TESOL Institute at Seoul National University of Education, where he trains aspiring and in-service English teachers in EFL instruction. Email: elimiller@hotmail.com

Reading / Literacy

Japanese Students' Perceptions of the Most Motivating Classroom Activities

Mutahar Al-Murtadha
Kanazawa Institute of Technology, Ishikawa, Japan

This study investigated Japanese university students' perceptions of the most motivating classroom activities and teaching practices. First, students were introduced to various classroom activities, techniques, and learning strategies over the course of one semester. At the end of the semester, a survey was administered to the students to investigate their perceptions of the most motivating activities and teaching practices. Students were asked to state the activities that motivated them most to learn in a required English course. It was hypothesized that communicative activities would motivate students more than traditional activities. The results of the study did not confirm this hypothesis. However, these results do not seem to be significant since there are only slight differences between the ratings.

I. Introduction

Research on second language learners' motivation and motivational classroom activities has indicated that EFL learners' motivation is affected by many external factors such as teachers, peers, friends, and parents (Brophy, 2010; Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010; Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Nakata, 2006; Dornyei, 1994). Both students' motivation and language proficiency are greatly affected by students' classroom experiences (Nikolov, 1999). Teachers' classroom practices and strategies play the most effective role in motivating EFL learners. Recently Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008) investigated the effects of 27 teachers' practices and strategies on 1,381 South Korean students in 40 classrooms and found that there was a significant correlation between motivational teaching practices and students' high motivation to learn English. A study conducted by Trang and Baldauf (2007) on the demotivation of Vietnamese students indicated that teaching practices were the main source of students' lack of motivation. Dornyei (1998) conducted a study on 50 learners learning English or German as foreign languages and found that the teaching-related inappropriate practices and strategies were the most demotivating factors. Gorham and Christopher (1992) conducted a large-scale quantitative study to investigate motivators and demotivators of students at West Virginia University in the USA and concluded that teachers' negative classroom practices and behaviors are the primary cause of students' demotivation. Similarly, aqualitative study conducted by Gan et al. (2004) on Chinese college students' motivation revealed that classroom practices perceived as boring were the main cause of students' demotivation. These results were based on what students thought when they were asked about their successful or unsuccessful foreign language learning experiences.

Such previous studies show the need for understanding students' perceptions about the most motivating and effective classroom activities when learning a foreign language in different settings. Understanding such perceptions will help English language teachers make their classes more interesting and more motivating.

Since the researcher did not know whether his students liked his teaching methods and practices or not, he decided to examine his situation and conduct this study. Students showed little to no interest in learning English, so the researcher thought of using various activities in order for his students to benefit from his classes, to get them to pay attention, and to get them to participate in communicative activities. Therefore, the present study aimed at investigating the most motivating activities based on what non-English major university students at Kanazawa Institute of Technology in Japan think. Specifically, this study will answer the following research question: *Which classroom activities do engineering students at Kanazawa Institute of Technology consider to be the most motivating?*

II. Method and Instrument

To answer the research question posed above, two procedures were used in this study. First, eight activities, namely PowerPoint presentations, content-based conversations, vocabulary and comprehension worksheets, textbook exercises, listening exercises, group work, pair work, and portfolios were used over a course of one semester at Kanazawa Institute of Technology in Japan (KIT).

Second, a survey was administered at the end of the semester to investigate these students' perceptions of the most motivating activities. The survey was administered after students finished the course and knew their final grades, so students knew that their answers to the survey would in no way affect their final grades. This was done to ensure more reliable results. The survey used a 5-point Likert scale from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." "During the analysis process, the five categories were combined into three: "agree," "neither agree nor disagree," and "disagree." Students were asked to state the most motivating activities, based on their experiences over the course.

The Likert scale is widely used to measure participants' opinions and perceptions of things based on their level of agreement (Dumas, 1999). The Likert scale has both advantages and disadvantages. Some advantages of the Likert scale are its simplicity to construct, how easy it is to read and complete, and the likelihood it gives of producing highly reliable results. In this study, the Likert scale seemed ideal because it was difficult to use other research methodology, such as interviews, because of the participants' poor English language skills. However, one disadvantage of using a Likert scale is difficulty in demonstrating validity. But since the main goal of this study was to seek participants' general impressions and perceptions of classroom activities rather than facts, it was decided that the Likert scale would be most appropriate.

III. PARTICIPANTS

There were 320 participants in this study. They were the researcher's students for one semester. The course is a required one, and all the participants had to take it to gain 2 credits. Participants received two 45-minute class sessions a week. The participants were of similar age and language backgrounds. From the researcher's observations of the classroom atmosphere, most participants seemed to have no or little interest in learning English, and it seemed that they did not put a lot of effort into improving their English skills. Their primary goal, it seemed, was to study for the test and get good grades or at least pass the course.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data of this study was collected by distributing a survey that investigated the most motivating activities and practices after students experienced various activities for one semester. All the 320 participants answered all the questions of the survey. The following chart (Figure 1) shows the results of the survey:

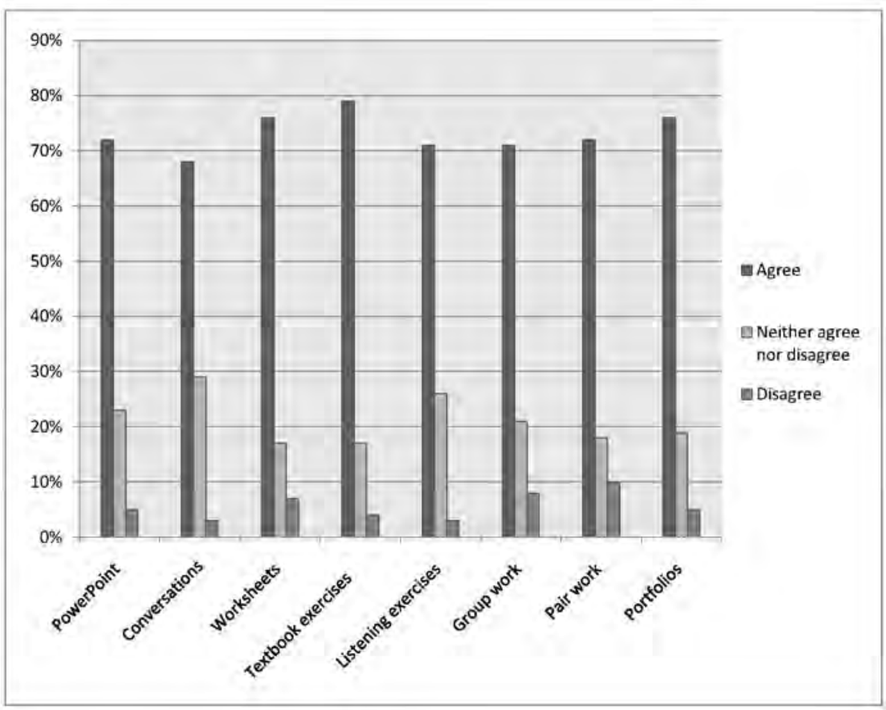


FIGURE 1. Students' perceptions of the most motivating activities. Question: Did the following activities motivate you to learn English this semester?

To answer the research question, the percentages of each individual activity were calculated and compared with the percentages of the other activities. When looking at the individual percentage next to each classroom activity, it is noticeable that the differences between the ratings of the individual items are not statistically significant. Students did not significantly consider one particular activity to be more motivating than the others, although the numbers show slight differences. But those differences do not seem to be significant enough to allow us to generalize that the participants tended to consider one activity more motivating than the others.

In spite of such slight differences between the ratings of the activities, it is still noticeable that the participants tended to consider traditional practices such as textbook exercises or worksheets to be slightly more motivating than other communicative activities. According to the survey results, 79% of the students considered textbook exercises to be the most motivating activity. Worksheets and portfolios received the second-highest positive ratings with 76% of the students believing those activities were motivating. This is interesting because the textbook exercises do not contain communicative activities. It is likely that Japanese non-English major university students do not like to participate in communicative activities such as group work or pair work. Therefore, most of them think such communicative activities are not motivating. Moreover, the participants in this study were neither English majors nor motivated learners, so they might have thought textbook exercises were enough to finish the course. Also, it is probable that students felt the textbook exercises and worksheets helped them understand the content of the readings. The primary goal of many of the students appeared to be to get good scores on the weekly quizzes.

Conversations received the lowest positive ratings. About 68% of the students believed the conversations were motivating. These conversations were content-based and the teacher believed they would help to motivate students to learn English. However, it is probable that students rated the conversations lower than textbook exercises and worksheets because they thought the conversations would not help them do well in the weekly quizzes. Again, it is noticeable that students seem to care more about activities that they perceive will lead to better grades rather than better communicative abilities. Another possibility is that many students feel shy talking to their partners and therefore do not prefer face-to-face communications. Part of their aversion to such communication may be that students have poor communicative language skills as they are linguistically unprepared for engaging in communicative classroom activities.

V. CONCLUSION

Japanese students seem to be quiet and shy in the classroom. Therefore, it is of crucial importance to know their perceptions of classroom activities and teaching practices. It is possible that they prefer activities that have little communication. In this study, students were asked to state their perceptions of the most motivating activities. Results of this study indicated that students tended (slightly) to consider traditional teaching practices, such as doing textbook exercises or answering worksheets, more motivating than communicative activities such as participating in conversations.

Although such results can give us an idea of Japanese students' perceptions of motivating classroom activities, there is a need for more studies that would give more statistically significant results. It is difficult to make generalizations based on the data of this study as it used a survey with a Likert scale. Students might have answered the survey carelessly or untruthfully. Further studies with different research methodologies might help researchers, teachers, and educators learn more about Japanese students' perceptions of classroom activities. In addition, it would be interesting to use other activities in the classroom, ask students about their perceptions of those activities, and then compare the results with the results of this study. This could be done via another project in the future. It would also be interesting to use these activities when teaching English to English majors, ask them the same questions, and then compare those results with the results of this study. Activities that might motivate the two groups might be different. English majors would probably have better communicative language skills and therefore might tend to consider communicative activities more motivating.

THE AUTHOR

Mutahar Al-Murtadha has been working as a full-time English instructor/lecturer at Kanazawa Institute of Technology in Japan for four years. He teaches English courses to Science and Engineering students. He holds a master's degree in TESOL from Saint Michael's College, Vermont, USA. He was awarded a Fulbright Scholarship in 2007. Before that, he taught English in Yemen for about seven years. His research interests include second language acquisition, second language learners' perceptions of the effectiveness of classroom activities, English as an international language, and second language pronunciation problems. Email: murtadha77@yahoo.com

REFERENCES

Bernaus, M., & Gardner, R. C. (2008). Teacher motivation strategies, students' perceptions, student motivation, and English achievement. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*, 387-401.

Brophy, J. (2010). *Motivating students to learn*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Dumas, J.(1999). Usability testing methods: Subjective measures, Part II — Measuring attitudes and opinions. *American Institutes for Research*. Retrieved from http://www.upassoc.org/html/1999_archive/usability_testing_methods.html

Dornyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*, 273-284.

Dornyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching, 31*, 117-135.

Gan, Z., Humphreys, G., & Hamp-Lyons, L. (2004). Understanding successful and unsuccessful EFL students in Chinese University. *Modern Language Journal, 88*(2), 229-244.

Gorham, J., & Christopher, D. M. (1992). Students' perception of teacher behaviors as motivating and demotivating factors in college classes. *Communication Quarterly, 40*, 239-252.

Guilloteaux, M. J., & Dornyei, Z. (2008). Motivating language learners: A classroom-oriented investigation of the effect of motivational strategies on student motivation. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(1), 55-77.

Nakata, Y. (2006). *Motivation and experience in foreign language learning*. Oxford, UK: Peter Lang AG.

Nikolov, M. (1999). "Why do you learn English?" "Because the teacher is short." A study of Hungarian children's foreign language learning motivation. *Language Teaching Research, 3*(1), 33-56.

Sugita, M., & Takeuchi, O. (2010). What can teachers do to motivate their students? A classroom research on motivational strategy use in the Japanese EFL context. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 4*(1), 21-35.

Trang, T. T. T., & Baldauf, R. (2007). Demotivation: Understanding resistance to English language learning — The case of Vietnamese students. *The Journal of Asia TEFL, 4*(1), 79-105.

Reflective Teaching Practice

Feed-up, Feedback and Feedforward: Re-examining Effective Teacher-Student Interaction

Charles J. Anderson
Kyushu Sangyo University, Fukuoka, Japan

Self-determination theory and feedback research indicates that teacher-student interaction significantly impacts student motivation, satisfaction, and ultimately learning. Recent meta-analyses rate formative feedback as one of the strongest predictors of positive learning outcomes. Interaction that provides structure and autonomy has been linked with increased motivation and higher performance, especially for learners initially lacking in self-regulation.
This presentation will present participants' views of feedback and findings from classroom observations conducted as part of a longitudinal qualitative study of eight English-speaking university educators' feedback practice. Participants' comments revealed a basic understanding of feedback, and that much of this feedback was either intended to help students feel more comfortable or to address difficulties students were having in the classroom. Observation indicated that most classroom feedback focused on either the learner as an individual or task performance. While these educators' efforts are to be lauded, research indicates that students can more effectively learn if they are given support and direction to become more autonomous self-regulated learners. In order to meet this goal, educators will need to provide more formative instruction, which will likely include some feed-up and feed-forward in addition to more appropriate feedback.

I. Introduction

Using feedback appropriately can positively influence engagement and improve learning outcomes. Inappropriate feedback, conversely, is likely to reduce engagement and impede learning (Kluger & DeNisi, 1998). Unfortunately, there is still considerable debate about what constitutes effective feedback in second language learning contexts, and most of the second language acquisition research continues to focus on the role of error correction in language learning. This body of research, largely supported by the interaction hypothesis, while extensive, remains somewhat inconclusive, with repeated calls for more research (e.g., Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010). Research in education and educational psychology, however, indicates that summative forms of feedback such as error correction have relatively little impact on learning. Extensive meta-analyses by John Hattie (2009) and others indicate that formative feedback is strongly linked to better learning outcomes. Furthermore, these findings are underpinned by research conducted on the impact of teacher interaction on student engagement (Pianta, Hamre, & Allen, 2012) and situated in the larger theoretical construct of self-regulated learning (Ryan & Deci, 2000) that is widely recognized across a broad range of disciplines.

What is unclear is how much influence any of this research has had on teaching practice in the context of English as a foreign language. Prior research into the explicit teaching of vocabulary indicates that teachers, more than methodology, are a significant predictor of learning outcomes (Anderson, 2012). Informal follow-up interviews conducted with participants revealed significant differences in feedback practice, with more successful teachers using consistently more feedback prior to and following testing. More research is needed to determine exactly what forms of feedback teachers are aware of and how they are utilizing feedback in the classroom. This provided the impetus for a more qualitative longitudinal study with the following aims:

1. To examine teachers' stated beliefs about the efficacy of different forms of feedback and how this influences their feedback practice.
2. To observe teachers' actual use of feedback in the classroom.
3. To compare these findings to the extant research findings to determine where teachers and students might most benefit from improved feedback practice, with the eventual goal of providing teachers with effective interventions that will help them meet their professional obligations and support continued professional growth.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Ethics

In keeping with the university's research ethics guidelines and in acknowledgment of the potentially invasive nature of qualitative research, the author, referred to hereafter as "the researcher," followed the Fluehr-Lobban (1998) guidelines for professional ethics. First, the purpose of the research and potential risks to the subjects were made explicit to participants; in addition, all participants were provided with the opportunity to choose to participate or not. Second, the researcher determined that participants could not be harmed as a result of their participation in the research. Third, the researcher assured the participants that any resulting research and publications would not be used in a way that might bring harm to any individual participants or to the participants as a group. The researcher used an informed consent form in which the guidelines of the research and the person's role in it were described and the participants were asked to sign. Data collection only began once all ethical issues were addressed.

B. Participants

The eight participants, Craig, Jean, Mike, Fred, Andy, Tony, Ben, and Ken (all pseudonyms), worked at one private university in southwestern Japan. Participants were selectively chosen to ensure a representative sample of teachers at the university. All participants held at least a master's degree in English, linguistics, or TESOL/TEFL. All participants were teaching compulsory first- and second-year English conversation classes with relatively low-proficiency students, as measured by the TOEIC Bridge test. The university's unified curriculum ensured all eight teachers were utilizing the same teaching materials and learning objectives. The stated goal of the university is to help students obtain a TOEIC score of 400.

III. Data Collection

Three methods — semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and stimulated recall (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Gass & Mackey, 2000) — were utilized to elicit teachers' beliefs about feedback and their pedagogical practices as well as to triangulate the observational data and to infer teachers' unexpressed beliefs (Kagan, 1990). The data were collected and analyzed by the researcher.

A. Semi-Structured Interviews

All participants were interviewed twice in English over the length of the study. The first interview was semi-structured in order to elicit teachers' beliefs about feedback and how they visualized their practice (Fluehr-Lobban, 1998). A series of hypothetical situations relating to the teaching and learning of vocabulary were presented. The teacher was then asked to reflect on the situation and explain how they might respond. The situations presented were designed to elicit as broad a range of different feedback practices as possible. In order to prevent the researcher from biasing participants' responses, the researcher refrained from using the term "feedback" until it was raised by the participant. Once introduced, the participant was asked to define the term. The researcher was then free to use the term in subsequent follow-up questions.

The hypothetical situations and structure of the interview and the observation inventory was built around, but not restricted to, the Hattie and Timperley (2007) feedback model, as this was the most inclusive feedback model available to the researcher from which to capture the multifaceted nature of participants' feedback beliefs and practices.

B. Classroom Observations

The researcher observed the eight participants' lessons three times over a six-week period. Each participant was allowed to select the time, date, and class for each observation to ensure participants were both relaxed and ready to be observed. Prior to the start of each observation, the researcher was introduced to the class, and the general aim of the study was presented, to ensure students were as relaxed as possible. The researcher took general notes, and a stationary camera was set up to videotape the entire class for later review and analysis. All classes were observed for the first fifty minutes of each 90-minute period.

C. Stimulated Recall Interviews

The second interview, lasting approximately twenty minutes, was conducted after the third observation and utilized stimulated recall and a think-aloud procedure in conjunction with videotaped footage from the observation. Participants were asked to comment upon particularly salient features of their feedback practice and to clarify ambiguous events. Although the accuracy of the recall might have been adversely affected because of the time lapse between the event and the recall (Ericsson & Simon, 1993), the video clips helped to offset this and improve data accuracy. The goal of this interview was to gain a better understanding of the actions and thoughts of each participant, in relation to the use of feedback in actual classroom settings.

D. Data Analysis

Data from the interviews and classroom observations were first transcribed then coded using Elan qualitative software. The Hattie and Timperley feedback model provided initial guidance to the coding process, with the caveat that it did not restrict the creation of new emergent coding categories. All data was repeatedly recoded to minimize miscoding and to ensure replicability.

IV. Interim Findings

The interviews and observations yielded a large body of data that requires more analysis, so the findings here can only be considered preliminary; however, some initial but significant findings bear discussion.

A. Interviews

Responses from the initial round of interviews indicated that participants' theoretical understanding of feedback ranged from the most basic — "Feedback is needed to help students become aware of their mistakes" (Will) — to a basic understanding that feedback can be effective (Fred). Todd saw the need for more formative feedback but reported rarely using it as it required a degree of Japanese proficiency that he did not have, and "students would be unlikely to understand it if [he] used English." This sentiment was also echoed in comments by Will, Tony, Craig, and Andy. Only two participants (Andy and Jean) demonstrated extensive knowledge of the formative and summative facets of feedback: "You need to tell students what to do next and what it's for if you expect them to learn" (Andy). A majority of the participants (Will, Craig, Mike, Fred, Todd, and Ben) reported focusing their comments on the degree to which students accomplished a given task (feedback) and not why they were engaged in the task (feed-up) or what a potential next task might be (feed-forward). While most participants demonstrated some knowledge of effective feedback practice, only Andy emphasized the importance of providing students with instruction that addressed all aspects of the Hattie and Timperly model. Further follow-up questions revealed these beliefs emerged through experience.

B. Observations

While interviews revealed that most participants had some awareness of different forms of feedback, classroom observations revealed relatively few instances of what was coded as feedback. The average fifty-minute observation contained an average of 25 feedback episodes, and these were clustered around perfunctory homework or assignment checks. During these checks, participants routinely only commented when students had failed to complete an activity. Fred's feedback of "You are not finished; if you don't finish your assignments, you will lose points" was typical, and was used by a number of participants (Will, Craig, Todd, and Ben). One unexpected type of feedback that was regularly observed in most classrooms was what David Carless has labeled "pre-emptive feedback," or feedback such as comments delivered to students prior to starting an activity. Andy used these comments extensively, often telling students stories about mistakes or successes of previous students in a manner that resembled feedback. This feedback was, however, largely directed at the class and not the individual, thereby further reducing any effect it might have had on improving learning outcomes. What was also clear from the observations was the need to re-examine the Hattie and Timperly feedback model as a legitimate model for the low-proficiency classes that were observed.

V. Conclusions

While the data from this study is still undergoing analysis, it does indicate that most participants in this study could benefit from a better understanding of the findings of existing feedback research. Research findings have been shown to influence teaching practice and reflections on my development as an educator supports this. More awareness of the importance of formative feedback has encouraged a re-examination of my use of feedback in the classroom. Students are now provided with more than error correction whenever possible. Short, informal, anonymous surveys are regularly used to better understand students and their needs and expectations. Students' comments on the surveys are immediately addressed and discussed. Students' concerns are acknowledged and considered. This information is then used to provide students with more specific feedback that meets or addresses such needs and expectations. This has resulted in improved teacher-student evaluations and more positive classroom environments. While the effect of this feedback practice on learning outcomes has not been examined, the research indicates it should be positive.

The Author

Charles J. Anderson is currently working as a full-time lecturer at Kyushu Sangyo University, Japan, while completing his doctoral degree at the University of Kumamoto. His research interests include, but are not restricted to, vocabulary, teacher-student interaction, and mobile learning. Email: english4anderson@gmail.com

REFERENCES

Anderson, C. J. (2012). Utilizing student-generated pictures for formative vocabulary instruction. *Vocabulary Learning and Instruction, 1,* 1.

Basturkmen, H., Loewen, S., & Ellis, R. (2004). Teachers' stated beliefs about incidental focus on form and their classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics, 25*, 243-272.

Ericsson, K. A., & Simon, H. A. (1993). *Protocol analysis: Verbal reports as data* (Rev. ed.). Cambridge, MA: Bradford Books/MIT Press.

Fluehr-Lobban, C. (1998). Ethics. In Bernard, H. R. (Ed.), *Handbook of ethics in cultural anthropology* (pp. 173-202). Walnut Creek, CA: Altamira Press.

Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2000). *Simulated recall methodology in second language research*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Hattie, J. (2009). Visible learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement. London, UK: Routledge.

Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (1997). The power of feedback. Review of Educational Research*, 77*(1), 81-112.

Kagan, D. (1990). Ways of evaluating teacher cognition: Inferences concerning the Goldilocks principle. *Review of Educational Research, 62,* 129-169.

Kluger, A. N., & DeNisi, A. (1998). Feedback interventions: Toward the understanding of a double-edged sword. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 7*(3), 67-72.

Li, S. F. (2010). The effectiveness of corrective feedback in SLA: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning, 60*(2), 309-365.

Lyster, R., & Saito, K. (2010). Oral feedback in classroom SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 32*(Special Issue 2), 265-302.

Pianta, R. C., Hamre, B. K., & Allen, J. P. (2012). Teacher-student relationships and engagement: Conceptualizing, measuring, and improving the capacity of classroom interactions. In S. L. Christenson, A. L. Reschly, & C. Wylie (Eds.), *Handbook of research on student engagement* (pp. 365-386). New York, NY: Springer.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist, 55*(1), 68-78.

The Classroom Mirror: Reap the Rewards of Video in Your TESOL/ELT Environment

Tom Randolph
Sookmyung Women's University, Seoul, Korea

Where implemented and documented, the benefits of video in enhancing reflective practice and learning opportunities in education have far out weighed the disadvantages. However, coordinating the institutional change necessary for the development of such a culture is a task fraught with hidden dangers, and remains largely undocumented in Northeast Asia. In this presentation, emphasis is placed on cultural considerations and the interactive, exploratory practice among faculty, administrators, students, courses, and technologies that led to the current use of video throughout a TESOL program in Seoul. The presentation covers the period from the end days of VHS to the prevalence of smartphones and class blogs, and the self-starting reflective practices facilitated by these and other emerging technologies. Data from feedback questionnaires from students and faculty rank various reflection strategies and feedback protocols. Results indicate reflection on student microteaching video as among the most efficient developmental tools for pre-service student teachers.

I. INTRODUCTION

It was the fall of 2009 and spring of 2010. Frustrated that my attempts to get our student teachers to reflect (one simple worksheet per microteaching) on their learning (teaching practice) and to set personal developmental learning objectives for themselves at regular intervals had mostly been met with uncritical and superficial "lip-service" aided by increasingly frequent smartphone recordings of their instructors' teaching demos, my colleagues and I had agreed to try to evolve a way to get our students to turn their phones on themselves and engage in *critical* reflection. We hadn't done any reading on the subject, but getting our students to get digital data of themselves, and getting them to process it, felt like the right thing to do, if we could do it the right way.

In the midst of this dilemma, exactly two years ago, I came across an article by Orlova in a 2009 *English Teaching Forum* that was slipped into everyone's KOTESOL International Conference bag. Orlova (2009) described doing in the Czech Republic almost exactly what I envisioned doing, which was to encourage our students to:

1. Develop identities as teachers based on ongoing critical inquiry into their teaching practices.
2. Want to watch themselves transform, and accept that transformation is endless.

3. Learn that they can classify a lot of their classroom activity into sets of techniques that can be isolated and practiced.
4. Understand themselves as beings who bring unique combinations of strengths and weaknesses to the interactive processes of learning.

Our faculty agreed with me that while we were justifiably proud of what our students could do as teachers when they graduated, we knew there was much more that we should be doing to help them become self-sufficient developing professionals in love with their work, as we were.

For several years prior to this, a core group of faculty had been slowly evolving our program from a fairly old-school “teacher training” format towards a more au courant “teacher education” course, in which the student teachers would be encouraged to complement any training they received with their own self-development. The further we got in this evolution, however, the more aware we became of the barriers to our students’ development.

