Korea TESOL Journal

Volume 8, Number 1

KOREA TESOL

KOTESOL

Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

Korea TESOL Journal
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Korea TESOL Journal, a refereed journal, welcomes previously unpublished practical and theoretical articles on topics of significance to individuals concerned with the teaching of English as a foreign language. Areas of interest include:

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Korea TESOL Journal

Volume 8

The official journal of
Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
(KOTESOL)

Production Layout: Robert J. Dickey, *Gyeongju University*
Printing: Myeongjinsa, Seoul

ISSN: 1598-0464

Korea TESOL Journal, published annually, is the official scholarly journal of Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (KOTESOL) and is distributed free of charge as a service to the members of the organization.

We hope you will write to the editors and individual authors and let them know how useful you find the materials and how you may have adapted them to fit your own teaching style or situation. An email address for each author has been included, and you may also find contacts to this Journal via the KOTESOL web site (www.kotesol.org).

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Price: Free to Members; 10,000won (US$10) to non-members.

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About KOTESOL

Korea TESOL: Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (KOTESOL) is a professional organization of teachers of English whose main goal is to assist its members in their self-development and to contribute to the improvement of ELT in Korea. KOTESOL also serves as a network for teachers to connect with others in the ELT community and as a source of information for ELT resource materials and events in Korea and abroad.

Korea TESOL is proud to be an affiliate of TESOL Inc., an international education association of more than 15,000 members with headquarters in Alexandria, Virginia, USA, as well as IATEFL, an international education association of over 3,500 members with headquarters in Canterbury, Kent, UK.

Korea TESOL was established in October 1992, when the Association of English Teachers in Korea joined with the Korea Association of Teachers of English. As stated in the Constitution and Bylaws, "Korea TESOL is a not-for-profit organization established to promote scholarship, disseminate information, and facilitate cross-cultural understanding among persons associated with the teaching and learning of English in Korea. In pursuing these goals KOTESOL shall cooperate in appropriate ways with other groups having similar concerns."

KOTESOL is an independent national affiliate of a growing international movement of teachers, closely associated with not only TESOL Inc. and IATEFL, but also the Japan Association of Language Teaching (JALT), Thailand TESOL (ThaiTESOL), English Teachers Association of the Republic of China (ETA), Far East English Language Teachers Association (FEELTA, Russia), and most recently with the English Language and Literature Teachers Association of Singaore (ELLTAS).

The membership of KOTESOL includes English teachers for all levels, as well as teachers-in-training, administrators, researchers, materials writers, curriculum developers, and other interested persons. Approximately 40% of the members are Korean.

KOTESOL has nine chapters—Seoul, Gangwon, Suwon-Gyeonggi, Cheongju, Daejeon-Chungnam, Daegu-Gyeongbuk, Busan-Gyeongnam, Gwangju-Jeonnam, and North Jeolla—as well as international members. Members of KOTESOL are from all points of Korea and the globe, thus providing KOTESOL members the benefits of a multi-cultural membership.

Visit www.kotesol.org for membership information.

Foreword

This latest volume of the *Korea TESOL Journal* presents five research papers, all concerned with ESL at the tertiary level. In addition, all of the papers in this issue focus entirely or mostly on Asian learners, two on Koreans, two on Japanese, and one on Iranians.

It is generally accepted that Korean learners' motivation for learning English is instrumental – English proficiency is required to pass exams, get a job, study or travel abroad. Teachers are well aware, too, of the need for intrinsic motivation – to create a classroom environment that encourages their students to learn. Don Makarchuck uses data from surveys and from an in-depth interview to show that integrative motivation, arising from some psychological identification with speakers of the target language, also has a role, and he argues that it should be taken into account and promoted by teachers.

Cultural differences in academic writing styles are the subject of Seonmin Huh's research. Comparing the English writing of two Korean doctoral students of Education in a US university with that of two American counterparts, she concludes that whereas the Americans used their writing as an instrument of communication, the Koreans appeared to see it as a carrier of their own thoughts; their writing was vaguer than that of the Americans, and they were much more reticent about challenging received opinions. Huh's paper reflects on the difficulties of Korean students in adapting to Western norms of rhetoric, but it is equally a plea to Western academics to understand and respect the cultural milieu that their overseas students are coming from.

Alex Poole addresses the dichotomy between communicative teaching and focus on form, and poses the question: What are the differences between students who frequently focus on form and those who do not? His study is specifically concerned with interactions between learners, and notes that when learners negotiate about the language they are using, they focus on lexis much more than on syntax. It appears that form-focused negotiation with fellow learners is linked to positive attitudes toward communication and self-confidence, and appears to be independent of cultural background, since Japanese learners were represented in both the frequent and infrequent groups.

A study by Ataollah Maleki conducted with Iranian university ESL students shows that English proficiency is related not only to scores in English courses, but more remarkably, to general academic achievement as well. Professor Maleki also touches on broader issues affecting the selection of tertiary-level students in Iran.