II. The Problems We Had Been Having

A. Shallow and Self-Censored Live Immediate Feedback to Microteaching

Following Dwight Allen’s “New Microteaching” (Lakshmi & Rao, 2009), designed in the 1980s for low-tech societies, feedback on microteaching came from classmates and the instructor immediately after the classmates had participated as pretend students in the subject’s microteaching. Micro-teachers worked from a detailed, thorough rubric (Appendix A), based on which classmates wrote Allen’s two compliments and two suggestions for the student teacher. The subject had a moment or two to jot down her own reactions before receiving some of this feedback orally. The instructor’s supplementary comments concluded the feedback session. Afterwards, the subject took home all the notes and her memories from the feedback session, most probably with her instructor’s wrap-up comments resonating down her spine. She then tried to mentally review her teaching through the sheer red haze of terror that she had probably been experiencing, in order to fill in a brief “what went well and not so well, and why” form. The form ended with a space for her to compose a personal objective for the next microteaching a fortnight or so away (Appendix B).

It could be argued that feedback and reflection are more important than the actual microteaching in terms of a teacher’s growth, because they are such powerful opportunities for learning and awareness-building. However, in our program’s environment, this microteaching session was heavily evaluative: everyone knew (a) the instructor had arrived at a grade, and (b) the quality of a peer’s feedback had an effect on the participation grade of that peer. Thus, everyone who spoke or wrote was concerned with trying to read the instructor’s mind and providing the “correct” feedback. This was made more complicated by (a) the perception by students of these assignments as “high stakes,” and (b) a cultural preference not to threaten face or distinguish oneself in any way. It’s difficult to say to someone, “The next time you’re in that situation, you might try doing *this* instead of *that,*” if you are worried about publicly calling out a peer (perhaps an older peer), and you're not 100% sure that this is a "correct" suggestion. Thus, live feedback tended to be stilted, unimaginative, generalized, and useless.

B. Unreflective Self-Reflection Forms

The completed self-reflection process, therefore, tended to suffer from a dearth of data and feedback other than the instructor's, and the completed forms tended to comprise brief restatements of what the student had been told. Often, the instructor's feedback was repeated verbatim, and the "personal objective" was the instructor's suggestion reformulated. Why? Well, the instructor was the master and had spoken. In other words, the student didn't have an adequate chance to self-reflect before getting external feedback. As a result, given local cultural factors, when the feedback from the "master" arrived, the chance for self-reflection was destroyed.

C. Focus on Training, Not Development

Having only a rubric to go on, the actions on the rubric (demonstrated by instructors) were what students tried to perform correctly. Thus, it became training rather than reflective self-development, and our students tended to graduate with a well-learned tool bag, without a sense of how those tools best worked for them as individuals. Contradictions between teacher beliefs and teacher practice are demoralizing, which affects participant morale; as other studies have shown (e.g., Xie, 2008), students value sincere teacher intent, and are far more likely to produce higher quality output when they judge their instructor's communication to be sincere.

D. Overly Heavy and Stressful Learning Environment

Not exactly a recipe for low affective filters or inspiring a love of learning, is it? This is why, as technology continued to trickle into our students' hands and more and more of our students started using their phones to check *their* look in their mirrors than to record *us*, the idea that our students should be using videos of themselves as teaching-reflection mirrors gained traction in our faculty meetings. Great, except that we all had a feeling of trepidation about it. What we were afraid of was:

1. Appearing unprofessional by not being literate in the various technologies that would emerge, thus causing embarrassment for ourselves, our students, and our program.
2. Forcing students to do something deeply personal that they had resisted doing at a surface level.
3. Tasking students with counter-cultural practices that they might simply be incapable of.
4. Tasking maxed-out faculty with multiple viewings of students' microteaching on video so as to not miss something that students might catch during their reflections.

If any of the above materialized, it would detrimentally impact our careers and the Sookmyung Women's University TESOL program's (SMU-TESOL) business, not to mention our students.

III. Literature Review

I started searching the Internet and our library database for current literature. I learned much; and much to my chagrin, I learned that our instincts to keep pressing for implementation of videotaped microteaching in our primarily pre-service program were dead-on: it's been done since at least the 1960s. I learned that, ironically, the training program I had inherited several years prior had pretty much implemented the "new" version of Dr. Dwight Allen's original Stanford-based format, which removed the cameras (Lakshmi & Rao, 2009).

Adding to the aforementioned Orlova (2009), my instincts were also supported by reports from Ireland (Donnelly & Fitzmaurice, 2011; Kenny & Hynes, 2009), Nigeria (Yusuf, 2006), India (Panjwani & Chandra, 2010), and Israel (Dweikat, 2009). All the studies reported positive outcomes from blending teacher reflection with video recordings of the teacher's practice, but each was also situated in a particular culture, and none reassured me that we could do this in Seoul. The dates of this research suggested video-based reflection was still in a state of discovery in most regions of the world. This reassured me that even though the practice of video-reflection was older than I was, it didn't appear to have ever gone global, so I needn't feel guilty about my own ignorance.

The only even slightly relevant study I found that was set in Korea described the microteaching process used with a group of in-service English teachers participating in the Korean government's ongoing, ambitious training program. Kim (2008) describes a cycle of three microteachings. While the study supports the use of multiple microteachings to facilitate the improvement of teaching skills, there is no reference to teacher reflection, and most descriptions in the study suggest a transmission model use of the video, much like the one we had been using with our live feedback.

IV. Teachers: Video Reflection

At the same time that I stumbled across the Orlova (2009) article, I was also a month into a new education product at Sookmyung TESOL Global. In the spring and summer of 2011, I had designed a "Methods of Language Teaching" course as part of our parallel program for in-service foreign teachers of English. I designed it from scratch, with state-of-the-art best practices aimed at foreigners in Korea and Asia. I knew I would not have the time to go to worksites to do student observations, so the participants would have to bring their teaching to the classroom, and research was showing self-observation accomplished more than assessor observation, anyway.

So now we had two programs in which syllabus design and cultural norms were dramatically different. Yet I came away from that literature review with two inescapable reasons why a sizable reflective component that took advantage of the most current technology was required in both our Korean and our non-Korean programs: (a) to support natural, innate learning processes and (b) to maintain credibility worldwide. It was also clear that both sets of students would require reflection training; that in order for students to "become reflective practitioners of their own professional practice" (Gun, 2011, p. 126), adept at choosing between and using a variety of tools with which to oversee their own ongoing teacher development, a series of meaningful reflection tasks would need to be built into the course.

V. The Advantages of Video

I used the new program to beta-test the video reflection. The argument is encapsulated in the findings of Darling-Hammond (2006), summarized in So (2009), who stated the following advantages of using video to aid teacher reflection:

1. The same video can be viewed many times, for as long as desired.
2. The same video can be viewed selectively for different reflective tasks.
3. Video provides the contextual information that audio alone cannot.
4. The same video can be viewed selectively at different points in a course for comparative purposes.
5. Non-participants can view the video from anywhere in the world.
6. Video can be integrated with other technology to allow a wide range of reflection and feedback types and tasks.

And on the advantage of reflection: connecting reflection-on-teaching to theory allows students to identify strengths and weakness of practice, and to strategize solutions to problems.

VI. The Beta Run: Fostering Reflective Teachers and Technological Literacies

Based on the examples I read about, I built a series of reflective tasks for the non-Korean teachers. The first was to start and maintain personal weekly reflective blogs on teaching practice, each linked to a main course blog that collected their responses to course readings (see Appendix C). Orlova (2009) recommends introducing teacher reflection in the first hours of a course, which made sense to me. I borrowed several reflective questions from Richards and Lockhart's (1996) seminal book and had students introduce themselves to each other by discussing those questions in open pairs before we had even said hello on the first day. To get them started with their blogs, I sent them home with a set of lesson-questions, also from Richards and Lockhart. Regular assignments subsequently helped them become comfortable recording themselves teaching in their classrooms, blogging about the results using the vocabulary they were acquiring of the discourse, and sharing those recordings and reactions with each other via their phones, tablets, or laptops at the beginning and/or end of class in small groups. I put my blog alongside theirs and shared my weekly reflections with them in class.

At that point, I was not aware of any other faculty member actively reflecting, and I knew that soon I would be asking all of our Korean students to practice regular reflection. I began to take steps to encourage reflection from my colleagues, so that when our students began the process, their instructors would already be involved in it. I shared my blog with my colleagues, and I shared video recordings of a few moments of my classes with them, warts and all. Planting seeds, I hoped.

Our non-Korean (global) students developed into a community of video-reflective teachers capable by the end of the course of producing a multimedia portfolio presentation, using their videos to aid them in describing the current state of their development as language teachers. In its third iteration at this moment, it is important to note that nearly all of the students have developed multiple new technological literacies in order to master current reflective teacher practice. It's simply natural.

While it has been necessary in a few cases, each of these first three semesters, to guide and prod students to an appropriate level of detail and introspection, through leading questions and the occasional pointed comment, it has proven quite unusual for any of our non-Korean students to fail to learn to reflect. The feedback on this area of the course has been overwhelmingly positive. All of our foreign students last semester gave at least 4 out of 5 stars to their achievement of the program's terminal objective. Borrowing from Edge (2011, p. 5, in italics below), that objective is as follows:

> By the end of the course, participants will have *sunk roots (identified educational values that are important to them) and grown wings (that will enable them to explore their environments and continue discovering new possibilities for themselves in helping others learn).*

VII. What Was I Worried About with Respect to Our Korean Students?

Because of this success, it went against my values to justify a different standard for our mainstream students. It was painful to me to watch our non-Korean students develop themselves far more than our best Korean students had ever done in their version of the course, and I felt a moral commitment to find a way to get our Korean students to discover the value of learning to reflect with video. However, I remained very worried about it.

A. Is There a Cultural Taboo?

The large majority of the non-Korean students broadly share my cultural norms, but there is no roadmap for discovering how to reflect across cultures here. For one thing, I was pretty sure that one culturally embedded practice — that of valuing only, and uncritically, the master's feedback — would be impossible to change. Mostly, I was afraid of getting the whole thing wrong. I was scared of causing offense and a decline in enrollment, and worried about my own place within my institution. My own assumption, developed during five years of practicing what is generally acknowledged to be a culturally preferred transmission model of teacher training, was that personal reflection or any other critical thinking was not to be verbalized or acknowledged, at least in public. How then could we expect students to make potentially face-threatening suggestions to each other, or individual participants to think critically enough and then to articulate for others their own areas of self-improvement? Would all participants be willing to give and receive suggestions? What if just one refuses?

B. Insufficient Time to Build a New Social Practice

Then there was the question of time. Reflection, like language and anything else, is acquired through repeated social practice, which presents challenges to a one-semester program like ours. Is nineteen weeks enough time to instill a new way of thinking about or doing one's profession?

C. What Are the Beliefs of the Course Instructors?

Our faculty must practice what they teach. Our students must see teacher reflection as a universal given of good teachers. To my knowledge, none of our faculty were in the habit of public reflection at the time, and all shared the fairly ubiquitous dread of observation by superiors. Most of us reflected a bit within our weekly or bi-weekly department meetings, but there was no system or requirement. If *we* couldn't do it, what right did we have to make our students do it; and if we *did* make them, what kind of quality would we get, if their teachers couldn't provide them with a sincere model?

D. Curriculum Fit

How could we add this sizable component to our stuffed curriculum without asking more from our overworked instructors?

E. Technological Literacies

On the one hand, our faculty and staff would have to be able to cope with the various technologies supporting whatever plan we implemented, so that the program could maintain its polished and professional image; and on the other, our students would have to be able to acquire these literacies quickly and not feel them to be an undue burden.

Considering the first question, that of cultural taboo, I opted for a bit of cultural modification when I designed the trial run we implemented in the Spring 2012 program. Orlova (2009) had recommended "that video recording of microteaching lessons should be done on a voluntary basis so trainees will regard it not as a means of punishment or criticism but as a useful tool for their successful professional development" (p. 31). However, I assumed that if it were made voluntary at my institution, the majority of our student body would not participate (a) so as not to distinguish themselves one way or another, (b) to avoid facing a threatening situation with their instructors, and (c) because they have enough work already. This was one instance that instructor-fronted and -transmitted instruction to steer all the students through their reflection process made the most sense.

VIII. The Mainstream Pilot

The success of the non-Korean group and the ubiquity of smartphone activity among our students had convinced most of our faculty that video-reflection was worth trying out with our Korean students, as long as it was unassessed and fairly informal. So we set up a pilot run in the spring of 2012. On the second of five pair-work microteaching assignments, the participants would smartphone-record their partner's microteaching. After the traditional whole-class feedback described above, as homework, students would send the videos to their partners, who would watch their own video and fill in a brief self-reflection form, and they would view each other's videos and answer questions on a short peer-reflection form. They would then come to the next class, where they would be given twenty minutes to share their feedback forms and discuss anything that came up related to their teaching experience. The idea was that the once-only pilot run would give us the opportunity to collect feedback from students and better understand how they currently regarded different forms of feedback and reflective activity. We could then use this data to guide us in the creation of our reflection component for use the following semester.

A. The Faculty Reflects

The forms were the result of a great deal of program reflection by the instructors who taught the methodology and second-language acquisition (SLA) courses that semester. The teamwork and solidarity that was built among the participating faculty was itself necessary and largely resolved my worries about the lack of reflective habits among our faculty. If they hadn't been reflecting prior to this, they were now.

B. Assessing the Pilot

In my opinion, the peer-reflection sessions I witnessed were remarkably richer than any pair-work I had monitored in the previous five years at SMU-TESOL. Other instructors agreed that these discussions were the most animated and sincere that they had witnessed in class. We realized our students wanted to reflect *in the right context*. Bailey (1997) describes the above moment best: "One reason why reflective teaching is worth doing is that it creates a context which promotes professional dialogue" (p. 16). That's exactly what was going on. My classroom sounded like a faculty prep room!

Near the end of the term, I distributed a survey to all of our students through their instructors. The survey asked them to rank and comment on the various forms of video, feedback, and reflection activities they had experienced that semester. I planned to use the results of the survey to lace a safe but useful reflection element through out the entire program, which consisted of methodology, SLA, intercultural communications, and academic skills development courses. I was certain this would comprise both spoken and written self, peer, and instructor feedback, but I was still uncertain about the proportions of each. Following our pilot, I was intrigued by Rich and Hannafin's (2009) finding that their participants reported peer discussions being of greater benefit than written self-reflection.

Out of 150 respondents, only two disagreed that "viewing our videos revealed new things to us," but only three agreed that the process was not at first embarrassing. More than 80% agreed that video self- and peer-reflection is more useful than "live" feedback, especially without video, and that it helped them better understand course concepts. However, a significant minority (33%) felt the process was overly complicated. While the instructor remained, as expected, the most strongly favored feedback source, more than half the respondents strongly valued *all* sources of feedback. So we needed to teach students to reflect, and to provide students with a simpler means to acquire as much quality feedback as possible from as many sources as possible. We decided to utilize an online social network (Google+), have the instructor handle recording, have staff upload student microteaching videos to private Google+ circles immediately after class, and to withhold all instructor feedback until students had completed the self- and peer-reflection tasks.

C. The Full Reflective Microteaching Practice Plan: Fall 2012

During the summer break, the faculty and staff signed up for Google+ and began experimenting with its features in hopes of minimizing mishaps during the semester. In the first week of classes, the reflective tone was set. Students registered for Google+, joined their class's circle, and completed an online survey about their teaching and learning beliefs. In class, they read and discussed culturally relevant readings on reflection by Confucius and others, and discussed their own beliefs in pairs.

In Weeks 2 and 3, the students' awareness of reflective practice on recorded teaching was raised through tasks exposing them (via YouTube and websites) to programs in other countries/cultures doing similar things and to their textbook author discussing teachers' reactions to watching videos of themselves. During Weeks 4 and 5, the instructors provided demonstration teachings that they recorded, and had the students complete peer-reflection forms (Appendix D) while watching the video *after* the teacher had demonstrated completing the self-reflection form following a think-aloud protocol. In this way, the students had the culturally important teacher's model from which to begin their reflection, but would still need to provide unique reflection based on their own teaching samples.

Finally in Week 6, the students did their first microteachings, and for homework provided brief peer reflection to two classmates based on the videos posted on Google+, and completed the self-reflection task on their recording. In class the next day, they watched three other classmates' videos on their smart devices, completed peer-reflection forms on each, and then engaged in fifteen-minute discussions with these classmates on teaching. At the end of the week, each student submitted a one- to two-page self-reflection paper discussing the teaching experience and conclusions drawn, based on the variety of feedback received. After submitting the paper, the student received the assessed rubric and written comments from the instructor. This process was repeated five more times over the next twelve weeks, though only twice with the paper assigned.

IX. Results

The instructors are in complete agreement that these reflecting students were producing better lesson plans and microteachings at the mid-semester break than our alumni had managed by the end of the full course. The reflection forms provided an added advantage, in that they allowed us to make students aware of concepts that were un-teachable any other way, such as whether and when to move around the classroom, and comparing the ratio of evaluative to communicative teacher talk. This led us to introduce classroom discourse analysis tasks in the Spring 2013 semester.

The curricular adjustments that had to be made to accommodate this reflective turn has produced sustained reflective practice by all of our faculty members. Meetings are longer, but voluntarily so, as well as richer and better integrated between the courses. In other words, this deep reflection on our program has been reflexive; professional practice has necessarily evolved to evolve the program. The students, though they have nothing to compare it to, are also unanimous. A few responses taken with their permission from the self-reflection papers submitted in Week 7 appear in Appendix E.

The Author

Tom Randolph has been a teacher educator and English teacher for over twenty years. His primary interest is the relationship between language learning and power negotiations in classrooms, including online. He holds a DELTA from Cambridge and an MS from Georgetown University. He is currently a Program Coordinator at Sookmyung TESOL. He has been a U.S. State Department English Fellow in Jogjakarta, and created the George Mason University ELI in Jakarta and the first multimedia labs for the MEI at the University of Maryland, College Park. He began his career with the British Council in Wroclaw and Poznan, Poland.

References

Bailey, K. M. (1997). Reflective teaching: Situating our stories. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching, 7,* 1-19. Retrieved from http://www.cuhk.edu.hk/ajelt/vol7/art1.htm

Darling-Hammond, L. (2006). Constructing twenty-first century teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 57*(3), 300-314.

Donnelly, R., & Fitzmaurice, M. (2011). Towards productive reflective practice in microteaching. *Innovations in Education and Training International, 48*(3), 335-346.

Dweikat, K. A. (2009). *Investigating attitudes of ELT (2) learners towards microteaching*.

Manuscript. Retrieved from http://www.qou.edu/english/conferences/firstNationalConference/pdfFiles/drKhaledDweikat.pdf

Edge, J. (2011). *The reflexive teacher educator in TESOL: Roots and wings* (Kindle ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Gun, B. (2011). Quality self-reflection through reflection training. *ELT Journal, 65*(2), 126-135.

Kenny, M., & Hynes, R. (2009, August). Action research: A learning tool that engages complexity. *AISHE Conference 2009: Valuing Complexity*. National University of Ireland Maynooth, Maynooth, Ireland. Retrieved from http://eprints.nuim.ie/1519/

Kim, H. J. (2008). Beliefs about language teacher competence and microteaching in the in-service teacher training program. *Modern English Education*, *10*(3), 42-61.

Lakshmi, M. J., & Rao, D. (2009). *Microteaching and prospective teachers*. New Delhi, India: Discovery.

Orlova, N. (2009). Video recording as a stimulus for reflection in pre-service EFL teacher training. *English Teaching Forum, 47*(2), 30-35.

Panjanwani, S., & Chandra, R. (2010). A study of teachers' reactions towards video-assisted feedback. In *Proceedings of India HCI 2010*. British Informatics Society. Retrieved from http://research.microsoft.com/apps/pubs/default.aspx?id=120222

Rich, J. R., & Hannafin, M. (2009). Video annotation tools: Technologies to scaffold, structure, and transform teacher reflection. *Journal of Teacher Education, 60*(1), 52-67.

Richards, J., & Lockhart, C. (1996). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

So, W. H. W. (2009). Use of micro-teaching videos in teacher education: Computer-supported collaborative learning. In F. L. Wang, J. Fong, L. Zhang, & V. S. K. Lee (Eds.). (2009). Proceedings of the Second International Conference, ICHL'09: *Hybrid Learning and Education* (pp. 260-271). Heidelberg, Germany: Springer-Verlag Berlin.

Xie, X. (2008). *Interactions during teacher-fronted class time of English classes in a Chinese university* (Doctoral dissertation). Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand.

Yusuf, M. O. (2006). Influence of video and audiotapes feedback modes on student teachers' performance. *Malaysian Online Journal of Instructional Technology, 3*(1), 29-35.

APPENDIX A

Sample of Old Microteaching Rubric

Microteaching Rubric: 8 Presentation

Group Name:____________ Presenter:____________ Grade:______

Unmarked items do not indicate poor work by students. Your instructor may use a modified version of this rubric.

+	✓	–	Event description
			Global considerations
☐	☐	☐	T listens and responds *communicatively* (T & S have *real* conversation).
☐	☐	☐	Appropriate TT/TR for S profile (age/proficiency).
☐	☐	☐	Minimal T lecturing/explaining.
☐	☐	☐	Accurate L2 on WB/PPT.
☐	☐	☐	Classroom language modeled, practiced, accurate
☐	☐	☐	Good flow of interaction.
☐	☐	☐	T is relaxed and confident.
☐	☐	☐	Cls/MIC appropriate for [illegible]-Mid Speaking/Listening (visuals/gestures).
☐	☐	☐	There is a sense of "fun" throughout the demo.
☐	☐	☐	Gut reaction is "Solid"
☐	☐	☐	T handles WB and/or PPT well.
			Step 8
☐	☐	☐	Ss know why they are reading each time.
☐	☐	☐	T presents and develops authentic context.
☐	☐	☐	Reading strategies sequenced appropriately.
☐	☐	☐	No vocabulary or grammar is taught explicitly.
☐	☐	☐	Students use multiple intelligences and learning styles.
☐	☐	☐	Students actively read the source at least three times.
			Classroom Interactions (Appropriate amounts/techniques)
☐	☐	☐	Comprehension checks
☐	☐	☐	Summarize/paraphrase
☐	☐	☐	Ss ask questions (S-S & S-T)
☐	☐	☐	Appropriate error correction (from Practicum SB)
☐	☐	☐	PW/GW
☐	☐	☐	Repetition
☐	☐	☐	Assistance
			MIC
☐	☐	☐	T repeats/chunks/more slowly or with emphasis on key words.
☐	☐	☐	T rephrases/previews/uses visuals.

APPENDIX B

Sample of Old Reflection Form

[illegible]
Your group number and semester here

Microteaching 1: Active Reflection

Using the rubric in your student book, identify one feature of your microteaching with which you are pleased.	Using the rubric in your student book, identify one feature of your microteaching with which you are not satisfied.
Why did it go well? Why are you pleased with it?	What was the problem? Why are you dissatisfied?
Write a personal objective for your next microteaching. What teaching practice or skill do you specifically wish to improve? Write your objective in the box on the right **and on the next MT rubric in your student book.**	*Objective:*

APPENDIX C

Weekly Reflection Blog

Week 8.1: Setting Up Pair Work

I didn't get far through my video before I found plenty to talk about. The following reflection covers the section of the following video from 0:28 to 3:24.

Before I get into MIC though, I want to make three personal notes. Skip over the bullets if you want pure MIC!

- I didn't realize how much I over-act during my classes. I intend this to show enthusiasm and keep the kids interested, but perhaps it doesn't seem genuine... Perhaps just strange? When I do it to this extent at least. Maybe I'm just over-reacting to try to make up for lack of control of the class?
- How can I get this class to stop speaking Korean?! And so loudly!

APPENDIX D

Pilot Peer Reflection Form

Methodology Peer Reflection Supplement

Directions: Find someone in the class you haven't worked with yet, share the video of your most recent microteaching, and answer the following questions about your partner's microteaching after watching the video.

My name:____________ My partner's name:_________

Questions

1a. Excluding pair work (PW), how many students asked or answered questions individually?____

2a. Including PW, did everyone have a chance to say something during the presentation? Yes/No. How effectively did the teacher set up the pair work (give examples)?

____

____

____

3a. Can you find an example of REPHRASE in the presentation (write the teacher talk below).

Teacher:

Teacher (rephrase):

4a. Does the teacher use the whiteboard effectively? Yes/No. How so?

____

____

APPENDIX E

Participant Feedback on Video-Based Reflection

Second Language Acquisition

Linguistic Dimensions of EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate

Wannaprapha Suksawas
Naresuan University, Phitsanulok, Thailand

Many researchers claim that the potential to participate in communicative interaction depends on an individual's willingness to communicate (WTC) in language learning; that is, being willing to seek out communication opportunities and to use the language for authentic communication (Cao, 2009; Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005; MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1998; Peng, 2007). However, the majority of such research is quantitatively oriented and has not provided descriptions of how WTC manifests itself in classroom interaction. This paper is not aimed at discrediting the current literature on WTC but rather at extending this research by examining L2 learners' participation in natural classroom interaction.

I. Introduction

The requirements of the Thai National Curriculum urge Thai students to improve their English skills so that they will be able to cope with the change and challenges of the future. At the 12th ASEAN Summit in January 2007, ASEAN leaders (including the Thai leader) affirmed their strong commitment to accelerate the establishment of an ASEAN Community by 2015, as envisioned in ASEAN Vision 2020 and ASEAN Concord II, and signed the Cebu Declaration on the Acceleration of the Establishment of an ASEAN Community by 2015. The leaders agreed to:

> "hasten the establishment of the ASEAN Economic Community by 2015 and to transform ASEAN into a region with free movement of goods, services, investment, skilled labour, and freer flow of capital. With this commitment, ASEAN will enhance the well-being and livelihood of the peoples of ASEAN by providing them with equitable access to human development opportunities by promoting and investing in education and lifelong learning, human resource training and capacity building, encourage innovation and entrepreneurship, promote the use of English language, ICT and applied science and technology in socio-economic development activities." (Association of Southeast Asian Nations, 2009, p. 68)

As a result of this agreement, the roles of both teachers and learners in the ASEAN region have changed. Teachers are urged to focus on varied and learner-centered teaching methods to support students' language learning, to foster interpersonal relationships among students, and to encourage learners to use more of the target language. Many Thai teachers and researchers, however, have encountered problems in motivating students to learn English, particularly spoken English, and are continually trying to find ways to encourage students to use this second language (L2) (Prapphal, 1984; Wattanakul, 2001; Wongsothorm, 2001). Consequently, in order to motivate learners' in-class participation, it is vital to investigate factors and contributions that affect their willingness to communicate. This paper is an attempt to investigate the nature of Thai learners' conversational interactions within the classroom. Its aims are to provide a better understanding of the factors affecting language learning, to identify the means by which the learners' engagement and contributions to group tasks can be fostered, and to expand the understanding of willingness to communicate from a linguistic perspective.

By drawing on systemic functional linguistics, it is possible to research not only the language choices in the discourse but also the social context of the activity. This provides a clearer picture of the learners' actual interaction and their participation in the group work.

II. Literature Review

A. Willingness to Communicate: A Key Notion

Willingness to communicate (WTC) is regarded as an important variable (Kim, 2004; Yu, 2009) affecting second language learning in second language acquisition (SLA). It is viewed as one of the elements of intrinsic motivation that can interfere with a learner's spoken production (Kim, 2004; Yu, 2009). Research has focused on a number of factors contributing to learners' WTC. These include social support (MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, & Conrod, 2001); learners' attitudes (Yashima, 2002); cultural differences (Wen & Clement, 2003); beliefs about second-language group work and communication confidence in L2 group work (Kumiko, 2008); shyness (Chu, 2008); and contexts of interaction (Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005). Though the constructs affecting willingness to communicate have been widely examined, investigation of WTC from a linguistic point of view has not been conducted. From a linguistic point of view, the focus of WTC is anticipated to be able to be expanded from that of the individual learner as an interactant to learners engaged in social interaction in this study.

B. The Origin of Willingness to Communicate

The concept of WTC in the field of first-language (L1) communication was originally developed by McCroskey and Richmond (1987). The researchers based the development of their ideas on the concept of unwillingness to communicate (Burgoon, 1976). McCroskey (1990, 1992) and McCroskey and Baker (1985) applied their earlier framework of communication apprehension — defined as fear or anxiety toward oral communication and which is regarded as the main element affecting WTC — to their study in the EFL context. The studies by these researchers aimed to capture the traits that learners display in using both their first and second language. The results show that a high degree of communication apprehension in both languages affects learners' language-production behavior.

Although situational factors may also affect one's willingness to speak, McCroskey and Richmond (1990) asserted in their work that the antecedents of WTC — introversion, self-esteem, communication competence, communication apprehension, and cultural diversity — are more critical.

McCroskey later referred to WTC as the probability of engaging in communication when the opportunity is given (McCroskey & Richmond, 1987). Indeed, WTC is regarded as a stable variable that influences one's talk (e.g., degree of introversion and extroversion, and many other factors). Building on the work of McCroskey (McCroskey, 1992; McCroskey & Richmond, 1987, 1990) and the notion of unwillingness to communicate, recent studies have shifted to the study of WTC. Indeed, the past decade has seen a growing research interest in L2 WTC (Chu, 2008; Clement, Baker, & MacIntyre, 2003; Hashimoto, 2002; Yashima, 2002), and an increasing number of current studies have focused on WTC in the ESL and EFL context. It is important to note that most of the recent studies on WTC have applied or based their work on the work of MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei, and Noels (1998), who conceptualized bilingual L2 WTC as a pyramid-shaped model. This is because the work of these authors is regarded as a comprehensive and strongly developed model that includes various sources of contributing factors (Peng, 2007). Although the present study does not directly employ the model as an analytical framework, the concepts underpinning the model have provided great insights into the factors affecting WTC in the literature.

C. Systemic Functional Linguistics

The central premise of systemic functional linguistics (SFL) relating to the present study is its "social and context-embedded features" (Muller & Wilson, 2008, p. 767). The works of Halliday and associates have offered linguistic frameworks for examining language used through an approach to language as a "social semiotic." Halliday (1978) writes:

> A social reality (or a "culture") is itself an edifice of meaning — a semiotic construct. In this perspective, language is one of the semiotic systems that constitute a culture; one that is distinctive in that it also serves as an encoding system for many (though not all) of the others.... This in summary terms is what is intended by the formulation "language as social semiotic." It means interpreting language within a sociocultural context, in which the culture itself is interpreted in semiotic terms — as an information system, if that terminology is preferred.... At the most concrete level, this means that we take account of the elementary fact that people talk to each other. Language does not consist of sentences; it consists of text, or discourse — the exchange of meaning in interpersonal contexts of one kind or another... (p. 2)

Christie (1999) further argues that "text is known only because of the context that gives it life; conversely, context is known only because of the text that realizes it" (p. 759). Context, therefore, is not fixed, and can be reshaped by the new text co-created by interactants (Gutierrez, 1993; Lim, 2007).

SFL has been adopted as a framework to guide this study because the linguistic choices employed by the learners can be explored in terms of the function of their talk as well as the interpersonal relationship enacted during the talk. SFL provides a unique approach to the investigation of the language choices made by learners as they engage in classroom tasks, particularly the choices related to interpersonal meaning, and this may shed light on WTC as manifested in oral discourse. From a linguistic perspective, SFL theory points to a close relationship between language and its context, which means there is likely to be evidence of the contextual factors contributing to WTC. In addition, it has been argued that in order to examine how learners undertake roles and position themselves within classroom tasks, the interpersonal resources among group members are useful in providing insightful descriptions of the interactive behavior that can be realized through their meaning-making resources (Eggins & Slade, 2004; Jones, 2001).

III. Data and Method of Analysis

Conducting the analysis from a functional perspective demonstrates how grammatical structures realize social meanings (through mood and speech function). This makes functional grammar “a powerful tool for analysis of texts” (Schleppegrell, 2004, p. 45). In relation to the present study, the functional approach allows the configurations of linguistic structures in different kinds of social tasks (classroom tasks) to be explained. In turn, this is crucial, as linguistic choices are inherently linked to the social purposes and situations driving the formation of the spoken texts in this study, and can thus be used to identify the enactment of the learners’ subsequent sustained participation in their social interaction.

While the wide-ranging aspects of the ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings have been examined in previous studies, interpersonal meaning is of particular interest to this study due to its focus on the interpersonal relations among learners (Martin, 2000; Martin & White, 2005). Notwithstanding the importance of this element, the explanations provided of the meaning assigned to the interpersonal relations will be limited to the field most applicable to this small-scale study. The meaning assigned to the interpersonal relations among the learners falls into three categories: the type of interaction taking place, the kind of commodity being exchanged, and the manner in which the speakers take a position in their message (Butt, Fahey, Feez, Spinks, & Yallop, 2000). As such, the major tools for analysis are drawn from linguistic resources that recognize the language users’ choice of language as a way to enact their roles and position in the interaction, to express their attitude, and to achieve a particular purpose in a social context. Eggins and Slade (1997/2004) provide an analytical framework for investigating conversations during classroom interactions, and this framework will underpin the investigation of linguistic manifestations of WTC to be conducted in this study.

In addition to the framework from Eggins and Slade (1997/2004), previous studies employing SFL in spoken discourse analysis provide an insight into how other studies have applied the theory to their research problems (e.g., Christie, 2005; Gibbons, 2003, 2006; Jones, 2005; McAndrew, 2001). In addition, the results from the studies indicate that aligning the social context with the details of the linguistic analysis will result in an insightful understanding of social interaction. In turn, this broadens the researcher's view of the application of the SFL framework, as well as of the classroom learning contexts.

On the basis of this review of the framework, it is clearly evident that SFL is not a linguistic theory focusing merely on language itself. Rather, it offers the researcher a tool with which to examine factors such as culture and context that influence the text. Therefore, SFL provides a very useful framework for examining language use or the language choices made by learners in a particular context. In relation to the current study, SFL is used as a framework to complement the application of sociocultural theory in an investigation of learners' linguistic choices so as to make visible their WTC.

IV. Results

Findings from this study suggest that the learners' WTC can be affected by interpersonal factors. Evidence from the findings suggests that during tasks, learners are cooperative and are mediated by two different factors: social interaction and artifacts. Well-mediated interactions can lead to more engagement of the learners. Moreover, learners performed several negotiations for shared understanding in order to complete the set task. It is anticipated that the more shared understanding learners have, the more they tend to engage in the task, leading to a higher level of WTC.

In terms of linguistic resources, the exploration of linguistic analysis becomes an important aspect of the research project. Linguistic resources from SFL enable the researcher to draw out the WTC from learners' discourse by considering the use of mood (see Appendix A) and speech function (see Appendix B). Findings reveal that within the same tasks, learners interact differently. In addition to other contextual factors, interpersonal relations, roles of the learners, their perceptions of their interlocutors, and the tasks can have a major impact on the learners' WTC.

By incorporating findings from different perspectives, the study provides greater insights into learners' WTC in a classroom context. Situational factors of WTC can be highlighted by the qualitative-oriented approach. All of this then may contribute to the field of SLA as well as the study of linguistic analysis, which can then promote Thai or other EFL learners to a higher level of active participation.

A. Dimensions of EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate

Previous research findings have underscored the need to expand the notion of WTC within a linguistics framework, and when this perspective is considered along with existing SLA theory, an insightful description of communal behavior — a set of behaviors that learners exhibit as part of the group, which reflects their WTC — is achieved.

This study emphasizes that in order to better understand a learner's contribution to the task and their willingness to engage in the interaction, it is important to examine language use as dialogic interaction. This claim is supported by the work of Bakhtin (1986), who provided an important additional perspective when he noted that every utterance is a link in an unending chain of communication. The dialogic phenomena identified in the tasks were complex negotiations of shared understanding. In these instances, the participants' interactions were dynamic and, at times, difficult to interpret as they initiated, prolonged, responded to, and maintained the conversations. Reaching shared understanding and agreement to complete the shared aims of the task was crucial as the learners provided assistance to each other in the second language, while at the same time, requiring assistance from others. Hence, the voices of multiple classroom participants during the complex negotiations testified to their collaboration and interaction. Thus, in a study of WTC, the focus should not be solely on individual learners' L2 production, but rather on the group of learners who are engaged in the same learning process.

Having the view that dialogic interaction among learners is a significant contributing factor to L2 language learning led the researcher of the present study to further investigate the factors contributing to learner participation in such interactions. The section below proposes an alternative way to conceptualize WTC. The approach rests dually on Bakhtin's notion of dialogue and a concept of language with a central focus on the socially interactive construction of meaning. From the point of view of participation-orientation, the attention in this study shifts from the domain of the individual (sole learner), "to the socially interactive and co-participatory learning interaction" (Strauss et al., 2006, p. 187) in which issues and opinions are discussed, negotiated, analyzed, and re-analyzed by all group members.

B. Reconceptualized View of WTC

Viewing the learners' interaction in English as a dialogic process enables this study to reconceptualize the WTC construct within the EFL classroom context. In addition to the traditional view that a learner's preparedness to talk is both dynamic and situational. It is also the view of this study that it is a behavior which is largely responsive to the nature of the interaction taking place between the interlocutors. As a consequence, any understanding of the construct and its manifestation must take into account contextual factors such as the design and implementation of the learning activities, the topics of discussion, the learners' interests and background knowledge, and the interpersonal relationships between the interlocutors. Indeed, it is these contextual factors, along with the learners' dialogic interactions as manifested through their choice of linguistic resources, that determine each learner's role and the manner in which each of them will express their WTC. (See Appendix C for the linguistic dimensions of willingness to communicate for a group of five Thai learners with respect to communal behaviors.)

V. Discussion and Conclusion

Discussion of contextual and linguistic factors informing the new conceptualization of WTC is provided below.

The pedagogical implications concern the contributions to learners' oral production enacted in their willingness to talk and on-going reflection about the factors contributing to a learner's WTC. This study brings to light the notion that WTC is highly integral to the language learning development process. When interpreted from a sociocultural theoretical perspective, the findings reinforce the potential benefits of learners' semiotic mediations. This study is not designed to simply introduce a new concept to L2 learning in the EFL context. Its intention is to promote the use of small-group activities in order to facilitate meaningful communication and to promote learners' participation during the task so as to benefit language learning. In this present study, semiotic mediations (both language and physical materials) enabled learners to move toward the completion of their task, while their dialogic interactions reveal the contributing factors affecting their willingness to participate in the task.

As Oxford (2001) contends, "Each instance of L2 use is an opportunity for more L2 learning" (p. 364). This researcher also considers enhanced verbalization by EFL learners as a conduit that may increase opportunities for acquisition, and thus contribute to further language learning. This interaction process can assist L2 learners to continue moving forward and increase their verbal production with each other. The significant role of dialogic interaction as a facilitator of learning is in line with sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1979, 1985). In addition, the more the verbal output from the learners, the more they can be encouraged to participate in higher levels of interaction.

Teachers and learners should therefore be aware of the importance of the individual learner's WTC, as well as interlocutors' contributions during the learning process. In relation to this study, the findings presented provide an informed insight into the contextual factors, especially task design, affecting a learner's engagement as well as their dialogic behavior. As a result, when teachers assign a task to learners, a task design promoting learner interaction and the production of the target language should be taken into consideration. For learners, it is crucial that they acknowledge the importance of their own, and their interlocutors', WTC and how beneficial it can be to English language learning.

THE AUTHOR

Wannaprapha Suksawas is a current lecturer at Naresuan University, Faculty of Humanities, Department of English. She has a degree in English, a master's degree in English for Careers (ESP program) from Thammasat University, Thailand, and her EdD in TESOL. Her thesis dealt with systemic functional linguistics and sociocultural theory. In addition, she has been taking part in various courses and post-graduate lectures about English for young learners and linguistics for graduates. Her research areas are SLA, task-based learning, SFL, and ESP.

AUTHOR NOTE

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Dr. Wannaprapha Suksawas, 99 Moo 9, Naresuan University, Faculty of Humanities, Thapho, Phitsanulok, Thailand 65000. E-mail: wannaprapha_s@hotmail.com

REFERENCES

Bakhtin, M. M. (1986). The problem of speech genres. In M. M. Bakhtin (Ed.), *Speech genres and other late essays* (pp. 60-102). Austin, TX: University of Texas Press.

Burgoon, J. K. (1976). The unwillingness to communicate scale: Development and validation. *Communication Monographs, 43*, 60-69.

Butt, D., Fahey, R., Feez, S., Spinks, S., & Yallop, C. (2000). *Using functional grammar: An explorer's guide* (2nd ed.). Sydney, Australia: NCELTR, Macquarie University.

Cao, Y. (2009). An ecological view of situational willingness to communicate in L2 classroom. In H. Chen & K. Cruickshank (Eds.), *Making a difference: Challenges for applied linguistics*. Newcastle upon Tyne, UK: Cambridge Scholars.

Cao, Y., & Philp, J. (2006). Interactional context and willingness to communicate: A comparison of behaviour in whole class, small group and dyadic interaction. *System, 34*, 480-493.

Christie, F. (1999). Genre theory and ESL teaching: A systemic functional perspective. *TESOL Quarterly, 33*(4), 759-763.

Christie, F. (2005). *Classroom discourse analysis: A functional perspective*. New York, NY: Continuum.

Clement, R., Baker, S. C., & McIntyre, P. D. (2003). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The effect of contexts, norms and vitality. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 22*(2), 190-209.

Chu, H.-N., R. (2008). *Shyness and EFL learning in Taiwan: A study of shy and non-shy college students' use of strategies, foreign language anxiety, motivation and willingness to communicate* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Texas at Austin, TX, USA.

Eggins, S., & Slade, D. (1997/2004). *Analysing casual conversation*. London, UK: Cassell. (Reprinted 2004, London, UK: Equinox.)

Gibbons, P. (2003). Mediating language learning: Teacher interaction with ESL students in a content-based classroom. *TESOL Quarterly, 37*(2), 247-274.

Gibbons, P. (2006). *Bridging discourses in the ESL classroom*. New York, NY: Continuum.

Gutierrez, K. D. (1993). How talk, context, and script shape contexts for learning: A cross-case comparison of journal sharing. *Linguistics and Education, 5*, 335-365.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1978). *Language as social semiotic: The social interpretation of language and meaning*. London, UK: Arnold.

Hashimoto, Y. (2002). Motivation and willingness to communicate as predictors of reported L2 use: The Japanese ESL context. *Second Language Studies, 20*(2), 29-70.

Jones, P. (2001). Mind in the classroom. In J. Hammond (Ed.), *Scaffolding: Teaching and learning in language and literacy education*. Newtown, Australia: Primary English Teaching Association.

Jones, P. (2005). *Intersubjectivity and learning: A socio-semantic investigation of classroom discourse* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia.

Kang, S. (2005). Dynamic emergence of situational willingness to communicate in a second language. *System, 33*, 277-292.

Kim, S. J. (2004). *Exploring willingness to communicate in English among Korean EFL students in Korea: Willingness to communicate as a predictor of success in second language acquisition* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The Ohio State University, Columbus, OH.

Kumiko, F. (2008). *Measuring Japanese university students' readiness for second-language group work and its relation to willingness to communicate* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Temple University, Japan Campus, Tokyo, Japan.

Lim, M.-O. (2007). *Exploring social practices in English classes: A qualitative investigation of classroom talk in a Korean secondary school* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Adelaide, Adelaide, Australia.

MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clement, R., & Conrod, S. (2001). Willingness to communicate, social support, and language-learning orientations of immersion students. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 23*, 369-388.

MacIntyre, P. D., Clement, R., Dornyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *The Modern Language Journal, 82*(4), 545-562.

Martin, J. (2000). Beyond exchange: Appraisal systems in English. In S. H. G. Thompson (Ed.), *Evaluation in text: Authorial stance and the construction of discourse*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Martin, J., & White, P. (2005). *The language of evaluation: Appraisal in English*. London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

McAndrew, P. (2001). *Investigating casual conversation: A systemic functional linguistic and social network model of analysing social reality* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia.

McCroskey, J. C. (1992). Reliability and validity of the willingness to communicate scale. *Communication Quarterly, 40*(1), 16-25.

McCroskey, J. C., & Baker, J. E. (1985, November). *Willingness to communicate: The construct and its measurement*. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the Speech Communication Association, Denver, CO, USA.

McCroskey, J. C., & Richmond, V. P. (1987). Willingness to communicate. In J. C. McCroskey & J. Daly (Eds.), *Personality and interpersonal communication* (pp. 129-156). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

McCroskey, J. C., & Richmond, V. P. (1990). Willingness to communicate: Differing cultural perspectives. *Southern Communication Journal, 56*(1), 72-77.

Muller, N., & Wilson, B. (2008). Collaborative role construction in a conversation with dementia: An application of systemic functional linguistics. *Clinical Linguistics & Phonetics, 22*(10-11), 767-774.

Oxford, R. L. (2001). Language learning styles and strategies. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Peng, J. E. (2007). Willingness to communicate in an L2 and integrative motivation among college students in an intensive English language program in China. *University of Sydney Papers in TESOL, 2*, 33-59.

Prapphal, K. (1984). *Levels of Thai students' English ability with reference to the Ministry of Education Curriculum*. Bangkok, Thailand: Chulalongkorn University Language Institute.

Association of Southeast Asian Nations. (2009). *Roadmap for an ASEAN Community 2009-2015*. Jakarta, Indonesia: Author. Retrieved from http://www.aseansec.org/publications/RoadmapASEANCommunity.pdf

Schleppegrell, J. M. (2004). *The language of schooling: A functional linguistics perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Strauss, S., Feiz, P., Xiang, X., & Ivanova, D. (2006). The dialogic construction of meaning in advanced L2 writing: Bakhtinian perspectives. In M. Bygate (Ed.), *Advanced language learning: The contribution of Halliday and Vygotsky* (pp. 184-203). London, UK: Continuum.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind and society: The development of higher psychological process*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wattanakul, A. (2001). Learning in the Thai context. *KMUTT, 22*(3), 23-51.

Wen, W. P., & Clement, R. (2003). A Chinese conceptualization of willingness to communicate in ESL. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 16*(1), 18-38.

Wertsch, J. (1979). From social interaction to higher psychological processes: A clarification and application of Vygotsky's theory. *Human Development, 22*(1), 1-22.

Wertsch, J. (1985). *Culture, communication and cognition: Vygotskian perspectives*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Wongsothorm, A. (2001). *Levels of English skills of Thai students*. Retrieved from http://www.culi.chula.ac.th/eJournal_02/research_10.htm

Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese EFL context. *The Modern Language Journal, 86*, 54-66.

Yu, M. (2009). *Willingness to communicate of foreign language learners in a Chinese setting* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Florida State University, FL, USA.

APPENDIX A

Mood

1. Asking and Answering Activity

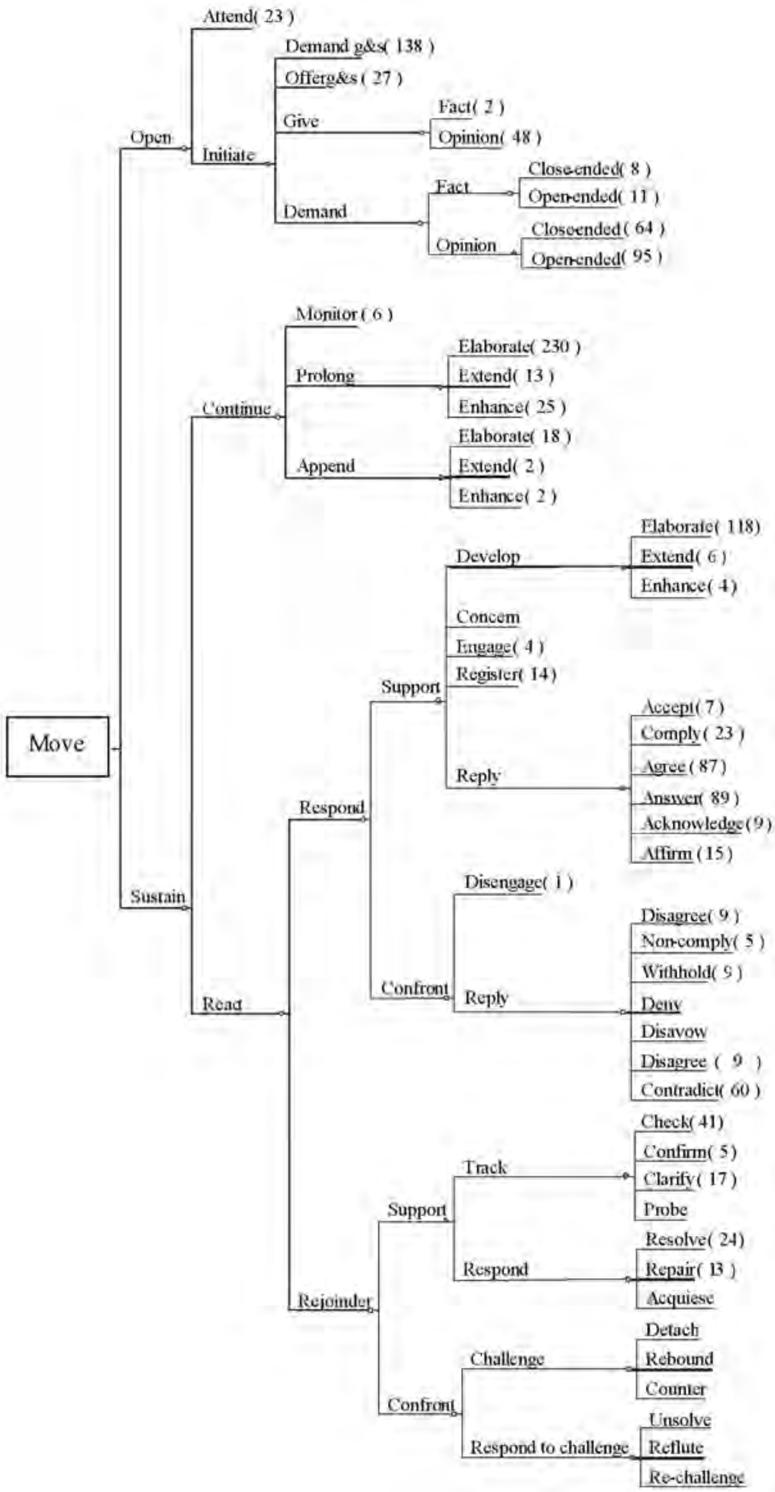
MOOD	Ploy	Champ	Deaw	Pat	Yam	Total
No. of Start Turn	59	39	42	36	24	200
No. of Clause	92	58	52	56	39	297
(Incomplete clause)		2	4			
Polar-Interrogative						
Full	7	4	2	2	2	17
Elliptical	1	4	2	6	1	14
Total	**8**	**8**	**4**	**8**	**3**	**31**
Wh-Interrogative						
Full	13	5	3	2	6	29
Elliptical	8	3	3	1	0	15
Total	**21**	**8**	**6**	**3**	**6**	**44**
Declarative						
Full	40	29	19	24	18	130
Elliptical	6	5	1	4	2	18
Total	**46**	**34**	**20**	**28**	**20**	**148**
Imperative	4	1	3	2	4	14
Minor	13	7	19	15	6	60
Grand Total	**92**	**58**	**52**	**56**	**39**	**297**
Positive polarity	6	3	6	2	4	21
Negation	9	3	3	5	4	24
Total	**15**	**6**	**9**	**7**	**8**	**45**

2. Creating a Poster Activity

MOOD	Ploy	Champ	Deaw	Pat	Yam	Total
No. of Start Turns	28	42	36	36	44	186
No. of Clauses	41	57	56	49	66	269
(Incomplete clause)	1					
Polar-Interrogative						
Full	1	3	4	1	5	14
Elliptical	2	2	3	2	2	11
Total	**3**	**5**	**7**	**3**	**7**	**25**
Wh-Interrogative						
Full	2	1	1	2	2	8
Elliptical	4	1	6	5	5	21
Total	**6**	**2**	**7**	**7**	**7**	**29**
Declarative						
Full	20	27	21	14	24	106
Elliptical	0	6	4	4	9	23
Total	**20**	**33**	**25**	**18**	**33**	**129**
Imperative	3	6	7	10	5	31
Minor	9	11	10	11	14	55
Grand Total	**41**	**57**	**56**	**49**	**66**	**269**
Positive polarity	4	7	8	6	9	34
Negation	2	5	2	2	2	13
Total	**6**	**12**	**10**	**8**	**11**	**47**

APPENDIX B

Speech Function



APPENDIX C

Linguistic Dimensions of Thai Learners' Willingness to Communicate

Linguistic Dimensions of Willingness to Communicate			
Communal Behaviors	**Relation to WTC**	**Linguistic Enactment**	**Examples**
Fostering a cooperative atmosphere	Encouraging mutual engagement or contribution from others	- Mood (vocatives)	- Ploy: **Yam** (....) you speak something - Ploy: **Champ**... think of other things please.
	Maintaining a positive working atmosphere	- Mood (positive polarity) - Speech function (positive reacting move) - appraisal (affect+ and/or judgment+)	- Yam: **Yes** - Ploy: I **agree** with you - Ploy: I **like** this question
Encouraging talk	Initiating ideas or demanding feedback or elaboration from others as stimulation of the talk	- Mood (*wh*-/polar interrogative, imperative, declarative) - Speech function (opening and/or rejoinder move)	- Champ: What kind of sports do you like? - **Ploy:** I think wrongful act is easier than the criminal - Yam: Why?
Providing support to other group members	Prolonging one's own talk to provide more information to the interlocutors so that they can more fully understand what is being said and to react accordingly.	- Mood (declaratives, minor) - Speech function (continuing move)	Champ: Do you know composer? **Champ: Like Beethoven.** **Champ: I like Mozart…Mozart**
	Reacting to previous utterances to provide support when they have difficulties using L2, enabling interlocutors to maintain the dialogue	- Mood (declarative, minor) - Speech function (reacting move and/or rejoining move)	**(Use of L1)** Yam: Ai-rai a Syrup? Champ: Nam cherm (In L1) **(Repair)** Yam: I like **cash** Pat: **Clash**

Engaging joint construction of the text	Developing others' utterances by building on ideas and information, as a process of collaboratively completing the group tasks.	- Mood (declarative, imperative, minor) - Speech function (reacting move)	**(Learners helped each other develop talk about the death of John Lennon)** Ploy: It's sad Ploy: Because he is murdered. Champ: He is killed when he walk down the street. Pat: That's sad
Negotiating mutual understandings	Negotiating for the shared meaning by negating and/or tracking for elaboration, clarification, and confirmation.	- Mood (*wh*-/polar interrogative, declarative, negation) - Speech function (reacting and/or tracking move)	Ploy: How was it? Ploy: Do you like it? Yam: It's sad. Yam: The story is strange between friends. **Pat: What do you mean?** Yam: Friends and friends love each other. Yam: I don't like.
Engaging others to negotiate their positions	Enabling others to negotiate their positions or stances. These resources can stimulate others to be a part of the talk by providing feedback.	- Appraisal (heterogloss: disclaim, proclaim, entertain, attribute)	- Ploy: **I think** we can change the topic. - Yam: **But** I **don't** want to say - Deaw: The teacher **said** that we have to present today.