Perhaps the bravest paper in this issue is the one by Andrew C. Johnson and Mark D. Sheehan on the touchy topic of cheating or, as it is euphemistically termed both in Japan and Korea, "cunning." Only 5.6% of their sample of Japanese students claimed they had never cheated either on homework or a test. The respondents generally regarded cheating in university as being much less serious than in high school, and ascribed the wrongdoing mostly to laziness, lack of understanding, and the pressure to find a job after graduation. Lest we suppose this is an exclusively Asian problem, the authors also mention that 74% of students questioned in a US survey confessed to cheating.

In addition to the research articles, the present volume also carries nine reviews. It is possibly a measure of the current ESL *Zeitgeist* that three of the books reviewed are about task-based learning (one of them co-authored by the first editor of this journal), while others cover English as an international language, multiple intelligences, learner language, and speaking assessment. There are also reviews of a dictionary and some ELT software.

It takes a large number of people to make an academic journal possible. In addition to the contributors, thanks are due above all to the Journal's Editor-in-Chief, Dr. Hee-Jeong Ihm, and the Managing Editor, Scott Jackson. Special mention should also be made of the Reviews Editor, Dr. David Shaffer, and the layout designer, Dr. Robert Dickey, both of whom did a great deal above and beyond the call of their job descriptions. To all those mentioned, and to members of the editorial staff who refereed and proofread the submissions, I would like to express my sincere gratitude.

Michael Duffy
Korea TESOL Publications Committee Chair

Integrative Motivation and EFL Learning in South Korea

DON MAKARCHUK
Kyonggi University

This paper explores certain aspects of motivation in the South Korean EFL classroom. It focuses attention on integrative and instrumental motivation; with integrative motivation, in particular, being examined for relevance in the South Korean context. It is argued, based on the results of the two small-scale studies, which are reported in this paper, that both of these constructs are important motivational influences in the context under consideration. In addition, the findings suggest that practitioners should also emphasize intrinsic motivation-related activities when seeking to encourage motivation.

INTRODUCTION

Motivation is likely a concern for all ELT practitioners and researchers at some time or another as it is generally considered central to language learning. Chomsky (as cited in van Lier, 1996) goes so far as to claim: “The truth of the matter is that about 99 percent of teaching is making the students feel interested in the material. Then the other 1 percent has to do with your methods” (p. 12). In order to better understand how to engage our students’ interest, it is essential to know what motivates them.

This paper considers the relationship between motivation and English language learning with a particular emphasis on the South Korean educational context. The relevance of one aspect of motivation in particular—integrative motivation—will be examined in depth. It is generally agreed that instrumental motivation is a central influence among South Korean EFL learners (H.-O. Kim, 2002; S.-K. Kim, 2005; Y.-S. Kim, 2004). However, integrative motivation has been held by some researchers to be important (Y.-S. Kim, 2004) while others have raised doubts regarding its impact on the learner (H.-O. Kim, 2002; Warden & Lin, as cited in Y.-S. Kim, 2004).

This paper reports on the results of two small-scale studies of motivational influences. The first examines motivation in the context of university-level South Korean English as a foreign language (EFL) learners and finds that three types of motivation play an important role in this context: instrumental, integrative and intrinsic. The second explores the relevance of integrative motivation with regard to the South Korean context through an in-depth interview, and suggests that integrative motivation is a relevant concern of English language researchers and teachers in South Korea despite geopolitical issues which appear to limit its importance.

MOTIVATION DEFINED

While there is no universally accepted definition of motivation in general psychological terms, two conditions repeatedly crop up in the literature to inform this construct: (1) the instigation of an activity and (2) the continued pursuit of that activity (Dörnyei, 1998). With regard to language learning in particular Williams and Burden (1997) define motivation as

> a state of cognitive and emotional arousal which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals). (p. 120)

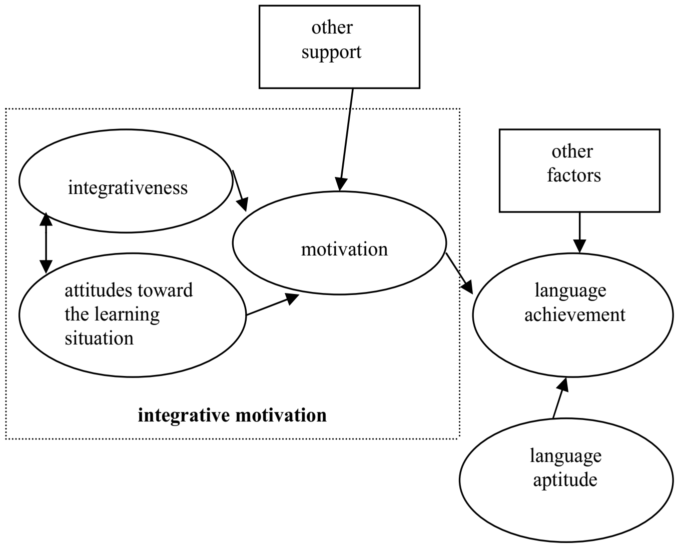
While this definition highlights the importance of the two aforementioned general psychological conditions of motivation it also implies a third vital factor, the source of arousal of motivated action. What gives rise to motivation has been a prominent concern of motivation researchers for some time. Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert have been influential contributors to this area of research with their work focusing on factors which inspire motivation, primarily integrativeness and instrumentality. Gardner (2001) states:

> [Integrativeness] reflects a genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer to the other language community. At one level, this implies an openness to, and respect for other cultural groups and ways of life. (p. 5)

Masgoret and Gardner (2003) write that integrativeness is measured by three scales: (1) attitudes toward the target language group, (2) integrative orientation (desire to "interact, meet, socialize, become friends, etc., with members" (p. 172) of the target language group and (3) interest in learning foreign languages.