Speaking / Conversation / Pronunciation

Teaching Your Tongue to Talk: Intensive Pronunciation Instruction

Rheanne Anderson
RMIT University Vietnam, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam

Many ESL/EFL practitioners face challenges in supporting learner pronunciation needs. The depth and breadth of learner pronunciation problems differ greatly across L1s; and therefore, practitioner exposure to pronunciation issues will also differ. While many teachers value *why* we need to teach pronunciation and usually know *what* sounds to focus on, there are limited resources available for understanding *how*. Although there has been a wealth of scholarship in linguistics in terms of contrastive analysis, there has been little attention paid to articulatory phonetics in terms of its teaching methodologies. This paper seeks to address an apparent gap in literature on Mechanical Sound Production (MSP), with particular reference to pronunciation instruction in Vietnam. The findings of an exploratory pronunciation project designed to support learners in their accurate and comprehensible formation of sounds show successes in learner competence, confidence, and comprehension although challenges in motivation, assessment, and teacher fear are also discussed.

“Pronunciation is a crucial ‘first-level hurdle’ for learners to master” (Iwashita, Brown, McNamara, & O’Hagan, as cited in Yates, Zielinski, & Pryor, 2011).

I. Background Issues for Vietnamese Learners of English

At our international university in Vietnam (RMIT University, Vietnam), the Academic English Preparation (AEP) teachers often deal with extensive learner pronunciation challenges both in and outside of the classroom. One of the biggest differences between English and Vietnamese is that Vietnamese does not have any plosive consonants (e.g., /d/, /p/, or /k/) in medial or final position. This lack of consonant endings in words becomes problematic in English, which consists of many words that end in consonants. For instance, in attempting to say *notebook*, a Vietnamese English language learner may say “noboo” (omitting the /t/ and /k/ needed to clarify the word).

An added difficulty is that English consonant clusters (e.g., /str/, /ks/, /ts/) are mostly omitted or elided at any position in word by many Vietnamese speakers (Tran, n.d.). This is thought to be an extension of the plosive nature of English consonants that does not exist in Vietnamese consonants. For example, *stop* in English becomes “staw” in a Vietnamese learner of English and *common* becomes “comma.”

When the challenges highlighted above are combined, they present difficulties in English language intelligibility. Derwing and Munro (2005) define intelligibility as "the extent to which a listener actually understands an utterance" (p. 385). This difficulty becomes quite clear in specific examples. When a segment of a recording of a Vietnamese English language learner giving an oral presentation was played for teachers with no exposure to Vietnamese English, the written text, *And how to promote and utilize it to increase the profits*, was heard as "An how to uhrewot an oohtehlie iz to inree duh rofi" and was therefore devoid of all meaning. It was incomprehensible to the listeners. This same segment, when played for in-context teachers, was fully comprehensible. Accent familiarization (described in Walker, 2010) may account for a great deal of this perceptual difference, but it highlights the problem of rating pronunciation. The broader implications of this are clear: the students' comprehensibility may not be interchangeable in varied contexts.

This problematic intelligibility does not frequently occur between Vietnamese English speakers; that is, the lack of pronounced/exploded consonants is not a hindrance to understanding within a monolingual L1 classroom. In the example above, although many listeners who were non-Vietnamese and who did not have experience with the speech of Vietnamese learners of English could not identify meaning in the utterance, the student's Vietnamese classmates had no problem in grasping his intended meaning.

II. Issues in Our Context

Reflections from practitioners in our context clearly suggest that student intelligibility is a concern. Furthermore, as all classes are taught in the medium of English, intelligibility is a great barrier for lecturers in the degree and diploma programs (who are not language teachers), who have problems understanding the students. As an English-medium university, our graduates are often sought after by international companies based in Vietnam. It could be argued that basic intelligibility issues may present challenges for our learners in future international work environments.

We also share the difficulties of motivation and pronunciation assessment that are currently prevalent in the field. Firstly, as Elliot (1995) discusses, motivation remains an intrinsic need for pronunciation learning. Teacher reflection on learner motivation in our AEP context suggests that there is a lack of student perceived need. Student motivation in pronunciation may be weakened by two unique forces. Teachers acquire accent familiarization (the situation of speech becoming more comprehensible the longer you experience it) and that may affect their ability to objectively assess speech, as Munro and Derwing's (2006) theory suggests. Also, our students seem to understand each other, given their shared L1 and common mis-approximations of English speech. Assessment is another area in which there is a need for more agreement among theorists and clarity in practice. There are actually two sub-issues: how intelligibility should be assessed and who should assess it. Accent familiarization is a large stumbling block in any pronunciation assessment and something that IELTS is currently researching.

Above, throughout, and driving all the other challenges is what some may refer to as "teacher fear." Fraser (2000) claims that there is a "widespread lack of confidence and lack of effectiveness [in pronunciation teaching] of general ESL teachers teaching general English" (p. 1). She highlights a need for "courses and materials to help them improve their effectiveness in teaching pronunciation" (p. 2).

Many teacher preparation programs do not focus on pronunciation teaching, and if they do, they rarely take the Mechanical Sound Production (MSP) approach. Many linguists receive this kind of training, but its practical use in the ESL/EFL classroom is missing from many ELT preparation programs. Add this lack of confidence in skills and techniques to the lack of published material on MSP, and the result is intimidated teachers.

III. The Focus of This Paper

In response to this multi-layered context, an exploratory program was designed that focused specifically on Mechanical Sound Production (MSP). The MSP technique developed for this program is grounded in Articulatory Phonetics (Bickford & Floyd, 2006), but combines that with minimal pairs (most famously, Baker, 2006) and exaggerated mouth positions (discussed in Rightmire, 2006). In essence, MSP involves scaffolding movements required to make the sound-essentially an approach of "building from the mouth up." By supporting the students with modified levels of instruction and then offering practice that involved moving the different parts of the mouth, the aim was to facilitate students to be able to make the sounds that they kept skipping or missing due to L1 interference.

Choosing MSP was a conscious decision in approaching our pronunciation issues from a new perspective. MSP moves away from traditional methods (*Audiolingualism,* Bloomfield) or the instinctual practices from first language instruction (see c*ritical periods* publications, notably in Johnson & Newport, 1989), such as "listen and repeat," in order to better align our practice with second language acquisition. Davis (1976) and, more recently, Young (2012) have argued that simply saying the sound/word to the students will not help them be able to say it back. While hearing the word spoken accurately by the teacher may help student receptive skills, in terms of production, this very common approach may not be the most effective. Imitating the sound that is heard may fail for a variety of reasons, such as poor reception of the sound, which therefore makes producing it difficult, but also because the produced speech may be only an approximated version of the sound.

IV. The MSP Technique

As previously stated, MSP focuses on the mouth, specifically the tongue, teeth, lips, and jaw. In approaching each sound, it is imperative to work extensively with mirrors. Mirrors allow students to actually see what their mouths are doing. The technique gives the students the time and space to build the sound's mechanics with the teacher through trial (at first, with exaggerated mouth movements) to noticing and explicit instruction (clearly explaining the positioning of the mouth components). The technique has been developed to describe and teach all sounds of English; as an example, the lesson built around the pairing of /s/ with "soft th" (i.e., voiceless) would start with students building the mechanical production model as in Table 1.

TABLE 1. MSP Technique for /s/ and "soft th"

/s/		Soft th	
Teeth	The teeth are touching, although not clenched, for /s/.	**Teeth**	Teeth are slightly apart.
Tongue	The tongue is placed behind the teeth, close to, but not touching, the teeth.	**Tongue**	The tongue is placed between the teeth but outside the mouth; the tip should be relaxed and put beyond the lips.
Lips	Can be made with little or no lip movement, but in an exaggerated pose the lips are pulled back into a wide smile (to differentiate from "soft th," which needs lips to be pursed).	**Lips**	Relaxed.
Jaw	Closed.	**Jaw**	Slightly open.

V. THE EXPLORATORY PROGRAM

A. Participants

Sixteen RMIT University, Vietnam, student volunteers from the Academic English Preparation Program upper levels (Intermediate to Advanced) were given the opportunity to join a specially designed pronunciation class outside regular class time. These students were, by simply volunteering, showing a higher motivation level than their non-participating classmates. This greater motivation, however, did not also mean a greater accuracy or proficiency with English sounds when the students started the class. When the students started the pronunciation class they all demonstrated the common problems Vietnamese speakers of English encounter (as discussed above).

B. Schedule

The class consisted of 20 hours of instruction spread over 4 weeks, 1 hour a day. The classes were kept small, at only 8 participants per class. This was consciously done to better facilitate the cooperative building of the mechanical process mentioned earlier, as smaller classes can allow students to easily work with each other under the guidance of the teacher. Small classes also allow the teacher to give appropriate support to each student and to move away from choral listen-and-repeat strategies.

C. Curriculum Plan

Each day's lesson plan was identical in approach. A pair of sounds, almost always in a voiced/voiceless pair, was introduced — the pedagogical choice being predicated upon the similarities in movement (i.e., there is no mouth placement difference but simply a difference in voicing). The sounds were scaffolded over the four weeks, beginning with the most easily attained sounds based on both the similarities it shared with Vietnamese sounds, but more importantly, based on the amount of mouth movements needed to produce the sound.

TABLE 2. Curriculum Overview

Week	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5
Week 1	Pre-recording	Initial Overview	/p/b/	/d/t/	Review
Week 2	/k/g/	/i/I/	/f/v/	/l/r/	Review
Week 3	ah-uh	s-sh	aw-oi	soft th-s	Review
Week 4	hard th - d - t	sh-ch	ch-hard j	sh-zh	Review & Post-recording

For example, the sound pair of /p/b/ was chosen to be the first sound as its pronunciation requires only a popping of the lips. The rolling of the lips over the upper and lower teeth is the movement that is necessary. The speaker then simply has to push air out of the mouth to produce a pop that will accurately produce the sound /p/, all that is needed for /b/ is the addition of voicing. From this very simple movement set, the curriculum guides the students through to the more complex "ch" and "hard j" sounds, which require tongue, lip, and jaw movements.

The impetus for designing identical stages in each day's lesson plan was to allow the students to easily predict the pattern of learning and give them the opportunity to play with the sound long before it was used in words. The hope was that if the sound was separated from any word, then any previous fossilization (errors that have become ingrained) could be avoided. The lesson plan moved from this discovery of the mechanical process through to minimal pairs and then finally to a somewhat freer practice of a dialogue. Each dialogue was written to reflect the sound pair of that lesson, therefore reinforcing the new knowledge.

D. Assessment

The exploratory program used a modified version of Parlak's (2010) model of rating intelligibility. It was chosen as the best tool available for rating comprehensibility of second language learner speech before and after an intervention program. Parlak's tool was a two-part system that asked the volunteer to transcribe audio into the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) as well as rate the comprehensibility of the speech on a 7-point Likert scale. The current program used only a modified version of his Likert scale as a pre- and post-test. Raters were native speakers chosen from non-Vietnamese, non-teaching contexts to avoid accent familiarization.

TABLE 3. Daily Lesson Plan

Lesson Stage	Time	Interaction	Activity
Review	>1 min.	S-S-T	Review of tongue twister from previous lesson.
Presentation	15 min.	T focus; S focus	Present and practice new tongue twister Present sound; use mirrors. Brainstorm words with that sound.
Practice	20 min.	T-S; S-S	Make a list of minimal pairs. Drill minimal pairs: Teacher productive model. Student productive model. Student receptive model. Play "Pronunciation Journey" or similar game.
Production	10 min.	S-S	Practice dialogues containing target sounds. Present dialogues to the class.
Review	1-2 min.	S-S-T	Recap tongue twister from current session.

There are, however, some theoretical questions about the exact definition of intelligibility and difficulties in deciding who should be a rater. Although Munro and Derwing's (2005) definition is well regarded in the field, even that definition does not outline how intelligibility is to be measured, let alone how it can be a universal tool of objectivity. They rightly claim that the current approaches to measuring intelligibility should not be taken on their own as each reflects a different aspect of speech. For example, Parlak's original model of transcription depends not only on the rater being fully conversant in transcription but also focuses on individual sounds rather than word recognition.

VI. PROGRAM SUCCESSES

The following observations demonstrated program success:

1. Student feedback was very positive, with interest, competence, and confidence being reported to have increased. As will be seen further in the discussion, the use of these self-descriptors is, in fact, quite an achievement in itself.
2. Positive effects were also reported from the regular classroom teachers who were not involved in the extra lessons. Teachers who had students in their regular classes who were also participating in the extra pronunciation lessons reported that intelligibility in these students rose. One teacher reported finally being able to understand a student in one of the many on-going assessed speaking tasks; this understanding led her to be able to finally engage with the student on an idea level, rather than just a comprehension level. She reported that when she could stop trying to decode the utterances into speech that was intelligible to her, she was then free to deal with the logic of the statements.
3. Raters reflected a 15% increase in intelligibility between the pre-and post-tests. Given the aforementioned theoretical issues with assessing pronunciation (see Munro & Derwing, 2006, and Parlak, 2010), this finding needs to be solidified with further research, but it is promising.

VII. Future Directions

With the challenges ahead in the field, even thinking about how to teach pronunciation to your own class full of students may seem overwhelming. Yet there is effective work that can be done in with large classes. MSP allows any teacher to pass on sound production techniques to students in an accurate way that can easily become uptake for students. This can become the cornerstone of a pronunciation intervention program, or it can be used in conjunction with any curriculum. It can be taught in the form of one-off lessons or as a broader program that focusses specifically on challenging sounds. In other words, MSP may get students over Iwashita, Brown, McNamara, and O'Hagan's (2008) "first hurdle."

Future research opportunities pertain to questions of:

- how to make effective and motivating instruction for students
- how to make easy and effective curriculum for teachers
- how rubrics can be better designed to reflect comprehensibility (Lynda Yates, Beth Zielinski, and Elizabeth Pryor are currently working on refining IELTS rubrics for pronunciation rating.)

However, teachers should not let these big questions get in the way of getting on with the task. The answers may lie in the kind of classroom interventions laid out in this paper. We as a pronunciation community of practice need to contribute to the body of knowledge and the published literature on pronunciation teaching.

The Author

Rheanne Anderson has been an educator in the Academic English Preparation program at RMIT University Vietnam for two years. Rheanne is from Canada and has spent 13 years teaching English in Japan, China, South Korea, Canada, and Poland, as well as her previous post in a teacher training role for the Ministry of Education in the United Arab Emirates. She is particularly interested in the teaching of pronunciation and its methodology. Rheanne has presented at CamTESOL and KOTESOL, as well as at many in-house professional development sessions. Rheanne holds a Masters of Education in Second Language Acquisition through the Ontario Institute of Studies in Education, University of Toronto. Email: rheanne.anderson@rmit.edu.vn

References

Baker, A. (2006). *Ship or sheep? An intermediate pronunciation course* (3rd ed.). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Bickford, A. C., & Floyd, R. (2006). *Articulatory phonetics: Tools for analysing the world's languages* (4th ed.). Dallas, TX, USA: Summer Institute of Linguistics.

Davies, N. (1976). Receptive versus productive skills in foreign language learning. *The Modern Language Journal, 60*(8), 440-443. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.1976.tb03667.x

Elliot, A. R. (1995). Field independence/dependence, hemispheric specialization, and attitude in relation to pronunciation accuracy in Spanish as a foreign language. *The*

Modern Language Journal, 79(3), 356-371. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.1995.tb01112.x

Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. J, (2005). Second language accent and pronunciation teaching: A research-based approach. *TESOL Quarterly, 39*, 379-398.

Fraser, H. (2000). *Coordinating improvements in pronunciation teaching for adult learners of English as a second language*. Retrieved from http://helenfraser.com.au/downloads/ANTA%20REPORT%20FINAL.pdf

IELTS. (2012). *IELTS speaking band descriptors (public version)*. Retrieved from https://www.teachers.cambridgeesol.org/ts/digitalAssets/114292_IELTS_Speaking_Band_Descriptors.pdf

Iwashita, N., Brown, A., McNamara, T., & O'Hagan, S. (2008). What features of language distinguish levels of learner proficiency? In-depth analysis of task performance in the context of the speaking scale development. *Applied Linguistics, 29*(1), 29-49.

Johnson, J. S., & Newport, E. L. (1989). Critical period effects in second language learning: The influence of maturational state on the acquisition of English as a second language. *Cognitive Psychology, 21*, 60-99.

Le, N., & Cunningham, U. (2010). *Transfer from Vietnamese in English consonants in students from international schools and Vietnamese schools in Vietnam*. Retrieved from http://aelc.edu.vn/media/Transfer_from_Vietnamese_in_English_consonants_in_students_from_International_schools_and_Vietnamese_schools_in_Vietnam%20.pdf

Munroe, M. J., & Derwing, T. M. (2006). The mutual intelligibility of L2 speech. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*(1), 111-131. doi:10.1017/S0272263106060049

Parlak, O. (2010, March). *Does pronunciation instruction promote intelligibility and comprehensibility?* Paper presented at the annual meeting for TESOL, Boston, MA, USA.

Rightmire, R. (2006). Stumbling blocks to stepping stones: Shortcuts to intelligible pronunciation. *Proceedings of the CATESOL State Conference*. Retrieved from http://catesol.org/Rightmire.pdf

TOEFL. (2010). *TOEFL iBT test independent speaking rubrics (scoring standards)*. Retrieved from http://www.ets.org/Media/Tests/TOEFL/pdf/Independent_Speaking_Rubrics_2008.pdf

Tran Thi Lan. (n.d.). *9 essential English pronunciations in the Vietnamese context*. Retrieved from http://www.britishcouncil.org/9_essential_english_pronunciation_in_the_vietnamese_context.doc

Walker, R. (2010). *Teaching the pronunciation of English as a lingua franca*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Yates, L., Zelinski, B., & Pryor, E. (2011). *The assessment of pronunciation and the new IELTS pronunciation scale*. (Report No. 12-1). Retrieved from http://www.ielts.org/PDF/vol12_report1.pdf

Young, R. (2012). Teaching pronunciation efficiently means not using "Listen and Repeat." *Teaching Times: The TESOL France Magazine, 63*, 18.

SELECTED ONLINE RESOURCES

http://www.rachelsenglish.com/
http://www.uiowa.edu/~acadtech/phonetics/
http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/grammar/pron
http://www.shiporsheep.com/

Effect of Discrimination Training on the Production of Non-native Phonemes

Yoko Kusumoto
Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Tokyo, Japan

It is well known that the English phonemes /r/-/l/ and /s/-/Θ/ are problematic for Japanese learners of English, and previous research points to the lack of contrast distinction in Japanese phonology to account for this (Cairns, 1988; Goto, 1971; Miyawaki, Strange, Verbrugge, Liberman, Ienkins, & Fujimura, 1975). Yet a number of studies (Bradlow, Akahane-Yamada, Pisoni, & Tohkura, 1999; Bradlow, Pisoni, Yamada, & Tohkura, 1997 McCandliss, Fiez, Protopapas, Conway, & McClelland, 2002; McClelland, Fiez, & McCandliss, 2002) have suggested that adult Japanese speakers who started studying English after the critical period can improve their ability to distinguish these contrasts perceptually by training. This study examined the effects of oral practice by Japanese English learners of non-native sounds such as /r/-/l/ and /s/-/Θ/ on phoneme recognition. A total of 36 Japanese college students (22 students in the control group and 14 students in the treatment group) participated in the current study. Comparing pre-test and post-test scores, participants in the treatment group significantly improved their production test scores while there was no significant difference in the control group. In contrast, neither group improved their perception test scores. This paper reports on the effectiveness of training English learners of other languages to improve their pronunciation.

I. Introduction

The concepts of world Englishes and English as a lingua franca have become popular in the last few decades, and many linguists question the use of native speaker pronunciation models in English teaching. Some researchers argue that English learners should have ownership of English, and they do not need to attain native-like pronunciation (Higgins, 2003; Jenkins, 2000, 2002, 2006; McKay, 2002). The argument is that native speakers have different accents depending on the region where they were born and live. Therefore, the accents of speakers of English as a lingua franca (ELF) should be accepted in the same way. Pronunciation accuracy may not be so important where English is spoken as a lingua franca and used among people of different mother tongues, including native English speakers, for communication. In ELF contexts such as Korea and Japan, incorrect or ungrammatical usage is less problematic because being able to communicate is more important, and Jenkins (2000, 2002) argued that English learners do not have to adapt to native speaker norms. However, accuracy is still quite important because lack of it may also cause misunderstandings and intelligibility problems (Jenkins, 2002). It would be ideal to make ourselves understood to interlocutors within contexts both where English is used as a lingua franca and where English is the primary language for communication, such as in North America, Australia, and Britain.

II. Literature Review

Although second language (L2) accents have been a topic of discussion in the field of second language acquisition for a long time, the study of pronunciation has been marginalized in the field of applied linguistics (Derwing & Munro, 2005). Much less research has been conducted on L2 pronunciation than on other areas such as grammar and vocabulary. Moreover, most of the studies on Japanese pronunciation were conducted a few decades ago, and there do not appear to be any recent studies.

A. The /r/ and /l/ Distinction

A Japanese accent is recognizable by the lack of /r/-/l/ distinctions (Major, 2001), and the difference between the liquid consonants /r/ and /l/ is one of the most well-known and well-documented examples of the difficulty that Japanese learners of English face in distinguishing sounds (Bradlow et al., 1997; Bradlow et al., 1999; Goto, 1971; McCandliss et al., 2002; Miyawaki et al., 1975; Mochizuki, 1981). Several studies have been conducted to examine the identification of /r/ and /l/ (Goto, 1971; Miyawaki et al., 1975; Mochizuki, 1981). The /r/-/l/ contrast is not distinctive in Japanese phonology, and adult Japanese learners of English have great difficulty producing this contrast appropriately. They also have difficulty in perceptually differentiating these phonemes in minimal pairs from examples of natural speech in American English (Mochizuki, 1981). Both /r/ and /l/ are perceived as the same consonant by Japanese speakers (Miyawaki et al., 1975).

B. Training on /r/ and /l/ Identification

Earlier studies (Goto, 1971; Miyawaki et al., 1975; Mochizuki, 1981) focus on describing difficulties with the identification of /r/ and /l/. Later studies (Bradlow et al., 1997 Bradlow et al., 1999; McCandliss et al., 2002; McClelland et al., 2002) examined the effects of training adult Japanese speakers in /r/-/l/ perceptual identification. In Bradlow et al.'s (1997) study, participants living in Japan improved their accuracy by 16% in /r/-/l/ identification after four weeks of training while the control group did not demonstrate any improvement. Although 16% improvement is still substantially poorer than near-perfect identification accuracy, researchers considered the results of the study to be a substantial improvement for their subjects. The study also showed that the Japanese speakers' production was improved after they received training, even though no production training was provided. A similar investigation of Japanese participants living in the United States conducted by McClelland et al. (2002) showed that feedback can have substantial effects on the outcome of learning.

C. The Effect of Age and Individual Experience

In addition to phonetics, the time when Japanese start learning English may influence why they have difficulty perceiving and producing some L2 sounds appropriately. Studies of age-related effects on L2 pronunciation have led researchers to conclude that L2 speech learning must occur during the critical period in order to be fully effective (Flege, 1987, 1999; Flege, Frieda, & Nozawa, 1997; Long, 1990; Major, 2001). The critical period hypothesis states that there is a specific developmental period during which it is possible to acquire a language, L1 or L2, to normal, native-like levels. Once this period has passed, the ability to learn the language declines (Birdsong, 1999). Long (1990) concluded that the ability to attain native-like phonological abilities in a second language begins to decline by the age of six, and the L2 is usually spoken with an accent if learning begins after the age of 12 years, and with variable success between the ages of 6 and 12. Japanese people start studying English as a foreign language at the age of 10 or 11, which is the beginning of puberty, and therefore beyond the critical period. This could be one of the reasons why Japanese EFL (English as a foreign language) learners have problems with pronunciation.

Although it is widely accepted that this critical period has effects on phonological abilities, speech perception is altered by an individual's language experience (Zhang, Kuhl, Imada, Kotani, & Tohkura, 2005). Flege et al. (1997) assessed the effect of the amount of L1 use on L2 pronunciation accuracy. The results suggest that the degree of activation of the L1 or the strength of its representations may influence L2 pronunciation. Given the language experience of Japanese EFL learners in Japan and their limited opportunities to use English in daily life, it is perhaps inevitable that their English is highly inflected with Japanese pronunciation.

III. Purpose of the Study

Overall, existing data positively suggests that the mechanisms of language perception are not completely fixed in adulthood. However, studies on training language production of Japanese English learners have not been conducted sufficiently. Therefore, the main purpose of this research paper is to report on an exploratory study that investigates the effectiveness of training production and the relationship between perception and production. Mochizuki's (1981) /r/-/l/ identification study was replicated in this study as the perception test, and a production test based on Mochizuki's perception study was developed. The production test part for this study adapts the procedure followed in Bradlow et al.'s (1997) study, which attempted to describe the relationship by comparing the Japanese participants' ability to perceive and their ability to produce non-native sounds, i.e., /r/-/l/ contrast. In addition to /r/-/l/ contrast, "think" and "sink" pose a problem because the Japanese language lacks the dental fricative /Θ/ contained in English. Japanese does not make phonemic distinction between the alveolar fricative /s/ and the dental fricative /Θ/. The dental fricative /Θ/ is a non-native sound to Japanese, so Japanese learners of English tend to hear /s/, which is the closest Japanese sound (Cairns, 1988). The non-native sound /Θ/

will be assimilated to the most similar Japanese sound and is often produced as /s/ by Japanese speakers. There are some other sounds that Japanese speakers have difficulties in discriminating between. Included in the present study are /s/-/θ/, and other sound contrasts such as /s/-/ʃ/ and /b/-/v/. The other sound contrasts will be explained more in the methods section. This study seeks, first, to examine whether it is possible to train adults to pronounce speech sounds with which they have great difficulty initially, and second, to examine the relationship between perception ability and production ability. Accordingly, the following research questions were posed:

1) Is it possible to train Japanese adults to produce non-native sounds such as /r/-/l/ and /s/-/θ/ contrasts?
2) Does the knowledge gained from pronunciation learning of /r/-/l/, /s/-/θ/, and other contrasts transfer to perceptual identification?

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 36 native speakers of Japanese attending Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU). They were first-year university students and were enrolled in Elementary English at the time of data collection. Their language proficiency levels in English based on TOEFL ITP scores varied, ranging from 340 to 417. Twenty-five students were enrolled in each class, Class A and Class B; however, international students and those who did not take either the pre-test or post-test were eliminated from the results. Thus, 22 students (14 females and 8 males) in Class A served as the control subjects, and 14 students (7 females and 7 males) in Class B served as the treatment subjects, who received pronunciation training. The students in the control group participated only in pre- and post-tests. Two native speakers of American English participated. One of them produced the minimal-pair words for a perception test. The other participant acted as the production test judge and evaluated Japanese participants' utterances.

B. Procedure

The general design of the present study had four phases: a perception test phase, a production test phase, a production training phase, and a production evaluation phase. This study adopts Mochizuki's (1981) identification test and Bradlow et al.'s (1997) production test procedure. Model pronunciations by a native speaker of American English were used for training. Eight contrasts, the liquid /r/-/l/, the voiceless alveolar fricative /s/ and the voiceless interdental fricative /θ/, the voiceless alveolar fricative /s/ and the voiceless alveopalatal fricative /ʃ/, the voiceless labiodental fricative /f/ and the voiced labiodental fricative /v/, the voiceless labiodental fricative /f/ and the voiceless glottal fricative /h/, the voiced bilabial stop /b/ and the voiced labiodental fricative /v/, the voiced alveolar stop /d/ and the voiced interdental fricative /ð/, and the voiced alveolar fricative /z/ and the voiced interdental fricative /ð/, were chosen because they were considered "difficult" for Japanese learners of English (Guion, Flege, Akahane-Yamada, & Pruitt, 2000; Uchida, 2008). The Japanese participants listened to 100 words in English minimal pairs; that is, words that differ by only one phoneme, such as *rock/lock* and *sink/think*. The English minimal pair words were produced by a male native speaker of American English. For the production test, the Japanese participants were asked to produce the 100 words, and the Japanese participants' utterances were recorded for later presentation to a native speaker of English for evaluation. Participants in both the treatment group and the control group took the pre-test on perception and the production test in the second week, and they took the same tests as the post-tests in the thirteenth week of the fifteen-week course. Participants in the treatment group had 10-15 minutes' pronunciation practice during the 95-minute class, four days a week over five weeks. Only the treatment group received the pronunciation training in addition to the regular lesson in the Elementary English course while the control group had the regular lesson only. The Japanese participants' pronunciation was judged by a native speaker of English for the production evaluation. A mark was given only when the student produced the target phonemes correctly, and other aspects of pronunciation were ignored.

V. RESULTS

A. Results of Production Training

Table 1 shows the participants' test scores for pre- and post-tests on production. As can be seen in Figure 1 as well as in Table 1, all participants except Subject 1 and Subject 13 were able to improve their production after receiving pronunciation training and performed much better on the post-test. Although Subjects 1 and 13 performed worse on the post-test, they scored quite high on both pre- and post-test. Two participants, Subjects 5 and 9, had difficulty producing the target sounds (43% and 34%, respectively) however, they showed significant improvement. Subject 5 improved 36 points and Subject 9 improved 30 points.

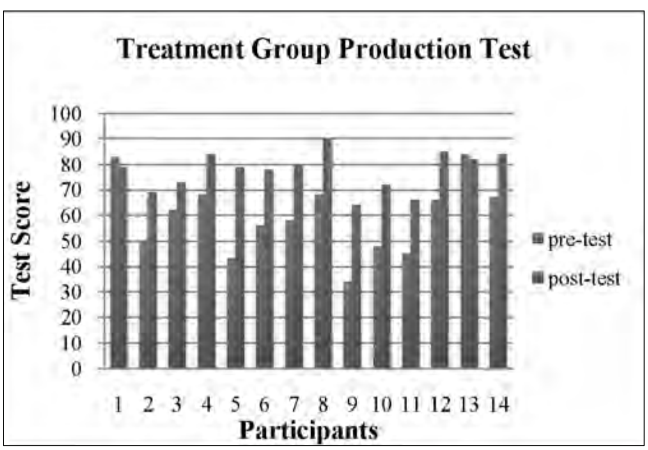


FIGURE 1. Production performance contrast at pre-test and post-test.

TABLE 1. Treatment Group Production Test Scores

Subjects	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
1	83	79	-4
2	50	69	19
3	62	73	11
4	68	84	16
5	43	79	36
6	56	78	22
7	58	80	22
8	68	90	22
9	34	64	30
10	48	72	24
11	45	66	21
12	66	85	19
13	84	82	-2
14	67	84	17

Figure 2 is a comparison of production performance contrast at the pre- and post-tests according to the phonetic sound contrasts. As can be seen, all contrasts are improved after the training. Before the participants received the training, the/z/-/ð/ contrast as in *breeze* and *breathe,* the /r/-/l/ contrast as in *right* and *light*, and the/s/-/Θ/ contrast as in *sink* and *think* were particularly difficult for the participants to pronounce. As the result of the training, participants showed significant improvement in /s/-/Θ/ with 27% improvement and in /d/-/ð/, /z/-/ð/, and /r/-/l/with 23% improvement.

TABLE 2. Difficulties According to Phonetic Contrast

Pre-test		Degree of Difficulty	Post-test	
f-h	81%	Easier	d-ð	86%
f-v	76%		f-h	84%
d-ð	63%		f-v	82%
b-v	63%		s-Θ	81%
s-ʃ	58%		r-l	77%
s-Θ	54%		b-v	75%
r-l	54%		z-ð	71%
z-ð	48%	More difficult	s-ʃ	60%

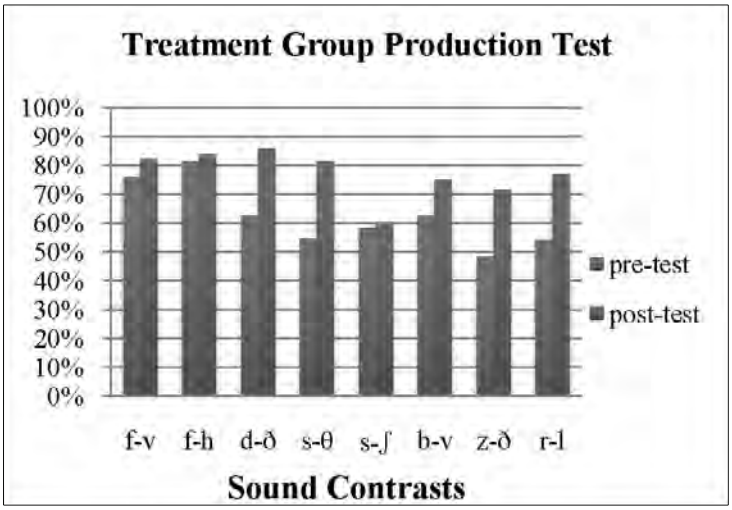


FIGURE 2. Production performance according to contrast.

As can be seen in Table 2 and Figure 2, the results of the present study show that the voiceless labiodental fricative /f/ and the voiceless glottal fricative /h/ contrast, and the voiceless labiodental fricative /f/ and the voiced labiodental fricative /v/ contrast are easier for Japanese learners of English to produce. However, the voiceless alveolar fricative /s/ and the voiceless alveopalatal fricative /ʃ/ contrast was quite difficult to produce even after receiving the pronunciation training the participants improved by only 2%.

B. Relationship Between the Perception Test and Production Test

Figure 3 shows a comparison of the production test between the control group and the treatment group. As a result of the pronunciation training, most of the participants in the treatment group performed better on the production post-test. The average score improved 18.1 points, from 59.4 points on the pre-test to 77.5 points on the post-test, while the control group did not show noticeable differences in pre- and post-tests scores (1.3% improvement). On average, the trained participants showed substantial gains in production accuracy. Thus, we can conclude that Japanese adult English learners can be trained to produce sounds accurately. As for the perception test, however, neither the control group nor the treatment group showed noticeable improvement (see Figure 4). As for the comparison of the perception tests of the treatment group, the difference between pre- and post-tests was only 2.5%. In Bradlow et al.'s (1997) study, after receiving perceptual training, participants improved their production automatically (16% improvement). Therefore, the researchers concluded that the transfer of knowledge gained in perceptual identification training to production ability did occur. In the current study, the knowledge gained from production learning did not transfer to that of perception.

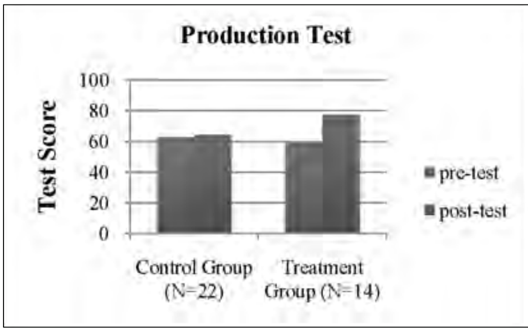


FIGURE 3. Comparison of production tests between control and treatment groups.

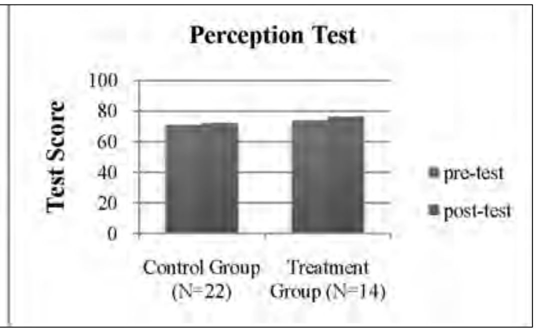


FIGURE 4. Comparison of perception tests between control and treatment groups.

VI. DISCUSSION

A. Summary

The main goal of this study was to explore the effectiveness of training production and to examine the relationship between perception and production. In answer to the first research question, the results of this study confirmed that it is possible to train Japanese adults to produce non-native sounds. In answer to the second research question, the results do not show any evidence of a noticeable relationship between perception ability and production ability. As was previously noted, some studies on perception and perceptual training have been conducted on Japanese adult learners of English. Among these studies, one piece of research claimed that production ability was automatically improved without direct production training by improving perception ability. In Bradlow et al.'s (1997) study, the results suggest the knowledge gained from perceptual training transferred to production (16% improvement). However, a significant transfer was not observed in the current study (2.5% improvement). Thus, the results do not support the idea that the knowledge gained from pronunciation learning may transfer to perceptual identification.

B. Limitations

The use of only one judge in the evaluation of L2 production was one of the drawbacks in this study. An English native-speaker participant rated all 36 participants' 100 contrast utterances. If there were multiple judges, the results of the evaluation on the production test might be different and more reliable.

Another limitation of this study is the production test procedure. Some of the participants did not know how to pronounce several words. For example, many participants did not know how to pronounce *breathe* and pronounced it [breΘ] instead of [brið], and the rater circled "neither of them" on the answer sheet for the given *breathe-breed* minimal pair. Such mispronunciation leads to lower scores. Therefore, a model pronunciation should be given in addition to the word list to ensure more accurate results. In addition, not having a large number of minimal pair words could be another reason for the unexpected results.

In regards to the Japanese participants' production, because a list of English words was provided, the participants' articulation might have been influenced by the visual stimuli. If the definition or translation of English words were given in Japanese, and if they had to pronounce the words based on their knowledge, the result might be different. This would be more appropriate for examining the relationship between perception ability and production ability. Spelling often raises one's awareness of articulation. Therefore, the production test procedure should have been designed more carefully.

VII. CONCLUSION

Jenkins (2000, 2002) supported ELF pronunciation and claimed that it enhances rather than damages English learners' future social and economic prospects. Although the position of researchers in the world Englishes field is understood, this author believes that articulation is very important and should be taught in school. If learners want to improve their English pronunciation, training on perceptual discrimination seems to be more effective than training on production since substantial transfer occurs from perception to production, not vice versa. As was previously noted, some studies on perception and perceptual training have been conducted on Japanese adult learners of English. Along with such studies, numerous studies have suggested that many L2 production difficulties are rooted in perception. Moreover, Prator and Robinett (1985) claimed that success in pronunciation depends largely on the sharpness of the ear. Yule, Hoffman, and Damico (1987) also asserted that the crucial component in developing effective L2 pronunciation is the development of listening skills. For pronunciation teaching, teachers can use teaching time effectively by allocating time according to the contrasts since some contrasts are more difficult to produce and perceive.

This study was exploratory in nature. Although the transfer of knowledge gained in production training to perception did not occur in the current study, we cannot conclude from this small exploratory study that transfer from production to perception does not occur because of the limitations of the study future studies require many refinements in the choice and construction of measurement instruments.

THE AUTHOR

Yoko Kusumoto is presently teaching at the Center for Language Education, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University in Japan. She holds a MA in Second Language Studies from the University of Hawaii. She has taught English at the university level in Japan and Thailand as well as at a junior high school. Her interests include SLA, language teaching, teacher education, and program development and evaluation. Email: yokokusu@apu.ac.jp

REFERENCES

Birdsong, D. (1999). *Second language acquisition and the critical period hypothesis.*

Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
Bradlow, A. R., Akahane-Yamada, R., Pisoni, D. B., & Tohkura, Y. (1999). Training the Japanese listener to identify English /r/ and /l/: Long-term relation of learning in speech perception and production. *Perception & Psychophysics, 61*, 977-985.
Bradlow, A. R., Pisoni, D. B., Yamada, R. A., & Tohkura, Y. (1997). Training Japanese listeners to identify English /r/ and /l/: IV. Some effects of perceptual learning on speech production. *Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, 101*, 299-310.
Cairns, R. S. (1988). Hearing and articulating /s/ in English and Japanese. *Cross Currents, 15*, 47-56.
Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. J. (2005). Second language accent and pronunciation teaching: A research-based approach. *TESOL Quarterly, 39*(3), 379-397.
Flege, J. E. (1987). A critical period for learning to pronounce foreign languages? *Applied Linguistics, 8*, 162-177.
Flege, J. E. (1999). Age of learning and second-language speech. In D. P. Birdsong (Ed.), *Second language acquisition and the critical period hypothesis* (pp. 101-132). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
Flege, J., Frieda, E., & Nozawa, T. (1997). Amount of native-language (L1) use affects the pronunciation of an L2. *Journal of Phonetics, 25*, 169-186.
Goto, H. (1971). Auditory perception by normal Japanese adults of the sounds “L” and “R.” *Neuropsychologia, 9*, 317-323.
Guion, S. G., Flege, J. E., Akahane-Yamada, R., & Pruitt, J. C. (2000). An investigation of current models of second language speech perception: The case of Japanese adults’ perception of English consonants. *Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, 107*, 2711-2724.
Higgins, C. (2003). “Ownership” of English in the Outer Circle: An alternative to the NS-NNS dichotomy. *TESOL Quarterly, 37*, 615-644.
Jenkins, J. (2000). *The phonology of English as an international language: New models, new norms, new goals*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
Jenkins, J. (2002). A sociolinguistically based, empirically researched pronunciation syllabus for English as an International Language. *Applied Linguistics, 23*, 83-103.
Jenkins, J. (2006). Current perspectives on teaching English, world Englishes, and English as a lingua franca. *TESOL Quarterly, 40*, 157-181.
Long, M. (1990). Maturational constraints on language development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 12*, 251-285.
Major, R. C. (2001). *Foreign accent: The ontogeny and phylogeny of second language phonology*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
McCandliss, B. D., Fiez, J. A., Protopapas, A., Conway, M., & McClelland, J. L. (2002). Success and failure in teaching the [r]-[l] contrast to Japanese adults: Tests of a Hebbian model of plasticity and stabilization in spoken language perception. *Cognitive, Affective, and Behavioral Neuroscience, 2*, 89-108.
McClelland, J. L., Fiez, J. A., & McCandliss, B. D. (2002). Teaching the /r/-/l/ discrimination to Japanese adults: Behavioral and neural aspects. *Physiology and Behavior, 77*, 657-662.
McKay, S. L. (2002). *Teaching English as an international language: Rethinking goals and perspectives*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
Miyawaki, K., Strange, W., Verbrugge, R., Liberman, A. M., Ienkins, I. I., & Fujimura, O. (1975). An affect of linguistic experience: The discrimination of [r] and [l] by native speakers of Japanese and English. *Perception and Psychophysics, 18*, 331-340.
Mochizuki, M. (1981). The identification of /r/ and /l/ in natural and synthesized speech. *Journal of Phonetics, 9*, 283-303.
Prator, C. H., Jr., & Robinette, B. W. (1985). *Manual of American English pronunciation* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.
Uchida, H. (2008). A benefit of pronunciation training: How orally practicing unfamiliar

phonemes can positively affect aural identification of these phonemes. *Tottir University of Environmental Studies Kiyo, 6,* 39-48.

Yule, G., Hoffman, P., & Damico, J. (1987). Paying attention to pronunciation: The role of self-monitoring in perception. *TESOL Quarterly, 21,* 765-768.

Zhang, Y., Kuhl, P. K., Imada, T., Kotani, M., & Tohkura, Y. (2005). Effects of language experience: Neural commitment to language-specific auditory patterns. *NeuroImage, 26*, 703-720.

Technology-Enhanced Instruction / CALL / CMI / MALL

A Practical CALL Course for Korean Middle and High School English Teachers

Dion Clingwall
Fukuoka University, Fukuoka, Japan

Given the chance to learn about available CALL resources, middle and high school teachers can overcome apprehension about the use of computers in the language classroom. In turn, they act as a bridge to their students for this valuable resource. This paper examines an Introduction to CALL course designed for middle and high school teachers, looking at how it affected their willingness to use CALL as a complementary language classroom resource. Following their participation in the course, all of the teachers indicated they would use CALL as a complementary language learning resource.

I. Introduction and Course Background

In Korean education, a present focus is on improving the English ability of Korean English teachers. Taking place at a number of universities around the country is a current Ministry of Education initiative known as "The Intensive English Teacher Training Program." Two forms of this program were involved in the development of this CALL course. The first was a five-month intensive language program, while the second was a one-month program. In both cases, the programs' main aim was to improve the overall English ability of Korean middle and high school English teachers (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2008). The programs instruct in the four main skills as independent courses and also offer a variety of skill-based classes. The CALL course represents one such class.

As "computer technology has become a significant aspect of life in the 21st century," so too has it taken its place in education (Ducate & Arnold, 2006, p. 1). In classrooms around the world, computers have become an integral component of language learning. With this in mind, English teachers should be encouraged to expand their use of computers and to promote the use of CALL in both their classes and among their students. Unfortunately, based on surveys of roughly two hundred middle and high school teachers, many feel unprepared or unable to accomplish this goal. Due to a variety of factors, including age, lack of training, or an overburdened schedule, teachers feel CALL is beyond their range of accessible language tools. However, one of the most prominent reasons identified is the teachers' lack of familiarity with available resources.

As secondary students tend to be tech savvy with a high level of computer proficiency, it is incumbent upon educators to properly utilize this resource. By offering teachers a course that gives them first-hand knowledge of CALL resources as well as inspiring the confidence to apply these resources to their classroom efforts, the course can act as a catalyst for furthering the role of CALL within English education, and thus encourage Korean students' use of computers when studying foreign languages.

Through the work carried out with six class groups of Korean middle and high school English teachers (roughly 300 participants), a basic CALL for Teachers course was developed. Prior to participation in this course, the overwhelming majority of in-service teacher participants used CD players as their only technological support. However, following the course, teacher participant feedback indicated they would use CALL in some form as a complementary teaching resource. A follow-up survey was sent to all previous class participants via email (around 300), 38 replies were received and all of them indicated they had used CALL resources in their language classes where previously they had not. For the most part, teachers who replied did not indicate what CALL resources had been used in their classes.

II. CALL CLASS: LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

The CALL class was taught to groups of 11 or 12 Korean teachers of English. The learners were all middle and high school English teachers whose English language levels were at least high-intermediate, with most being at an advanced level. The classes took place in a computer lab with full internet connectivity.

For the CALL class, participants were given neither formal testing nor graded homework, and no formal grading was required. However, informal quizzes and homework were given strictly as a way to encourage repetition and to highlight important aspects of the class. Additionally, due to many participants' apprehension about using computers, the instructor wanted to keep anxiety levels as low as possible and raise the learners' comfort levels to create a positive classroom environment.

A. About the Course

Three different versions of the course were taught. A six-class version (each class was two hours long) was given four times, a shorter four class-version was taught twice and numerous two-hour seminars were also given. Only the six- and four-class versions are considered in this study. Therefore, the course was taught six times in the following order: twice to 5-month-long intensive groups, followed by once to a 1-month summer intensive group, twice more to 5-month groups, then a final version to another 1-month summer group.

Although the course participants were generally enthusiastic, disciplined, and cooperative, the instructor encountered certain challenges. Some examples were an age range from the mid-twenties to the late fifties. Their computer literacy levels were generally low with many of the older teachers having never used the internet previously. For class communications and notices, the instructor intended to use email. However, fully a third of the participants did not have email accounts nor had they ever previously used an email account. This was particularly evident among those over the age of fifty. Many of the instructors spoke about their teaching environments and said that they were unsure whether CALL was relevant or applicable to their situations. Furthermore, as has been found previously (Dudeney & Hockly, 2007), many of the participants seemed intimidated by the idea of using computers, while conversely, the under-thirty group of teachers were at ease and confident in front of their computer terminals. Some other complaints and grumblings that were noted during the first few classes were things like: “I don’t know if we can use the computer lab,” “computers aren’t my responsibility,” “we don’t have enough time to fit in extra computer classes,” “my class is too big,” “my students know more than I do about computers,” “preparation of materials takes too much time,” and “the textbook we use is great so why should we use computers.”

It was imperative for the course instructor to address these concerns while making the course both relevant and interesting for everyone ― accessible and simple enough that the older trainees didn’t feel alienated, yet challenging enough that the younger trainees didn’t become bored. It was also vital to consider the teaching/learning environments at Korean middle and high schools, and to ensure relevance and applicability to the Korean classroom: formulaic grammar-focused classes, with a strong emphasis on preparation for standardized tests such as university entrance exams or TOEFL tests.

Some of the ways in which the instructor addressed participant concerns were via suggestions such as: using flexible time tabling to book computer labs in advance, using the internet to look for websites or software that offer ready-to-use language exercises, having the students work in pairs or small groups of 3 or 4 if the class was too big for each student to get a computer, using word processing tools to prepare classes, encouraging language learners to apply and demonstrate the computer skills they already had within the language classroom, thinking of computers as a complementary resource to traditional classroom materials, and finally, encouraging teachers to begin with basic, straightforward applications to gain confidence and understanding of the resource.

B. Reasons for CALL

There are various benefits to using CALL in the language classroom (Arnold, 2006). These include the ability to clearly define objectives that can change with the learner’s needs, the ability to facilitate evaluation and assessment through using technology, the ability to use a variety of learning styles and approaches, the ability to research specific content areas, the ability to efficiently use pre- and post-activities by offering course material specific to identified student needs, thereby increasing intrinsic motivation and promoting learner autonomy and positive learner outcomes (Arnold, 2006).

Other notable reasons for using CALL are as follows:

1. CALL offers learners the opportunity to use both verbal and physical communication skills. CALL allows learners to use English more efficiently than is possible with traditional methods such as pen and paper.
2. CALL offers virtually endless opportunities for creativity, brainstorming, and discussion.
3. Through using CALL, the English learning environment can become less formal and more relaxed, thus leading to the lowering of the learner’s

affective filter.
4. By using CALL, individual students' needs can be specifically addressed.
5. In a CALL class, all students are in a position to contribute through sharing and support.
6. CALL turns passive learners into active learners.
7. Scaffolding can be used to support a CALL approach to language learning.
8. CALL allows for adapting and integrating textbook content and support resources.
9. CALL allows both schools and instructors to better utilize the teaching space.
10. Using CALL allows students to be the focus of the activity.

This list is by no means exhaustive and represents merely a snapshot of positive reasons for using CALL. With the teacher-training program in question, after looking at the positive aspects of CALL, it was without hesitation that a CALL course was included as a learning component.

C. CALL Course

In developing the course, a needs assessment was carried out to determine applicable course content. As teachers of English to Korean middle and high school students, the course participants' opinions and thoughts were elicited via an initial questionnaire (see Appendix A) that was handed out prior to the start of the first CALL class in order to gather feedback and suggestions that could be included in the course from the outset. The desires and intentions of program administrators and other program instructors were addressed via initial consultation during the course planning and preparation stages, while the current state of affairs in the world of CALL was taken into consideration by surveying available literature and research (see, for example, Woodward, 2001; Graves, 2000; Dudeney, 2007; Chapelle & Jamieson, 2008; Dudeney & Hockly, 2007; Sharma & Barrett, 2007; Hubbard, 2009; Ducate & Arnold, 2006; Chapelle, 2005; Chun, 2011).

After completing the initial needs analysis, the following aims for the course were adopted:

1. Attempt to familiarize the middle and high school English teachers with using the computer/internet as a complementary language teaching and learning tool.
2. Offer as wide a variety as possible of (a) useful and accessible language learning websites, (b) practical language learning software, and (c) ready-made exercises for each of the language skills taught in typical English textbooks.
3. Find appropriate ready-made resources.
4. Teach the participants how to hone their internet search skills by using non-Korean search engines (Google or Yahoo from English speaking countries) to lead to non-Korean sponsored web pages that Korean search engines such as Naver do not.

5. Use CALL to enhance trainees' teaching styles.
6. Use CALL to enhance the students' learning experience.
7. Use CALL to produce exercises and activities that impress both the students' parents and the school administration.
8. Use CALL to develop or identify activities and assignments that work in conjunction with traditional four skills courses (or are complementary to other elective courses that may be offered in a particular environment).

D. Class Breakdown and Content

The course was divided into six, two-hour-long classes with optional introduction and wrap-up classes if time allowed (there was also a compressed four-class version developed that moved the content of classes 5 and 6 into slightly adapted classes 3 and 4, respectively).

Class 1 had the participants investigate websites focused on the main language skills of reading, writing, listening, speaking, as well as grammar and vocabulary.

Class 2 was one of the more robust classes in the program. It introduced authoring programs such as "Hotpotatoes," video-sharing sites like "YouTube," webpage design software such as "Inspiration," as well as the instructor's own educational website, to serve as an example of how the instructors could create a webpage specific to their own class and teaching environments. Finally, class 2 ended by looking at how instructors can use Microsoft Moviemaker software (found in every computer running Microsoft windows) to create video slide shows.

Class 3 introduced social networking websites such as Facebook and Twitter, as well as two very useful learning tools in webquests and podcasts. Furthermore, learners were asked to brainstorm how these tools might be utilized in their own classes.

Class 4 revisited the social networking sites first introduced during class 3 and looked at how an instructor might adapt them for use in an English class. Video production websites such as Xtranormal were discussed with sample animations shown to the class, followed by the instructor returning to the video-sharing website YouTube that was first encountered in class 2 and looking at how self-produced videos or animations could be uploaded. Finally, a variety of websites with possible educational applications were provided to the participants to look through, to consider which might be useful in a language learning environment.

Class 5 was designed as a listening website investigation where learners were given an extensive list of internet listening resources (see Appendix B5) and asked to randomly choose three sites to look at and briefly evaluate. For the second part of the class, participants were assigned individual websites to evaluate for homework. The homework required them to offer an overview as well as discuss how the site might be used in an English class.

Class 6 offered the learners the chance to attempt to transcribe from an authentic Canadian television situation comedy as well as the opportunity to produce an English activity based on a podcast.

For the full course content, Appendix B presents copies of the handouts for classes 1 through 6.

E. Learners' Impressions and Outcomes

At the end of the course, a survey was given to the participants and they were asked to reflect on their experience (Appendix C). The feedback was, for the most part, very positive. All trainees felt that their overall computer literacy had increased to the point where they would use CALL in one form or another as a complementary resource to their usual English class materials. Despite certain constraints that the teachers had identified relative to their particular learning environments, the participants indicated that they not only saw educational value in using CALL, but also saw how it could lighten their teaching load and enhance the classroom atmosphere. The learners were enthusiastic about being introduced to such a wide variety of immediately applicable resources, but had particularly high praise for the range of available listening websites and the video editing resources.

The only clearly negative comment was that, to a number of trainees, the content might be useful and appropriate for their own English classes, but too many resources were covered in too short a time frame. When one takes into account the varying levels of computer literacy prevalent among the course participants, this criticism seems appropriate — especially among the fifty-and-older crowd. However, contrary to this, many of the younger trainees indicated that they wished the CALL portion of the teacher training program had played an even larger role within the course offerings.

Additionally, the relaxed learning environment was noted by numerous learners as an important reason for lowering their anxiety about using computers. This became apparent as the instructor noted an increase in emails and Facebook postings, particularly from the fifty-and-older members of the group.

III. Conclusions

The main conclusions drawn from the CALL component of the teacher training program were that the trainees found the CALL class and its resources of value to their teaching, and they were keenly interested in using any resource that led to positive learning outcomes and made their classroom efforts more efficient. In short, their awareness of available resources had expanded well beyond their own expectations. Furthermore, the CALL class had a very positive impact on the participants' computer knowledge, both general and language-learning specific, which bodes well for their future language classes. By the end of the six classes, the trainees appeared more at ease and confident using computers, and their end-of-course feedback supported this observation.

By offering English teachers a CALL learning experience that was both new and challenging, the participants remained both motivated and interested through the six classes. By showing the participants how such a wide range of online materials was both easily accessible and, with a small amount of effort, within their ability to use as a class resource, the course succeeded in achieving its learning objectives.

THE AUTHOR

Dion Clingwall, a Canadian by birth, has lived in Sweden, Germany, Korea, and Japan. He has taught EFL at all educational levels and is currently a university lecturer. His current research efforts focus on vocabulary acquisition, course development for vocabulary, and health care oriented ESP. Presently, he lives in Fukuoka, Japan, and works full-time at Fukuoka University. Email: dclingwall@gmail.com

REFERENCES

Arnold, N. (2006). Expanding CALL beyond general language classes: The case of courses in language for specific purposes. In L. Ducate & N. Arnold (Eds.), *Calling on CALL: From theory and research to new directions in foreign language teaching* (pp. 269-288). San Marcos, TX: CALICO.

Chapelle, C. A. (2005). Computer-assisted language learning. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Chapelle, C. A., & Jamieson, J. (2008). *Tips for teaching with CALL*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Longman.

Chun, D. M. (2011). Computer-assisted language learning. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (Vol. II). New York, NY: Routledge.

Ducate, L., & Arnold, N. (2006). *Calling on CALL: From theory and research to new directions in foreign language teaching*. San Marcos, TX: CALICO.

Dudeney, G. (2007). *The internet and the language classroom: A practical guide for teachers*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Dudeney, G., & Hockly, N. (2007). *How to teach English with technology*. Essex, UK: Pearson Longman.

Graves, K. (2000). *Designing language courses: A guide for teachers*. Boston, MA: Heinle Cengage.

Hubbard, P. (Ed.). (2009). *Computer assisted language learning* (Vols. I-IV). Critical Concepts in Linguistics series. New York, NY: Routledge.

Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation. (2008). *Intensive in-service English teacher training program evaluation report: Research report CRI 2008-1-2*. Seoul, Korea: Author.

Sharma, P., & Barrett, B. (2007). *Blended learning: Using technology in and beyond the language classroom*. Oxford, UK: Macmillan.

Woodward, T. (2001). *Planning lessons and course: Designing sequences of work for the language classroom*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

APPENDIX A

Pre-course Questionnaire

This questionnaire was handed out prior to the start of the first CALL class so that feedback could be gathered and teacher suggestions and desires be considered for inclusion in the course.

Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) Course Expectations

1) Do you use computers when you teach English?

2) If you **use computers** when you teach English, why do you do so?

3) If you **do not use computers** when you teach English, what are the reasons, factors, barriers for not doing so?

4) What do you expect to learn from this CALL course? What are your **expectations**?

5) When you think of using computers to teach/study languages what do you think of? What computer resources do you use?

APPENDIX B

Class Handouts 1-6

1. Class 1 Handout. This page was handed out during the first class.

CALL Definition

Question: Think about how you use CALL in your own teaching environment. Do you use it? If so, how? If not, why?

Use these subheadings to take notes on the discussion about each specific CALL topic.

1. Vocabulary
   a. Overview -
   b. Tips -
   c. http://www.lextutor.ca/tests/

2. Grammar
   a. Overview -
   b. Tips -
   c. http://www.eslgold.com/grammar.html

3. Reading
   a. Overview -
   b. Tips -
   c. http://www.lclark.edu/~krauss/toppicks/reading.html

4. Writing
   a. Overview -
   b. Tips -
   c. http://bcs.bedfordstmartins.com/easywriter3e/

5. Listening
   a. Overview -
   b. Tips -
   c. http://www.eslhome.com/esl/listen/

6. Speaking
   a. Overview -
   b. Tips -
   c. http://www.speechinaction.com/

   d. The above six websites' homepages in order:

7. http://www.lextutor.ca/
8. http://www.eslgold.com/
9. http://www.lclark.edu/~krauss/toppicks/toppicks.html

10. http://www.bedfordstmartins.com/
11. http://www.eslhome.com/
12. http://www.speechinaction.com/

2. Class 2 Handout. This handout was sent out as an email attachment.

Class Objectives

a) To introduce Youtube.com as a useful internet resource.

b) To introduce *authoring programs with* Hotpotatoes.com. Trainees will be able to use the tutorial feature to learn how to use the various applications.

c) To introduce the use of basic webpage design software using *Inspiration*. Trainees will know where to find the tutorial section of the webpage and how to use several of the basic functions of Inspiration.

d) Trainees will be introduced to Dion's website and its use as a student resource in an academic writing course.

e) Video Slide Shows will be described for trainees. The basic use and development of video slide shows will be discussed.

Websites Used in Class:

1. Gregoire - Toi Plus Moi: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jUzwBO7TEcw
2. Hotpotatoes: http://hotpot.uvic.ca/
3. Inspiration - This is a hyperlink with the web address *embedded*in the title.
4. Dion's Website: http://www.ualberta.ca/~kklee1/Dion%20Site/Home.html
5. Video Slide Show: http://www.youtube.com/user/orandazaka

If anyone has questions, please contact Dion at dclingwall@gmail.com.

3. Class 3 Handout. This handout was sent out as an email attachment.

Class Objectives:

a) To make and confirm a successful Facebook account: www.facebook.com
   a. Register then sign-in.
   b. Upload a photo to your profile from the internet.
      i. Show the instructor.
   c. Invite all of your classmates to be your friends.

b) To make and confirm a successful Twitter account: www.twitter.com
   a. Register then sign-in.

b. Upload a photo to your profile from the internet.
  i. Show the instructor.
c. Begin to follow your classmates.

c) To introduce the use of webquests as a learning tool. Trainees will understand what webquests are and explore an example from the webquest collection.
  a. http://www.yesnet.yk.ca/schools/wes/webquests.html
  b. http://webquest.org/index.php

d) To introduce podcasts and their usefulness as a learning tool. Trainees will listen to a podcast from a Canadian newspaper and answer related questions.
  a. www.englishcaster.com
  b. http://www.eslpod.com/website/index_new.html
  c. http://www.theglobeandmail.com/servlet/story/RTGAM.20090217.wpodfacts0217/BNStory/lifeMain/home?cid=al_gam_mostemail

e) To introduce trainees to the Internet TESL Journal. An excellent resource for teachers, instructors, and researchers.
  a. http://iteslj.org/

f) If there is time, we will also look at PowerPoint and Microsoft Publisher/Word as computer-based language learning tools.

4. Class 4 Handout. This handout was sent out as an email attachment.

1. **Video sharing sites:** Have you ever uploaded a video?
   What can we do with a site like this? http://www.youtube.com/
   a) Discussion...

2. **Animation or Video production websites:** Have you or your students ever made a video using an online resource? http://www.xtranormal.com/
   a) Discussion...

3. **Social Networking Sites:** Think of the role "Cyworld" plays in the lives of your students... in the lives of your family and friends... in your lives. How might an English social network site be used with your students?
   a) Discussion...

Look through these sites and do your best to determine how they might be used in your class. Could you use them as an effective tool for English language teaching?

1. http://www.babelgum.com/home
2. http://www.deepmoat.com/moodle/
3. http://www.flickr.com/
4. https://twitter.com/

5. https://www.blogger.com/start
6. http://www.facebook.com/
7. http://www.ualberta.ca/~kklee1/Dion%20Site/learningresource.html
8. http://c-all.wikispaces.com/C-ALL+Home
9. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main_Page
10. http://www.wikispaces.com/

Once you have looked at each site, we will break into groups of three and discuss the practical application of each site. Following our small group discussions, as a class we will discuss each of these particular websites and their respective usefulness as an English teaching and learning resource.

5. Class 5 Handout. This page was sent out as an email attachment.

First, look at the listening websites attachment. Open the page and then navigate to at least 3 different sites. If possible try out sample listening exercises on each page. Please send me a reply email with: 1) hyperlinks to the pages you visited and 2) a brief description of what you listened to and what you thought about it — both the listening and the website.

Second, here is your assignment for Friday's CALL Class. You have each been given a web page to investigate. What I would like you to do is find your name on the list below, navigate to your assigned page, and then evaluate the site. In order to evaluate the site, you will need to submit the following to me via email as an "electronic Word document":

A) Answer the following questions:

1. What is the focus of the web site?
2. Who is the website designed for?
3. Is this site useful? Not useful? Why?
4. Is the website easy to use and understand?
5. Describe the layout — what does it look like?
6. Could you use the site in your class? How?

B) Include your name and a "hyperlink" to the site.

Class A-1

1. Oh Hwa: http://eflcourse.wikispaces.com/
2. Min No: http://www.flickr.com/
3. Shin Hye: http://www.pimpampum.net/bubblr/
4. Mi Hyo: http://www.wiziq.com/
5. EunJin: http://edublogs.org/
6. YunHee: http://www.slidestory.com

7. Ga Hyeong: http://www.bubbleshare.com/
8. So Young: http://moodle.org/
9. Young Ja: http://www.ourstory.com
10. Hyon Gyeong: http://www.vimeo.com/
11. Yun Hee (Wendy): http://www.yackpack.com/

Class A-2

1. Jin Tak: http://larryferlazzo.edublogs.org/
2. Young Il: http://eflclassroom.ning.com/, http://www.ning.com/
3. Kyong Roc: http://www.classroom20.com/
4. Hye Gyeong: http://www.wiziq.com/
5. Mi Gyeong: http://joshuawdavies.com/ning
6. In Joo: http://nikpeachey.blogspot.com/
7. Eun Jang: http://theedublogger.edublogs.org/
8. Seon Joo: http://englishteachinglab.blogspot.com/
9. Soon Jeom: http://www.wetpaint.com/category/education/?zone=module_a3s
10. Soon: http://nicenet.org/
11. In Hwa: http://www.edu20.org/

Class B-1

1. Yong Seob: http://eflcourse.wikispaces.com/
2. Dae Young: http://www.flickr.com/
3. Eun Ji: http://www.pimpampum.net/bubblr/
4. Wae Jung: http://www.wiziq.com/
5. Young Hee: http://edublogs.org/
6. Un Jin: http://www.slidestory.com
7. Young Su: http://www.bubbleshare.com/
8. Jin Shil: http://moodle.org/
9. Kyong Soon: http://www.ourstory.com
10. Ji Young: http://www.vimeo.com/
11. Ha Young: http://www.yackpack.com/

Class B-2

1. Gyu Ha: http://larryferlazzo.edublogs.org/
2. Dong Hyun: http://eflclassroom.ning.com/, http://www.ning.com/
3. Mi Na: http://www.classroom20.com/
4. Hyun Jin: http://www.wiziq.com/
5. Ju Hee: http://www.flickr.com
6. Sang Hee: http://nikpeachey.blogspot.com/
7. Hye Ran: http://theedublogger.edublogs.org/
8. Mi Ae: http://englishteachinglab.blogspot.com/
9. Yeong A: http://www.wetpaint.com/category/education/?zone=module_a3s
10. Bong Seon: http://nicenet.org/
11. Jeong Eun: http://www.edu20.org/

Class 5-Listening/ESL Websites: Here is a list of listening sites compiled by myself and previous course participants. Please appreciate the efforts of their labors. Have a look around and see what you can discover.

http://cafe.naver.com/iloveeng2000.cafe
www.hackers.co.kr
http://englishstudy.mireene.com/
http://www.manythings.org/el/bg/
www.elllo.org
http://kr.dic.yahoo.com/search/eng/news_view.html?key=3123&page=1

http://www.hackers.co.kr/Html/S_Lec/index.html
http://weekstudy.coolschool.co.kr/study/pops/2002pops006.htm
http://www.1-language.com
http://www.msnbc.msn.com/

http://www.hoover.org/multimedia/uk?browse=topic&c=y
http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/index.shtml
http://www.dailyenglish.com/html/de_today/sub_apradio01.html
http://www.bbc.co.uk/radio

http://www.teachers.tv
http://www.reuters.com
http://en.wikipedia.org
http://www.youtube.com/

http://www.toeflgoanywhere.org
http://www.bbc.co.uk
http://money.cnn.com/video/
http://www.voanews.com/english/portal.cfm

http://english.kbs.co.kr/news/index.php
http://www.english114.pe.kr/ - good for training phonetics, linking sounds, & testing with listening comprehension tests.
http://www.esl-lab.com/ - many kinds of listening quizzes with 3 levels - easy, medium,& difficult.
http://www.buksori.net/ - listening comprehension tests for middle school and high school

www.listen-to-english.com
www.esl.about.com/library/listenings
http://kr.youtube.com/watch?v=u6Gb5vO246g
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ohJCdihPWqc-Mister Duncan

http://learnenglishfromhome.blogspot.com/2008/08/learning-english-with-mr-duncan.html
http://video.google.ca/videosearch?q=last+lecture&hl=en&emb=0&aq=f#- ... Exuberant “Last Lecture”.

http://jr.naver.com/english/list.nhn?id=donghwa&cid1=3

http://dailyenglish.com/html/freelisten/main.html
www.manythings.org
http://www.manythings.org/e/listening.html
www.arirang.co.kr/TV/TV_index.asp
http://jr.naver.com/english/list.nhn?d=donghwa&cidl=3
http://www.world-english.org/

http://www.world-english.org/listening.htm
www.bbc.co.uk
www.abc.go.com
www.eslpod.com

www.loe.org
www.esl-lab.com
www.npr.org
http://video.nationalgeographic.com/video/

http://english-trailers.com
http://www.videodetective.com
www.toondo.com
http://msenglish.com.ne.kr/index.html

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1ZpPcANktpA
www.arirang.co.kr
http://www.avenglish.co.kr
http://www.msnbc.msn.com/id/3096434/

http://www.english114.pe.kr/listening_test.htm
http://www.koreaembassy.org/han_koreaus/learn_eng/lecture_eng_view.asp?num=471&page=1&fldwriter=&fldtitle=&fldcontent=

http://www.123listening.com/
http://www.arirang.co.kr/News/News_Index.asp
http://kr.youtube.com/results?search_query=realenglish&search_type=&aq=f

http://www.cambridgeesol.org/teach/ielts/listening/activities/index.htm

Class 6 Handout. This page was sent out as an email attachment.

Class Objectives:

a) If we have time, the *webquest* pages from class 3 (and the corpus handout from today) will be used in our wrap-up class next week.

b) Transcription using Corner Gas. Please look at www.babelgum.com

a. Find Corner Gas, Season 1, Episode 12: Hook, Line and Sinker.
i. This is actually Episode 11, but unfortunately babelgum has the numbers mixed up.
b. Each trainee will be given 2 minutes of the episode to transcribe.
  i. A transcription is a written version of authentic dialogue.
  ii. Find your assigned minutes of the episode and transcribe the dialogue as you hear it.
  iii. As shown below, include **both, a)** the character's name and, **b)** their dialogue.
c. Once you have transcribed your assigned minutes, please email them to your instructor at dclingwall@gmail.com
  i. When emailing your page to the instructor, please use the format at the bottom of the page.

c) To use podcasts to produce activities for high-level learners: In this case, fellow trainees.
  a. Trainees will find a podcast on the internet.
  b. They will: a) listen to it; b) write a short description; c) write ten questions from the listening; and d) send the information to the instructor at dclingwall@gmail.com.
  c. Use the format as shown below.
  d. Here are some possible podcast sites. However trainees may use any podcast they feel is appropriate for their level.
    i. www.englishcaster.com
    ii. http://www.eslpod.com/website/index_new.html

d) If you finish both tasks early, please visit the Internet TESL Journal and explore its resources: http://iteslj.org/

Transcription Format…	Podcast Format…
Trainee Name:	Trainee Name:
Episode Title: Hook, Line and Sinker	Podcast Title:
Minutes: ***Write your assigned minutes - i.e. 4:00 ~ 5:99***	Podcast Web Address:
Transcription: ***This is an example***	Podcast Description:
	Podcast Questions:
Brent: ***blahh, blahh, blahh…***	***1) ~~***
Wanda: ***blahh, blahh, blahh…***	***2) ~~***
Brent: ***blahh, blahh, blahh…***	***9) ~~***
Wanda: ***blahh, blahh, blahh…***	***10) ~~***

APPENDIX C

CALL Course Reflections

This questionnaire was handed out at the end of the final CALL class and collected from the participants the following day. The feedback was gathered and teacher suggestions and desires were considered for inclusion in future versions of the course.

1) Did you find this course useful? Why? Why not?

2) How has your knowledge of computers and their use in the English classroom changed since taking this course?

3) In your English classes, do you think you will use computers (MORE THAN/ LESS THAN/ THE SAME AS) before? Why?

4) Now that you have taken this CALL course, do you expect to use computers differently when you teach English? In what way?

Exploring Mobile App Game Design for Vocabulary Practice

Oliver Rose
Ritsumeikan University, Japan

In this paper, I introduce the pedagogical design considerations, functions, and learner experience of a mobile vocabulary study game that I have designed. My goal in designing this app was to aid the review of vocabulary in a more appealing way than flashcards and the other limited types of digital vocabulary-learning activities available. The game uses vocabulary imported via API from the flashcard website Quizlet, which means that the users' teacher or the users themselves can upload vocabulary to be practiced. The format also allows for various possibilities of hint to be given for the target word, such as L1 translation, cloze sentence, L2 definition, and more. I designed the game itself to be cognitively engaging, with a design that requires a deeper level of processing and production than the more common passive, multiple-choice format vocabulary learning activities. It employs various game design mechanisms to hold the users' attention, including nested goals with clear feedback at each stage, game aesthetics that are colorful and musical, rewards of points for speed and accuracy, and interactive flow utilizing the mobile touch-screen functionality. Importantly, in order to be a genuine learning activity rather than merely entertaining, the app includes progress-tracking, review, and reference capabilities. An online version can be played at the website http://www.lexwordgameapp.com.

I. The Lex App

The design of the mobile app Lex aims to maximize its effectiveness for vocabulary study by providing a game design that promotes word recall and is fun to play, while offering reference and tracking functions to allow the user to check and review items on demand outside the actual game. The Lex game offers the same basic content and functions as paired-associate flashcard applications, which have been found to be effective for vocabulary learning (Bahrick & Phelps, 1987; Fitzpatrick, Al-Qarni, & Meara, 2008; Nakata, 2008; Nation, 1980) but are not engaging for anyone but the most motivated learners. The addition of a game to the flashcard "back end" of the app is supported by the widening recognition of an important role for "serious games" for learning among contemporary educators (BBFC, 2008; Gee & Hayes, 2009; Prensky, 2000) due to the benefits in engagement, interactivity, and challenge that it provides. The Lex app was designed with the following features in order to be both pedagogically effective and motivating for the user.

A. Vocabulary Lists and Progress Tracking

The Lex app uses vocabulary lists imported via API from the flashcard website Quizlet, which means that in addition to accessing thousands of other users' lists, the user can also upload their own vocabulary lists to be practiced. The user can search Quizlet and save lists locally for practice. Items are rated with colored stars according to how well they are known, from green (indicating the item is known) through yellow, orange, and red (indicating an item that is least known). These rating stars (see Figure 1) are changed automatically through the user's performance on the items in the game, based on how many hints were required to answer correctly. Importantly, the user can also manually adjust the rating if they desire to get more or less practice of a given item.

FIGURE 1. Preview of list items' ratings and definitions.

B. Gameplay: Game Interface

A hint (such as L1 translation/L2definition/cloze sentence) for the L2 target word is shown below the game board, and the number of letters it has (see Figure 2). From this cue, the user has to find the target word in the game board, which is a hexagonal grid of letters, by connecting adjacent letters to spell the word (NB: This is a familiar interface used in many word games, but they require the player to just find random words in the board rather than a target word, which is a very different skill). This interaction contrasts with the usual multiple-choice response required in most quizzes or games, thereby requiring a higher degree of productive recall for the target word. A typed response with no word-length or letter cues presented would demand an even higher degree of recall, but this would require perfect knowledge of spelling, and this method of input is certainly less novel and game-like. Moreover, the limiting of letter tile selection to adjacent letters means that knowing the spelling perfectly is not necessary to correctly answer, lowering a possibly annoying barrier to success for users who know the word well but not necessarily its correct spelling. The initial cue of a string of circles, each one representing a letter in the target word, is just enough to narrow down the word from most other possible choices, without giving too much information.

FIGURE 2. Game screen of Lex app with hint for the L2 target word appearing below the game board.

C. Staged Hints to Promote Deeper Recall

Various stages of hints are provided so that learners with different degrees of familiarity with the target word can all strengthen learner recall of the given item. If the user makes a mistake, or requests an additional hint by tapping the cue area, the vowels in the target word are revealed. If another mistake or hint request is made, the first letter of the target word is shown. If a further mistake or hint request occurs, the whole word is shown, which the user then still needs to find in the grid. This kind of staged support pushes the limits of the user's productive recall of the target word.

D. Word Rating System and End-of-Game Review List

When the game has ended due to the set number of words being successfully found, or a time or mistake limit being reached (depending on the game mode), a list of all words from the game is shown to allow review (see Figure 3). Each word has a colored rating star (red, orange, yellow, green), which represents how well the word is known, with green being the highest. All the words start at a yellow rating level and can go up or down from there. Each time a word is found successfully in the game without any extra hints, it goes up a rating level. For each mistake or hint request made, the color rating goes down a level. If a word is rated green, it will not appear in the game again as it is considered to be well known. Yellow- or orange-rated words will appear again in the game at random times. Red-rated words will appear again in the following game, in order to give the adequate repetition needed to improve recall of an item that was not known at all, as ascertained by the hints required or mistakes made.

FIGURE 3. End-of-game review list.

E. Customizability of Wordlists and Cue Types

While the target word or multi-word unit is necessarily limited to fewer than nineteen characters to fit into the playing grid, the cue can be considerably longer. This allows for various cueing possibilities, such as a cloze sentence, L2 definition, or any other reasonable hint from L1 or L2.

The wordlists used in the game are imported from Quizlet, which has many thousands of flashcard sets. Users can use others' existing flashcard sets or easily make their own by various methods, including simply copying and pasting in data from Excel spreadsheet wordlists. The customizability of both words to study and the type of word hint given make it easy for a teacher to make flashcard sets to assign for homework, or for students to make their own sets for self-study (see Figure 4).

FIGURE 4. Quizlet flashcard sets search page.

II. Game Design

A. Engaging Mechanisms

In terms of actual game design, the following mechanisms are employed to motivate and engage the user more than would be possible with usual flashcard practice.

1. Interactive Flow Utilizing Mobile Touch-Screen Functionality.

The immediate tactile input allowed by touchscreens allows for ease of interaction, which promotes a greater state of "flow" than allowed by keyboard or mouse input.

2. Game Aesthetics That are Colorful and Musical

Making the game attractive and lighthearted was important in promoting it as a game experience rather than "study." While there is no narrative to the game, there is a graphic theme of collecting the coins on which the letters are placed, which is somehow more concrete and satisfying than abstract points.

3. Rewards of Points and Visual/Musical Effects for Speed and Accuracy

Having points and visual/musical effects in response to user input is very motivating immediate feedback. As is usual with games, there is a high score, which serves as a goal to try to beat. In addition, there is a record of accumulated points gained from all games played, to promote goal-setting and regular, repeated play. For every 3000 points scored, a new colored background is unlocked to appear in the game, as a kind of reward.

4. Progress Framework

Most games and well-designed learning experiences give the user a good sense of progress by establishing regularly placed achievement milestones that a player/learner can both look forward to achieving and feel satisfaction in actually reaching. By having various layers of these milestones, we can ensure that the satisfaction of achievement or its anticipation is never far off, or even continually present. In this game, we can think of the finding of a word as the smallest milestone — or even the clicking of each correct letter, as confirmation of success is provided by the letters lighting up and a clinking sound made. A higher-level milestone is the finishing of all the words in a stage and then passing to the next stage by achieving a certain percentage of available points, or finishing all words with lives/time remaining. The beating of high scores and the completion of proportions of wordlists are other milestones that players can enjoy while playing the game. Compared to flashcards, this game provides many more reasons to continue using it in terms of the motivation and satisfaction lent by the progress framework.

B. Features Planned for Future Versions

- Adapting the game to allow the use of target sentences in the game, rather than just words, by having words on the tiles instead of letters. This would enable sentence-level practice of grammar or situational phrases.

- Adding more game mechanisms such as bonus tiles to add variation and luck elements, given that games of luck are more addictive.
- Social features that allow players to compete or play alongside friends (e.g., Facebook app, multiplayer version).
- Teacher tracking, such as enabling the sending of results to the teacher or integrating with Moodle. Playing the game could then be a way of setting enjoyable but monitorable homework.

III. Plans for Research

In order to gauge the effectiveness of this application, various research questions need to be addressed, such as the following:

- How well are words studied in the game retained, in both the short- and long-term?
- How motivated are students to practice with this game compared with other vocabulary study options?
- How much is the target word primed by the grid format, compared to multiple-choice or typed-answer formats?

IV. Conclusion

This application was designed to satisfy both pedagogical and game design criteria. Both reference and review functions are included to enable learner lookup and confirmation of meaning outside the game at their own pace. Tracking is included via the colored star rating system to focus more practice on the weaker items, giving the player repeated exposure until successful retrieval is achieved. The game design utilizes various familiar game mechanisms such as rules and dynamics via a game-like interface, colorful and musical aesthetics, scoring and levels, and motivating progress frameworks. Further functions are planned to both broaden the scope of content taught and to enhance the game experience. Research will also be carried out to ascertain the effectiveness of the application in terms of promoting both vocabulary acquisition and increasing self-study time spent on vocabulary.

The Author

Originally from Australia, Oliver Rose has taught English in Japan in a diverse range of environments since 2001. He has long been interested in materials development and CALL, and more recently in the great potential shown by Mobile Assisted Language Learning. Web versions of his language-learning apps can be found at www.kanjigames.com and www.lexwordgameapp.com

References

Bahrick, H. P., & Phelps, E. (1987). Retention of Spanish vocabulary over 8 years. *Journal* *of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, & Cognition, 13*(2), 344-349. doi:10.1037/0278-7393.13.2.344

British Board of Film Classification (BBFC). (2008). *Classifying games: Qualitative research findings*. Retrieved from http://www.bbfc.co.uk/sites/default/files/attachments/Classifying%20Games%20-%20Qualitative%20Research%20Findings%20%28January%202008%29_0.pdf

Fitzpatrick, T., Al-Qarni, I., & Meara, P. (2008). Intensive vocabulary learning: A case study. *Language Learning Journal, 36*(2), 239-248. doi:10.1080/09571730802390759

Gee, J. P., & Hayes, E. (2009). Public pedagogy through video games: Design, resources and affinity spaces. In J. A. Sandlin, B. D. Schultz, & J. Burdick (Eds.), *Handbook of Public pedagogy: Education and learning beyond schooling* (pp. 185-193). New York, NY: Routledge.

Nakata, T. (2008). English vocabulary learning with word lists, word cards and computers: Implications from cognitive psychology research for optimal spaced learning. *Recall, 20*(1), 3-20. doi:10.1017/S0958344008000219

Nation, I. S. P. (1980). Strategies for receptive vocabulary learning. *RELC Guidelines, 3,* 18-23.

Prensky, M. (2000). *Digital game-based learning*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Writing

Composition Feedback: The Good, the Bad, and the Possible

Joel Diamond
Sejong University, Seoul, Korea

This paper provides a review of academic viewpoints covering various aspects of the composition feedback process. The primary types of feedback under discussion are: *written feedback provided by the teacher to the student, peer response,* and *teacher-student conferences*. The main body of the paper treats feedback as a series of choices and sub-choices to be considered. These choices include, whether to provide feedback at all, the types of feedback processes that might be used, the when and how of feedback, and the role(s) played by the feedback provider. Sub-choices include comprehensive vs. selective feedback, content vs. error correction, and direct vs. indirect correction.

The paper concludes with a very brief but significant acknowledgment that the choices described assume a somewhat abstract, "ideal" feedback world, and that the realities of composition classes for many in Korea and elsewhere militate against ideal implementation, necessitating compromise and creativity in feedback application.

I. Introduction

Put plainly, what composition feedback is can be reduced to two elements: (a) simple error correction or (b) positive or negative comments and advice. The novice instructor might assume this a straightforward process. Those more experienced know that there are many choices regarding the delivery of that feedback. These choices are not equal; they have pros and cons that each instructor needs to weigh. This paper reviews the literature to discuss some of the key choices and considerations.

II. Is Feedback Necessary?

The most basic question is whether it is necessary or useful to provide feedback at all. Truscott (1996) analyzed previous research and makes a strong case that explicit grammar feedback on student papers has no positive long-term effect on improving student writing and even harms student progress when compared to no feedback.

Some subsequently tried to disprove this thesis. Hyland's (2003) and Bitchner and Cameron's (2005) studies in ESL classes in New Zealand provided some evidence that intensive effort might produce some long-term error-correction improvement. Their results seem questionable however. In the Bitchner and

Cameron study, for example, the most improved group took twenty hours of ESL instruction per week, as opposed to four hours for the least improved group, suggesting that added ESL instruction time alone might have accounted for the difference.

Even among those who advocate feedback, there is some acknowledgement that it may create problems as well. Goldstein (2005) warns of *appropriation*, having the student rewrite the text, as we, rather than the student, would like, although she makes a distinction between that and “good” intervention.

An anecdote from Carol Roh-Spaulding references the topic of *appropriation*, but with a twist that hints at the complexity of the issue. Haswell and Lu (2000) relates how Roh-Spaulding wanted to publish a powerful story in the college literary magazine she was editing, by a Vietnamese student, Binh, about a friend killed escaping from Vietnam. Binh knew his story contained “errors” and wanted them corrected, but Roh-Spaulding says, “What I loved most about the story was the telling, itself - the voice that spoke in ‘incorrect’ but beautiful, powerful language. To standardize the English would greatly diminish its impact” (p. 64). Choosing what to correct or even whether to correct is thus not always a simple decision.

Liu (2010), in her dissertation about Taiwanese students studying English composition short-term in the U.S., discusses the issue of *white prestige*, whereby for those students, succeeding in the English language academic world marks success in Taiwanese society. For her participants, this often fed into what she refers to as an “identity of inferiority” — that is, students who were willing to give up their own voices and cultural identities in pursuit of writing proper English based on the feedback (and instruction) of their white, native English-speaking instructors.

Thus, from her dissertation and the prior anecdote, we can see that the issue of appropriation may be relevant even in cases where it is welcomed by the students. It additionally raises issues of linguistic neocolonialism, and the use of English as a gateway and gatekeeper for non-native users on the pathway to success.

Despite the well-founded cautions and arguments against it, the benefits of providing feedback can be supported on other grounds. Truscott (1996) himself acknowledges that feedback can produce good short-term results. Gascoigne (2004) found that even beginning L2 writers tend to successfully revise based on teacher feedback regarding grammar and mechanics.

Why bother though if, after feedback and correction, a student text is free of surface errors, but those errors are repeated from one new text to another? Three reasons are: (a) students prefer it, (b) to make the draft comprehensible so that content can be clearly understood and feedback given on that basis, and (c) to end with an error-free final draft so that the student can present it at a later date to an audience outside the classroom.

More importantly, the issue of feedback is not limited to grammar correction, but to overall content, style, and organization. Truscott (1996) specifically excludes these types of feedback from his criticism.

Richard Straub (2000) speaks from experience rather than specific empirical evidence to argue passionately for the importance of feedback, saying it is at the heart of writing instruction and the way we “can help students work on what they most need to work on individually as writers” (p. 2).

Accepting then that some form of feedback has value, the next choice to be made is the form it should take.

III. Feedback Delivery Systems

A. Written Feedback Provided by the Teacher to the Student

The most common feedback delivery system, and the one I will discuss first, is written feedback provided by the teacher to the student. Despite its position as the "go-to" feedback system, users are confronted with various choices as discussed below.

1. Comprehensive vs. Selective

A key choice is whether to provide comprehensive feedback (correcting every structural error) or selective feedback. Examples of common selective techniques are provided by Ferris (2002) and include the following:

- Correcting global errors (those which make the text unclear) but not local errors (the writer's meaning is still clear)
- Correcting errors based on frequency such as:
  - Most common errors of the class
  - Most common errors of each individual
- Correcting errors relating to an assignment or class area of focus

In this regard, most of the literature, and teachers, prefer the idea of selective feedback. One reason is that too much feedback can be overwhelming and discouraging for the student. As a corollary, selective feedback permits a student to focus on and correct some things well, rather than all things superficially or badly. Also, and not unimportant, providing comprehensive feedback can be an overwhelming task for the teacher.

Lee (2003) reports on interviews with nineteen secondary English teachers in Hong Kong. Although the study has a local (Hong Kong) focus, the issues and concerns raised seem to apply to both native and non-native English-speaking teachers in any L2 English composition class. Some reasons the majority of the 19 preferred selective marking are:

> Can save time students can focus on specific areas compositions are long heavy workload even if teachers mark all errors, students will still make the same errors next time/students are not learning from their errors students cannot remember what teachers have marked marking all errors cannot really help students improve grammatical accuracy teachers are not marking machines students are not happy when they get back their compositions full of red marks not all students can handle comprehensive marking. (pp. 221-222)

However, even among those who did prefer selective grading, a number felt obligated to practice *comprehensive* marking because:

> Teachers want to look at the overall performance of students the errors made are basic and have to be pointed out when the compositions are not too long,

> comprehensive marking is manageable students prefer comprehensive marking to selective marking teachers are considered lazy if they do not mark all student errors if teachers don't mark all errors, students do not know what kinds of errors they have made it is the teacher's duty to mark all student errors. (Lee, 2003, p. 221)

Reporting on another aspect of the same study, Lee (2004) makes use of a student survey to confirm that the majority of students indeed preferred comprehensive correction.

Goldstein (2005), on the selective side, would have us avoid overwhelming the student, citing such considerations as "the proficiency and complexity of the types of revisions needed, and the draft the student is working on as well as how these factors interact with each other" (p. 89).

Thus while selective written feedback is more recommended, there is no clear-cut correct answer as to degree of selectiveness or even whether comprehensiveness may be desirable at times. As is so often the case, overall teaching context needs to be considered.

2. Form vs. Content

A major distinction exists between feedback aimed at *form* (often referred to as *structural*, or *surface level* correction) and that aimed at *content*, in other words, ideas, the support for those ideas, and sometimes, organization. While this is less likely an either-or proposition, it often becomes an issue of emphasis. In this regard, Ferris (2002) suggests teachers "focus most of their efforts in marking and teaching on errors rather than improvement of writing style except for very advanced students who make few errors" (pp. 50-51). Straub (2000) presents real-life academic responses to college writing samples (of both native and L2 writers). His response samples focus heavily on content yet do not necessarily rebut Ferris' assertion, since they are aimed at more advanced students.

Casanave (2004) drew on his teaching experience in Japan to reframe the question in a way that will likely resonate with composition teachers in other East Asian countries as well. He asks whether we want our students to improve on accuracy (therefore, form) or fluency (therefore, content). He explains that since the Japanese education system, including test-taking, had stressed grammar, translation, and the existence of one correct answer, he "decided to define improvement as the development of fluency and expression of their own ideas" (p. 93). Feedback was thus slanted in this direction as well.

To sum up, it may be inevitable to largely focus on surface errors when students are not very advanced English users. Nevertheless, for students at higher levels or for whom the goal is academic writing, content, as Straub (2000) illustrates, should likely become the teacher's main feedback focus. Casanave illustrates again the importance of basing our decisions on our individual teaching contexts.

3. (Surface Level) Direct vs. Indirect

Concerning surface level correction, a distinction between *direct* and *indirect* feedback is often made. Direct feedback not only indicates an error, but also provides the intended correction/revision. Indirect feedback "occurs when the teacher indicates that an error has been made but leaves it to the student writer to solve the problem and correct the error" (Ferris, 2002, p. 19).

Ferris (2002) says that "error-correction research to date points clearly to the overall long-term superiority of indirect feedback" (p. 19). Arguments against direct feedback claim that it bypasses the student's thought process. He/she can simply copy the "corrected" portion into the next draft. Further, direct feedback increases the possibility that the teacher may be appropriating the text by "forcing" the student to use the teacher's version rather than letting the student create his/her own. In contrast, indirect feedback causes the student to make some analysis of the problem and rely on his/her own resources for the solution.

Nevertheless, for beginning students at least, the resources to analyze the error and come up with the correct solution may be beyond their current abilities — an argument against indirect feedback. Additionally, Li's (2004) study found that students clearly prefer the direct type (p. 294).

Ferris (2002) does find value in both types. She makes a distinction between treatable and untreatable errors (the former referring to errors explainable by a grammar rule; the latter including most word choice errors and missing or unnecessary words). She feels that treatable errors should be dealt with indirectly and untreatable errors directly. This seems reasonable, but again the decision to use indirect feedback at all will likely depend on student ability.

B. Peer Response

Peer response or peer analysis is generally used to mean feedback from classmates. The feedback can be oral or written, it can be free or directed (aimed at something specific, according to a set of guidelines), it can be done in groups or pairs, and it can be done early, late, or at several points in the writing process.

1. Benefits of Peer Response

Some of the benefits Liu and Hansen (2002) maintain for peer response are that students: build critical skills, build audience awareness (cognitive), gain confidence and reduce apprehension, establish collegial ties and friendships (social), gain additional language skill practice, and find the right words to express ideas (linguistic). Additionally, peer response is flexible across different stages in the writing process and reinforces process writing (practical).

Others (Kent, 2004; Min, 2005; Van den Berg, Admiraal & Pilot, 2006) found that their students developed a greater ability to self-monitor their own written work. Min's students learned the greater importance of ideas and organization versus vocabulary or grammar, developed self-confidence in their ability as readers, and improved their writing due to the peer feedback.

However, according to Liu and Hansen (2002), there are four primary concerns over the use of L2 peer response activities: "uncertainty concerning peers' comments, lack of learner investment, superficial comments due to time constraints, and inappropriate interactions in commenting on peers' drafts" (p. 11).

On balance, the benefits of peer response seem clearly worth it. The reservations involve not so much denials of the benefits as ways in which the process can be sabotaged. In short, the reservations must be squarely addressed in order for the benefits of peer review to be realized.

2. Implementing Peer Response

Virtually every source on peer response stresses students cannot be thrown into the process but rather must be well prepared. Rollinson (2005), for example, first requires pre-training, beginning with a “propaganda” phase to convince students of the benefits of peer response. He would follow this with a discussion of the process, then some practice activities involving modeling and negative examples, small-group-work practice and follow-up class discussion to finalize understanding. His second phase, “intervention training,” requires the teacher to monitor and intervene in the feedback groups whenever problems develop (pp. 27-28).

Some of the many peer-review recommendations and concerns covered in the literature include:

- According to van den Berg et al. (2006) the size of feedback groups has to be three or four, while Liu & Hanson (2002) feel that three is optimal.
- The process should be task-specific rather than general.
    - Focus should depend on the nature of the class itself, the peer responder’s role, the instructor’s point(s) of attention for the assignment, and the draft being responded to. Additionally, handouts containing specific questions seem indispensable.

C. Teacher-Student Conferences

Edgington (2004), working with six students in an introductory writing class, investigated student reaction to three types of feedback: margin notes, letters (endnotes), and conferences. The results showed strong preference for the conferences. Some of the positive comments included receiving more detailed feedback and being able to bounce ideas off one another. Edgington himself felt more comfortable with conferences than written feedback. “According to students, the conference format gave them a voice in the revision process, allowing them to discuss various issues with me in order to gain more clarity on my comments” (pp. 288-289).

Goldstein (2005) strongly emphasizes the need to uncover the underlying causes of problems that occur and implicitly indicates that conferencing is the best way to discover those factors, as well as to clarify misunderstandings that may have occurred during the written feedback process.

As with written feedback, however, there are choices to be made. Conferences can be employed with various means to various ends. Specifically, Edgington (2004) treats the conference as partly a substitute for and partly a chance to clarify, elaborate, and otherwise contribute to the feedback/dialogue process. Goldstein (2005) treats the conference more as the final link of the feedback chain, to use when problems arise that the other feedback channels cannot seem to deal with, and when it becomes necessary to probe underlying motivations or external factors that may be affecting the student’s work. I feel these two approaches could be considered complementary. In other words, both can be employed as deemed necessary.

The only negative I could find to conferencing is that it requires much time. Instructors teaching only one reasonably sized composition class may find conferences manageable, those teaching hundreds of composition students may find the traditional one-on-one teacher-student conference totally unfeasible.

D. When

Cangarajah (2002) delves into the *when* of feedback when he says, “It is important to prioritize and pace the focus on grammar appropriately. Getting students obsessed with grammar problems at early stages of the draft is to distract them from developing their ideas in relation to their purpose and audience” (p. 50). In other words, we might consider selectively focusing on different areas to provide feedback in different drafts. Ferris (2002) though says that L2 student writers may “benefit from simultaneous feedback on content and form on the same draft” (p. 62). However, she later finesses this by suggesting providing only general error feedback in preliminary drafts in conjunction with comments about ideas and organization (p. 62).

E. How

No less important than considering the purpose for which we intend our feedback is how we present that feedback. Lack of sensitivity to this aspect can result in our comments being disregarded or, even worse, our students losing confidence, feeling their work unappreciated and resentful of our efforts. While much of what follows is specifically or implicitly focused on written feedback, it is in most cases relevant no matter what the feedback type.

Goldstein (2005) puts the focus on the student as an individual. She would give the student agency in the process by having each student communicate his/her own writing intentions and feedback needs, and begin this early in the process. One tool she suggests to facilitate this process is the cover sheet in which students provide answers to questions about their writing intent. Goldstein (2005) suggests asking students for their feedback preferences on such topics as what they would like to have feedback on and the extent of the feedback they prefer (always? sometimes? when?). She also suggests using the cover sheet to have each student suggest specific sections of their paper that they feel problematical and for which feedback would be especially useful.

Ferris (2002) addresses another *how* question, one I have found particularly frustrating as a writing teacher, when she discusses the “‘out-of-control’ sentence that has so many errors that it’s hard to know where to start - especially if the teacher is unable even to hazard a guess at the student’s intended meaning” (p. 71). She suggests:

> Fairly directive feedback in the form of asking the student to rewrite or offering a suggested rewrite is probably more effective than trying to make or elicit five or six micro-level corrections in the same sentence. Another potentially effective strategy, if feasible, is to ask the student writer to rephrase the sentence orally during a one-to-one writing conference.” (p. 72)

Richard Straub (2000) makes the distinction between what we focus on (correctness, style, organization, content, and context) and how we make (the mode of) our comments. He maintains that varying the mode of commenting will vary the degree of control we, through our comments, exercise. He bases this on three complementary assumptions:

> First, the form of a comment strongly influences how the comment functions and what it comes to mean. Second, the form of a comment is not enough: Any analysis of how a comment functions must consider, in addition, its voice and content - and the fact that the statement is made by a teacher to a student, with all the power relations that conventionally adhere in such a classroom situation. Third, the meaning and control implied by any given comment may be influenced by the surrounding comments. (p. 79)

The examples of feedback by seasoned academics such as Peter Elbow, that Straub (2000) provides, are generally rich in reflective statements, open questions, advice, and praise. These types of feedback seem much less controlling and more dialogue-inducing and respectful of the student's voice than the usual terse corrections, criticisms, and commands I have been often guilty of.

Finally, the subject of praise is worth raising. I am often guilty of providing scant praise when meting out feedback and feel that I am hardly alone in this tendency. Weaver (2006), in his study of British university students, finds that students want positive feedback.

F. Who

The final question I will discuss is who we are, that is, the roles we play as feedback providers. This issue is raised by Leki (1990) who feels that "L2 students in particular expect and require greater intervention than that of a real reader - intervention offering suggestions, options, or other ways of looking at what they have said (pp. 59-60). Leki adds, "An even more profound schizophrenic split that writing teachers, particularly process-oriented writing teachers, experience is that of trying to be at the same time the coach and the evaluator of student writing" (p. 60).

Additionally, the peer responder can assume a useful role that the teacher/authority may have difficulty providing. Min (2005) found in his peer response study that students' comments changed in modality from short and curt to longer and friendlier because they had originally felt the peer-review process was their chance to be the "teacher," but subsequently assumed more of the role of "reader" (p. 302).

Another possible role is that of collaborator. Pagnucci (2004) describes his experiences as a writing tutor for a home-schooled high school-age student, which moved from the traditional teacher-student relationship to collaboration on a literary endeavor. The change in dynamic from unequals to collaborators led each to a much greater organic investment in the work and process of the other. If such a teacher-student collaboration is impractical in most composition class situations, peer collaboration certainly is not. Storch's study (2005) on peer collaboration engendered such positive feedback as: more ideas could be produced; ideas could be compared and contrasted; it helped improve grammatical accuracy and vocabulary learning, and was fun.

I disagree with Leki (1990) that the reality of our teacher roles prevents us from responding to student texts as readers. My opinion is that all the roles mentioned above have unique parts to play in the feedback process. To the extent that the teacher can reproduce these roles, either in their own person or through the proxy of peer response, the students' writing will benefit.

IV. Omissions

In the above, I tried to touch on a number of writing feedback concerns that many composition instructors find pressing and may have wrestled with. I have omitted a number of topics though, as space does not permit. I would like to mention several here simply to alert the reader to some of these considerations. First, "Where" could easily have been added to the *When, How,* and *Who* sections. The seemingly simple matter of comment placement seems to have an effect on the process. Second, is the question of the efficacy or lack thereof of mini-grammar lessons prior to an assignment or a draft revision. Third, is an indirect written feedback subtopic: whether coded (using symbols) or uncoded is preferred. Fourth, a subtopic of peer review, asks whether it is better to keep the same review group throughout the term or change members periodically. Fifth, are two additional feedback types, *peer rating* or *evaluation* (different from peer response in that students actually grade each other) and *computer-assisted evaluation*.

V. Conclusion and Caveat

To sum up, I have tried to present an overall view of what feedback encompasses, the choices involved in providing (or not providing) that feedback, and some of the reasoning involved and research done to help us make those choices. I recommend treating this as merely a guide to helping you, the reader/composition teacher, to best arrive at your own feedback decisions, especially in light of the following.

A crucial caveat regarding feedback as described in the literature is that it touches lightly or not at all on problems that many of us face. These problems militate against providing feedback in an ideal manner. To use my own situation as an example, having more than 200 writing students a semester is the major problem. Other problems include having each class for a mere two 50-minute periods per week and widely varied ability levels within most classes. No doubt you, the reader, can add difficulties found in your own teaching contexts. All these likely necessitate compromise and creativity in our feedback application.

The Author

Joel Diamond received his MA in TESOL many years ago at the University of Hawaii at Manoa. He subsequently taught ESL briefly at a university in Taiwan, and for a much longer period, at a language school, and then at a university in Tokyo, Japan. More recently he returned to graduate school, receiving his Ph.D. in Composition and TESOL from Indiana University of Pennsylvania in 2010. He is currently teaching at Sejong University in Seoul.

REFERENCES

Bitchner, J., Young, S., & Cameron, D. (2005). The effect of different types of corrective feedback on ESL student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 14,* 191-205.

Canagarajah, A. S., (2002). *Critical academic writing and multilingual students.* Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Casanave, C. P. (2004). *Controversies in second language writing: Dilemmas and decisions in research and instruction.* Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Edgington, A. (2004). Encouraging collaboration with students on teacher response. *Teaching English in the Two-Year College, 31*(3), 287-296.

Ferris, D. R. (2002). *Treatment of error in second language student writing.* Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Gascoigne, C. (2004). Examining the effect of feedback in beginning L2 composition. *Foreign Language Annals, 37*(1), 71-76.

Goldstein, L. M. (2005). *Teacher written commentary in second language writing classrooms.* Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Haswell, R. H., & Lu, M. Z. (2000). *Comp tales.* New York, NY: Longman.

Hyland, F. (2003). Focusing on form: Student engagement with teacher feedback. *System, 31,* 217-230.

Jensen, B., & Fischer, B. (2005). Teaching technical writing through student peer-evaluation. *Journal of Technical Writing and Communication, 35*(1), 95-100.

Kent, R. (2004). Revision: Different editors for different drafts. *The NERA Journal, 40*(1), 47-51.

Leki, L. (1990). Coaching from the margins: Issues in written response. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom* (pp. 57-68). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Lee, I. (2003). L2 writing teachers' perspectives, practices and problems regarding error feedback. *Assessing Writing, 8*(2), 216-237.

Lee, I. (2004). Error correction in L2 secondary writing classrooms: The case of Hong Kong. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 13*(2), 285-312.

Liu, J., & Hansen, J. G. (2002). *Peer response in second language writing classrooms.* Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Liu, J., & Sadler, R. W. (2003). The effect and affect of peer review in electronic versus traditional modes on L2 writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 2*(3), 193-227.

Liu, P. H. (2010). *White prestige ideology, identity and investment: ESL composition class as a site of resistance and accommodation for Taiwanese students* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Indiana, PA, USA.

Matsumura, S., & Hann, G. (2004). Computer anxiety and students' preferred feedback methods in EFL writing. *Modern Language Journal, 88*(3), 403-415.

Min, H. T. (2005). Training students to become successful peer reviewers. *System, 33,* 293-308.

Pagnucci, G. S. (2004). *Living the narrative life.* Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Rollinson, P. (2005). Using peer feedback in the ESL writing class. *ELT Journal, 59*(1), 23-30.

Saito H., & Fujita, T. (2004). Characteristics and user acceptance of peer rating in EFL writing classrooms. *Language Teaching Research, 8*(1), 31-54.

Storch, N. (2005). Collaborative writing: Product, process, and students' reflections. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 14,* 153-173.

Straub, R. (2000). *The practice of response: Strategies for commenting on student writing.* Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.

Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. *Language Learning, 46*(2), 327-369.

Van den Berg, I., Admiraal, W., & Pilot, A. (2006). Peer assessment in university teaching: Evaluating seven course designs. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 31*(1), 19-36.

Weaver, M. R. (2006). Do students value feedback? Student perceptions of tutors' written responses. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 31*(3), 379-394.

Conference Overview

Presentations of

The 20th Annual KOTESOL International Conference

Perfect Score: Methodologies, Technologies, & Communities of Practice

October 20-21, 2012, Seoul, Korea

The 2012 Korea TESOL International Conference Committee gratefully recognizes the following individuals for presenting research papers, conducting workshop sessions, and leading discussions at the 20th Annual Korea TESOL International Conference.

Plenary Sessions

Mike Levy and Glenn Stockwell	Mobile Language Learning: Turning Challenges into Opportinities
Scott Thornbury	The Secret History of Methods
Brock Brady	Plant Teacher Communities of Interest – Harvest Personal Satisfaction and Professional Growth

Featured Sessions

Neil J. Anderson	Engaging in Motivational Teaching Practices to Achieve a Perfect Score
Frank Boers	Applications of Cognitive Linguistics to L2 Pedagogy
Clara Lee Brown	Choose Content-Based Instruction
Mike Levy	Towards a Podcasting Pedagogy: Recent Developments in CALL with a Focus on Listening
David Paul	Motivating Low-Level Students
Glenn Stockwell	Technology and Motivation in English Language Teaching and Learning
Fredricka L. Stoller	Moving Students Toward a Perfect Score with Project-Based Learning
Rob Waring	Extensive Reading in Korea: 10 Years Going from Strength to Strength
Ken Wilson	Ten Quotations to Make You Think
Kyungsook Yeum	Leadership and Quality in ELT Organizations

20/20 Invited Speaker Sessions

Neil J. Anderson	Developing Engaged L2 Readers
Frank Boers	Getting to Grips with L2 Formulaic Language

Brock Brady	Demystifying Critical Thinking
Clara Lee Brown	Content-Based Instruction, the Right Way
David Paul	What Is a Child-Centered Lesson?
Fredricka L. Stoller	Techniques for Developing Students' Reading Fluency
Scott Thornbury	Is There Discourse in This Course?
Rob Waring	A Framework for Assessing Online Reading Resources
Ken Wilson	Can My Students Really Improvise in English?

Featured Colloquium

Moving to Online Instruction: The Challenges and Opportunities	David Nunan, Ken Beatty, MaryAnn Christison, Martha Clark Cummings, Denise Murray

Pecha Kucha Sessions

Neil J. Anderson	The Challenge of Maintaining Balance in Life
Frank Boers	Effect-of-Instruction Studies: A Quick Guide to Getting the Desired Outcome
Brock Brady	Foolproofing Your Classes: A Checklist
Scott Thornbury	The ABC of SLA
Rob Waring	English Students 2.0
Ken Wilson	Glad to be Grey

Assessment / Testing

Allison Bill	Rubrics 101: Better Evaluation Strategies to Help Stressed Teachers and Frustrated Students
David Hutchinson	12 Types of Tasks for Speaking Tests
Lynn Mallory	How Do We Know What They Know? Formative Assessment in the EFL Classroom
Huei-Chun Teng	The Effect of Interlocutor Proficiency on EFL Paired Oral Assessment
Gregory Thompson	Utilizing Rubrics for Validity and Clarity in Assessment Tasks
Colin Walker	Evaluating the Intangibles: Participation and Speaking Exams

Autonomous Language Learning

David E. Shaffer	Affecting Language Learner Self-Direction Through Journaling and Its Perpetuance

Classroom Management

Jackie Bolen	Teaching: The Small Stuff That Actually Matters
Wayne Bottiger	Practical Organizational Skills for Language Teachers
Michael Jones	In Their Shoes: What's It Like to Be an L2 Learner?
Amanda Maitland El Amri	Classroom Management Strategies to Live By
Nathanielle McDonald	Teaching English in English: Tips for Simple and Clear Instructional English
Leonie Overbeek	The ARC of Learning and How Understanding Roles at Each Stage Increases Participation and Co-operation.

Content-Based Instruction

April Wilcoxen	Fighting for Freedom: A Group Project About Modern Day Slavery

Cross-cultural / Intercultural Communication

Paul Bournhonesque	ICC in Classroom Instruction: Bridging Communication Gaps Through Examining Critical Incidents
Simon Gillett	Professionalism in Teaching English
Lara Kurth	ICC in Classroom Instruction: Bridging Communication Gaps Through Examining Critical Incidents
Don Makarchuk	Teacher, How Do I Write My Name in English?
Seunghoon Oh	ICC in Classroom Instruction: Bridging Communication Gaps Through Examining Critical Incidents
David Stewart	Using Video Pen-Pals in the EFL Classroom
Tory Thorkelson	Korea TESOL and ATEK: A Comparative Study of Their Current and Potential Benefits for English Teachers in Korea
Steve Yates	McWriting: Cultural Rhetoric and Writing in the EFL Classroom

Culture and Language Learning

Catherine Peck	Becoming Intercultural in the Korean EFL Classroom

Nopporn Sarobol	Students' Expectations and Conclusions Based on a Short-Term Study-Abroad Program

English for Specific or Academic Purposes

Carla Bridge	Task-Based Teaching? Get Real! Implementing a Task-Integrated EAP Curriculum in Vietnam
Michael Guest	Using Symbols, Acronyms, and Shorthand in ESP (English for Specific Purposes)
Fiona Wiebusch	Task-Based Teaching? Get Real! Implementing a Task-Integrated EAP Curriculum in Vietnam

Global Issues in the Classroom

Hsiao-Wen Hsu	Demotivating Factors Taiwanese Young Adults Perceived in Learning English
Hsiao-Wen Hsu	Experience Makes Difference: A Study of Pupil Experiences of EYL State School Classes

Grammar

Steve Eigenberg	Teachers: Stop Talking and Use Your Hands
Sang Eun Lee	The Distinction Between Oral and Written Discourse and the Acquisition of Past Tense Forms Among Young Learners
Nevin Liddy	A Practical Guide for Creating a Writing Workshop for University Students

Identity (Learner or Teacher)

Robert (Bob) Kienzle	Toastmasters: Improving Teaching Skills on Stage
Robert (Bob) Kienzle	Developing Leadership in the Classroom, in the Office, and Beyond
Chong Min Kim	Self-Directed Learning of Korean Adult Learners Studying English in Online Learning Communities
Eun Joo Kim	Self-Directed Learning of Korean Adult Learners Studying English in Online Learning Communities
Valentin Macias	Toastmasters: Improving Teaching Skills on Stage

Korea

Kyung-gu Cho	Methods to Reduce the Impact of Direct and Cyber Bullying Behavior in Educational Environments
Cheol-rae Kim	Methods to Reduce the Impact of Direct and Cyber Bullying Behavior in Educational Environments
Hyeon-jeong (Daniel) Kim	Methods to Reduce the Impact of Direct and Cyber Bullying Behavior in Educational Environments
Byoung-chul Min	Methods to Reduce the Impact of Direct and Cyber Bullying Behavior in Educational Environments
Tory Thorkelson	Perspectives on Leadership in Korea: East and West
Kyungsook Yeum	Perspectives on Leadership in Korea: East and West
Sang-yong Yun	Methods to Reduce the Impact of Direct and Cyber Bullying Behavior in Educational Environments

Learner Autonomy

Osamu Takeuchi	Investigating Learners' Decision Making in Mobile EFL Learning: Promoting Learner Autonomy
Michiko Ueki	Investigating Learners' Decision Making in Mobile EFL Learning: Promoting Learner Autonomy

Learner Motivation

David Lyons	The L2 Self-Concept in Second Language Learning Motivation: A Longitudinal Study

Learning Preferences / Styles

Robert Cochrane	Use of Language Learning Strategies Among Low Proficiency Japanese University Students
Andrew Thompson	Use of Language Learning Strategies Among Low Proficiency Japanese University Students

Listening

Yoko Harada	Repeated L2 Listening in Different Speech Rate Conditions
Yuko Matsumura	Repeated L2 Listening in Different Speech Rate Conditions
Mei-chen Tan	Learner Autonomy in Listening Strategy Use and Online English Learning
Sonca Vo	Effects of Suprasegmental Awareness on Listening Comprehension

Materials / Course Design

Graham Beals	Freshman English for the NEAT: A New Paradigm
Charles Browne	Introducing the Online Graded Text Editor
Geoffrey Butler	Language Learning Through Student-Generated Content and Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning
Kai-chong Cheung	Reevaluating the Importance of Prepositions in a Freshman English Class in Taiwan
Sarah Christian	Building an Academic Writing Program at a Korean University from the Ground Up
Robert Cochrane	Rethinking Homework: Ideas for Evaluating Homework Design
Andrew Finch	Freshman English for the NEAT: A New Paradigm
Roger Fusselman	Beginning Right: Leading in to a Lesson
Henry Gerlits	What's Wrong with Following the Book? – Using Methodology to Adapt Textbook Activities
Mercurius Goldstein	Teach Me to Teach English in English (TETE)
Ryan Hunter	Building an Academic Writing Program at a Korean University from the Ground Up
Ryan Hunter	Language Learning Through Student-Generated Content and Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning
Lara Kurth	Language Learning Through Student-Generated Content and Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning
Mike Long	Why You Must Be Your Own Curriculum Designer!
Nico Lorenzutti	That's NEAT! 5 Communicative Activities for Teaching M2 NEAT Speaking Preparation
Chad McDonald	An Exploration of the Socratic Method in ELT
Joe Milan	Why You Must Be Your Own Curriculum Designer!
Theron Muller	Investigating and Improving a Distance MA Program
Tim Murphey	Agency and Belonging in the Collaborative Village: Case Studies from Two Asian Contexts
Terry Nelson	Agency and Belonging in the Collaborative Village: Case Studies from Two Asian Contexts
Cameron Romney	Visual Appeal of Handouts and Self-Made Classroom Materials: Does It Matter?
Joseph P. Vitta	A Workable TTT Approach for the Korean University EFL Setting
Crayton Walker	Investigating and Improving a Distance MA Program
Rob Waring	Introducing the Online Graded Text Editor

Multiple Skills

Nasra Adan	Betty or Veronica: Language Acquisition Through Comics
Peadar Callaghan	Total Participation Techniques for the Classroom.
Matthew Coomber	Speaking and Writing: Unlikely Bedfellows or Perfect Partners?
Erik Figueroa	Reader's Theater in Mixed-Skill Classrooms: Guidelines for Adapting Stories into Effective Scripts
Sara Long	Making a Magazine: A 17-Hour Unit Plan
Nico Lorenzutti	The Bimodal Narrative Approach: Extensive Reading and Listening Experiences in EFL Classrooms
Shaun Manning	Using Language-Oriented Tasks to Direct Learners' Attention to Form in Writing Classes
Julien McNulty	Drawing Blanks: 10 Paper Activities When You Have Nothing but Technology Fails
Eli Miller	A Holistic Approach to Storybook-Based Teaching for Beginning Learners
Kenneth Moore	Reader's Theater in Mixed-Skill Classrooms: Guidelines for Adapting Stories into Effective Scripts
Yeon-seong Park	A College English Class Through Poetry Instruction Incorporating the MI Theory
Michael Rabbidge	The Bimodal Narrative Approach: Extensive Reading and Listening Experiences in EFL Classrooms
Crayton Walker	Collocation: From Corpus-Based Research to the Language Classroom

Music / Art / Video in the Classroom

Geoffrey Butler	That's (Not) All Folks: Using Short Videos to Facilitate Classroom Communication
Karen Madoc	The Sound of Music
Kevin Manley	Move, Breathe, React: Authentic Drama Techniques in the ESL Classroom
Megan Pugh	That's (Not) All Folks: Using Short Videos to Facilitate Classroom Communication

Pragmatics

David Holmes	Investigating Socio-pragmatic Instruction of Requests: Measuring Learning

Hye Kyeong Kim	Investigation on the Effect of Short-Term Overseas Experience on L2 Pragmatics: A Case of Public Officers
Paul Stone	Classroom Language Learning Through Social Interaction: A Multimodal Approach

Professional Development

Darren Bean	Intellectual Property Within the Educational Industry
Peter Carter	Templates, T-rexes, and Triple-Plays: Avoiding Presentation Pitfalls
Alex Grevett	#KELTchat: Professional Development at Your Fingertips
Michael Griffin	#KELTchat: Professional Development at Your Fingertips
Shannon Tanghe	An Exploration of Co-Teachers Interaction in Korean Public Elementary Schools
Alex Walsh	#KELTchat: Professional Development at Your Fingertips

Reading / Literacy

Mutahar Al-Murtadha	Most Effective Activities for Teaching Reading to Non-English Majors
Maiko Berger	Learner Attitudes Towards Graded Readers in the Course Curriculum
John Blake	Scientific Abstracts vs. Simplified Readers: Investigating the Effect on the Affect
Rhett Burton	Multilevel Reading Groups for Elementary Students
Apasara Chinwonno	New Literacies: Online Comprehension Strategies for Thai EFL Readers
Dubhgan Hinchey	Scientific Abstracts vs. Simplified Readers: Investigating the Effect on the Affect
Stephen-Peter Jinks	Creating a School Newspaper
Jacob Kletzien	Tips for Creating, Finding, Adapting, and Telling Stories in the Elementary Classroom
Elton LaClare	Reading Fluency: Rationale, Measurements, and Interventions
Nico Lorenzutti	The Bimodal Narrative Approach, Story Without Struggle
Amanda Maitland El Amri	Supporting Extensive Reading Through Soft Toy Theory and the Application of Story Sacks
Melissa Mendelson	Bottom Up Skills: A Necessity for Beginning Language Learners
Scott Miles	Introduction to Extensive Reading

Shaun Miller	Read & Retell: Acquisition, Communication, Accountability, Enjoyment
Rocky Nelson	A Four Strands Approach to Developing an Extensive Reading Program
Kyle Quinn	Extensive Reading for University Conversation Classes
Michael Rabbidge	The Bimodal Narrative Approach, Story Without Struggle
Kris Ramonda	Learner Attitudes Towards Graded Readers in the Course Curriculum
Paul Sevigny	Learner Attitudes Towards Graded Readers in the Course Curriculum
David E. Shaffer	Extensive Reading's Contributions to Language Skills Acquisition
Nathan Soelberg	Bottom Up Skills: A Necessity for Beginning Language Learners
Rob Waring	Online Extensive Reading Resources
Ingrid Zwaal	Comic Books and Extensive Reading: A Research Project

Reflective Teaching Practice

Charles Anderson	Feed-up, Feedback and Feedforward: Re-examining Effective Teacher-Student Interaction
Allison Bill	Professional Development 101: An Active Approach
James Papple	Teaching Metaphors for Critical Reflection
Christie Provenzano	Actual Implementation of Extensive Reading in EAP Classes: A Case Study
Tom Randolph	The Classroom Mirror: Reap the Rewards of Video in Your TESOL/ELT Environment
Thomas W. Santos	A Framework for Teacher Reflection
Richmond Stroupe	Facilitating Collaboration: How Teachers, Administrators, and Institutions Can Work Together
Jeffrey Walter	How I Became a Better English Teacher by Being a Korean Language Student

Second Language Acquistion

Demontray Lockhart	Connecting Through Connectors: Korean Students' Essays Suffer from Adverbial Connectors
Tim Pritchard	Japanese University Students' Attributions for Succcess and Failure in Studying English

William Rago	Who Cares: Linguistics, Second Language Acquisition Theory, and EFL Teachers
Wannaprapha Suksawas	Linguistic Dimensions of EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate

Sociolinguistics / Language Policy / World Englishes

Jason A. Di Gennaro	Private Supplemental Education Perceptions and Experiences of Korean Female University Students
Carmella Lieske	East Asian Students' Perceived Need for Pragmatic and Sociolinguistic Competencies
Julien McNulty	Whodunit? Technological Approaches to Forensic Linguistics Analysis of a Fraud in Korea
Scott Menking	Interacting with East Asians: University Students' Varying EIL Beliefs
Soo Ha Sue Yim	The Historical Development of Education in North Korea

Speaking / Conversation / Pronuncation

Rheanne Anderson	Pronunciation Power: Techniques & Games
Rheanne Anderson	Teaching Your Tongue to Talk: Intensive Pronunciation Instruction
Gunther Breaux	The Holy Grail: A Test That Both Measures and Improves Speaking Ability
Daniel Brown	Creative Speaking: Story Gaming and Role-Play in the EFL Classroom
C. Dion Clingwall	Pronunciation for Korean Middle and High School Teachers of English
Sara Davila	Using Creative Thinking Techniques to Improve Communication
Yoko Kusumoto	Effect of Discrimination Training on the Production of Non-Native Phonemes
Carl Phillips	Authentic Conversation Training

Teacher Training / Development

Crayton Walker	University of Birmingham Distance MA and PhD Programs

Technology-Enhanced Instruction / CALL / CMI / MALL

Anthony Anderson	Building E-Portfolios in EFL Writing with Google Apps
Paul Bournhonesque	Connecting Writing Students: Wikis in Support of Writing Classes in Korea
Ian Brown	Teaching with iPods, iPhones, or Smartphones
Arina Brylko	Setting Up and Using a Teacher's Blog in Wordpress: A Workshop
Terence Clark	21st Century Social Studies: Introduction of Interactive Media into the EFL Classroom
C. Dion Clingwall	A Practical CALL Course for Korean Middle and High School English Teachers
Chris Fitzgerald	Using iPad as a Springboard for Rich Discussion
James Garner	Linking Adverbial Use by Non-Native Writers: How Data-Driven Learning Can Help
Danny Green	Tech Reflection: Google Apps in Task-Based Learning and Other Potential Teaching Applications
Dubhgan Hinchey	Learn at Your Own Pace: E-Learning and Regenerating Student Confidence
Barry Jameson	Twitter: A Vital Tool for Professional Development and Motivation
Michael Jones	Smart Use of Smart Phones: QR Codes in the Classroom
Seolyong Kim	Connecting Writing Students: Wikis in Support of Writing Classes in Korea
Steven Mercier	21st Century Listening: Reaching Learners of Multiple Styles Through Technology
Naomi Miki	Setting Up and Using a Teacher's Blog in Wordpress: A Workshop
Daniel Mills	Getting Smarter: Factors Affecting the Adoption of Smartphones in the Japanese University Classroom
Ken Morrison	Top 2 1/2 Tech Tools for Tricking Students into Improving Their English
Martin Mullen	Using iPad as a Springboard for Rich Discussion
Andrew Pollard	Keeping Your Students on Track with KaTalk
Christie Provenzano	Setting Up and Using a Teacher's Blog in Wordpress: A Workshop
Ohee Rahman	Using ICT Tools in Classroom Teaching
Oliver Rose	MALL Game Design for Vocabulary Study
Han Seo	CALL: Story About Teachers Taking First Step.
Jiraporn Smyth	Online Diary: An EFL Community of Practice

Joseph P. Vitta	Using Twitter to Promote Elementary Interaction and Collaboration
Max Watson	Google Drive (was Google Docs) for Composition Courses
Jeremy White	Getting Smarter: Factors Affecting the Adoption of Smartphones in the Japanese University Classroom

Vocabulary

Joshua Adams	Utilizing Smartphones and Web 2.0: Encouraging Student to Study Vocabulary
James Brawn	Vocabulary Demands of a Post Graduate TESOL Certificate Program in Korea
Geoffrey Goodman	EFL Basics: Teaching High Frequency Lexical Errors in the Korean EFL Classroom
David Leaper	Vocabulary Demands of a Post-Graduate TESOL Certificate Program in Korea
Marie-Emilie Masson	Student Feedback Regarding the Use of “Mastery Sentences”
Grace Eun Hea Yu	Expanding Your Students’ Lexicon: Learning Then Producing New Words

Writing

Lee Babin	From Normal to Exceptional: Adding Creative Writing to Class
Doug Baumwoll	How to Teach the Writing of Structured Paragraphs Using the TEE Model
John Blake	Harnessing Technology to Help Researchers Avoid Plagiarism
Gerald Bourdeau	Teaching Unplugged in the University EFL Composition Course
Joel Diamond	Composition Feedback: The Good, the Bad, and the Possible
Gavin Farrell	Plagiarism: What It Is and How to Avoid It
Gavin Farrell	Importance of Cohesion in a Text
Curt Hutchison	Encouraging Focused Peer Response and Feedback-Based Revisions Through Collaborative Tasks
John McDonald	HOCs and LOCs: What Every EFL Teacher Should Know About Teaching Writing
Geoffrey Miller	Developing Critical Thinking in the Writing Classroom
Eric Reynolds	Finding a Way to Write Right: A Plagiarism Solution

Organizational Partner Presentations

Gabriel Allison, E-Future	Understanding NEAT and Its Speaking and Writing Sections
Neil J. Anderson, Cengage Learning Korea	Improving L2 Reading Fluency
Allen Ascher, Pearson Education	Cultural Fluency: An Essential Skill for Today’s World
Oliver Bayley, Oxford University Press	Effective Digital Learning for Everyone!
Finlay Beaton, Macmillan Korea Publishers Limited	Brainwave: Challenging Young Learners to Think in English
John Brezinsky, Cambridge University Press	Effective Academic Preparation Through Sustained Content
John Brezinsky, Cambridge University Press	Grammar Teaching: Then and Now
John Brezinsky, Cambridge University Press	Becoming a Can-Do Teacher
John Brezinsky, Cambridge University Press	Interchange Fourth Edition: Tried and Tested. Better Than Ever.
John Brezinsky, Cambridge University Press	100% Flexibility with Touchstone Blended Learning
John Brezinsky, Cambridge University Press	The Modern Reading Classroom: Engaging Content, Building Fluency
John Brezinsky, Cambridge University Press	Six Principles for Teaching Pronunciation
Michael Cahill, Cengage Learning Korea	Pathways to Academic Success Through Critical Thinking and Presentation Skills
Michael Cahill, Cengage Learning Korea	Best Practice in Literacy and Language Instruction: Make Every Minute Count!
David Carr, International House London	A Golden Reflection on Teacher Education: 50 Years of Who, What, and How
In-hee Cho, Compass Media	How to Teach NEAT Speaking and Writing in Class
Ralph Cousins, Neungyule Education	Professor
Sara Davila, E-Future	Online & Offline Learning: A Blended Approach
Shawn Despres, Build & Grow	Giving Students an Active Role in the Development of Their Speaking Skills
Roger Dupuy, UC Irvine, Extension	Using the iPad as Your “MacGyver-Knife” for Teaching Language
Rebecca Fletcher, Oxford University Press	Building English Language Skills Through Graded Readers

Clyde Fowle, Macmillan Korea Publishers Limited	Skillful Students Achieve Academic Success
Clyde Fowle, Macmillan Korea Publishers Limited	Breakthrough to Communication, Plus More!
Christine Hwang, McGraw-Hill	Developing Independent, Confident Readers at Primary Level: Reading Laboratory 2.0
Julie Hwang, Oxford University Press	Let Us Guide You Through the World of Phonics with *Oxford Phonics World!*
Julie Hwang, Oxford University Press	Get Your Students Talking with Primary Courses from Oxford University Press!
David Jones, Compass Media	Effective Ways of Improving Writing Skills for Young Beginners
Kathleen Kampa, Oxford University Press	The M & M's of Teaching English to Young Learners: Using Music, Movement, and Multiple Intelligences
Alice Kim, Cambridge University Press	Do You Want to Get Immediate and Meaningful Results?
Ellie Kim, Cambridge University Press	Cambridge English Teacher: Online Professional Development for English Language Teachers
Kate Kim, Compass Media	Developing Core Test Skills with Quattro Reading: (Bilingual Session)
Wooju Kim, Cambridge University Press	TKT and TKT Online Course
Nur Kurtoglu Hooton, Aston University	Aston University: TESOL and Applied Linguistics Programmes
Anna S Y Lee, Kyobo Book Centre	Preparing for NEAT Through Integrated Listening and Speaking Practice
Cheri Lee, Larrabee Learning	Designing a Leveled Debate Curriculum: An Alternative to Productive Skill Classes
Cheri Lee, Larrabee Learning	The Debate as a Language Learning Tool: Insight into Versatile Roles
Carmella Leiske, Cengage Learning Korea	Methods for Mending Motivation Malaise
Euna Lyu, Pearson Education	How to Study Grammar for Better Communication
Anders McCarthy, Praxis Education	Applying CALL and Gaming Theory to Vocabulary Learning
Scott Miles, Praxis Education	Applying CALL and Gaming Theory to Vocabulary Learning
David Nunan, Anaheim University	Professional Advancement Through Online TESOL Doctoral, Master, and Certification Programs

David Paul, Compass Media	How to Motivate Communication for Low-Leveled Students
Claude Sandoz, PAX	Fun of Reading
Aaron Siegel, E-Future	Five Ways to Improve Reading Comprehension Instruction for Standardized Tests
Joon Soh, Build & Grow	English Newspapers in a Speaking Class Environment
Lewis Thompson, E-Future	Helping Children Speak in the English Classroom
Eric Verspecht, McGraw-Hill	Preparing Students for Academic Success: *Interactions/Mosaic* 6th Edition
Eric Verspecht, McGraw-Hill	Dynamic Learning Experience with *MegaGoal*
Crayton Walker, University of Birmingham	University of Birmingham Distance MA and PhD Programs
Matthew Walker, Houghton Mifflin Harcourt	Concrete – Pictorial – Abstract: Applying It to Vocabulary in the Classroom
Matthew Walker, Houghton Mifflin Harcourt	Engaging Students: It's a Start, but Where Do We Go from There?
Linda Warfel, Scholastic	Scholastic Reading Inventory and Scholastic Reading Counts: Measuring and Monitoring Reading Achievement
Linda Warfel, Scholastic	Everyday Book Boxes: Encouraging an Extensive Reading Environment
Rob Waring, Compass Media	Setting Your Compass for Reading
Rob Waring, Compass Media	Oceans of Fun While Reading Online
Ken Wilson, Oxford University Press	What Can You Do with Unmotivated Students? Make Them Curious!
Lin (Kitty) Zhang, Pearson Education	Keep Kids WARM in Learning English