For Gardner, **integrative motivation** is a complex of integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation and motivation where motivation is defined as (1) expending effort to learn, (2) wanting to achieve a language learning goal and (3) enjoying the learning experience (see Figure 1 below from Gardner, 2001, p. 5). Attitudes toward the learning situation refers to "the individual's reaction to anything associated with the immediate context in which the language is taught" (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003, pp. 172-173). This would include, for example, factors like the teacher and the course content.

FIGURE 1. GARDNER'S BASIC MODEL OF THE ROLE OF APTITUDE AND MOTIVATION IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING



According to Gardner (2001), if all of these conditions for integrative motivation are met, there will be a positive effect on language achievement.

Another dimension considered by Gardner was instrumentality. In Figure 1 above, this concept comes under the heading of "other factors." Instrumental factors are reasons for studying a language that focus on achieving "instrumental goals: furthering a career, reading technical material, translation, and so forth" (Brown, 1994, pp. 153-154), and **instrumental motivation** is a combination of the previously described motivation and "instrumental factors" (Gardner, 2001, p. 7). These instrumental factors seem to refer to what Gardner (2001) refers to elsewhere as instrumental orientation.

With regard to terminology, for the purposes of this paper the term integrative motivation will be used to describe what Gardner and his associates refer to as integrativeness minus the interest in learning foreign languages component; in other words, integrative orientation plus attitude toward the target language group. Dörnyei and Csizer (2002) distinguish between integrativeness and integrative orientation by claiming the more limited role of being a reason for studying the L2 for integrative orientation while integrativeness seems to entail a deeper psychological identification with the L2 cultural group. They note that psychological identification with the L2 group is the core aspect of both these constructs and Gardner's integrative motivation, and it is this *psychological identification with the L2 group which is referred to as integrative motivation* in this paper. Instrumental motivation will be used to refer to Gardner's instrumental orientation. This use of terminology is not meant to demean in any way, but rather to recognize the way in which these terms have commonly come to be used by teacher educators (Brown, 1994; Cook, 2001; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991) and practitioners in the field.

The view of motivation presented above has held and holds great sway in English language teaching (ELT) and research because of its explanatory power and because it has been the subject of extensive empirical research (Dörnyei, 1998). It has not, however, been unconditionally accepted. It has been criticized for overemphasizing the importance of integrative motivation at the expense of instrumental motivation and ignoring cognitively-based motivational factors (Crookes & Schmidt, 1989).

With regard to the relative importance of integrative motivation, a number of studies found that it was not the most important motivational factor. In some cases this was attributed to the weakness of the construct (see studies by Oller and Au, as cited in Crookes and Schmidt, 1989) and in others to the greater importance of instrumental motivation in some, especially foreign language, learning contexts (see studies by Lukmani and Kachru, as cited in Brown, 1994).

In fact, Gardner and Lambert (as cited in Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991) have acknowledged the importance of instrumental motivation, based on a study conducted in the Philippines.

> It seems that in settings where there is an urgency about mastering a second language—as in the Philippines and in North America for members of linguistic minority group—the instrumental approach to language study is extremely effective. (p. 174)

Alternatively, research by Dörnyei and Clement (2001) in a foreign language setting indicates that

> integrativeness represents a certain "core" of the learners' generalized attitudinal/motivational disposition, subsuming or mediating other variables, which is in complete accordance with Gardner's (1985) motivation theory. (p. 423)

Also, Cook (2001) writes that " Whether the country is Belgium, Poland, Singapore or Taiwan, the integrative motive comes out as more important than the instrumental. Surprisingly, the highest scores for integrative motivation are Taiwan" (p. 116). A recent article by Masgoret and Gardner (2003) which reported on a meta-analysis of 75 studies of motivation and language learning using a Gardnerian approach found a stronger role for integrative motivation than instrumental (orientations in their terminology) in both second and foreign language settings, though both had a positive effect.

As for the cognitively-based criticism, it is claimed that Gardner's approach to motivation fails to address issues of motivation related to psychological processes happening within the learner and those within the learner specifically resulting from being in a classroom environment. Brown (1994) stresses the importance of **intrinsic** motivation. He cites Deci who writes that "Intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself" (pp. 155-156). Also relevant here, is work by Pintrich on academic motivation, Kuhl on action control and McCroskey on willingness to communicate (see MacIntyre, MacMaster, & Baker, 2001). With regard to the classroom, Crookes & Schmidt (1989) note that teachers are interested in how to encourage students to become interested in learning tasks and stay interested without needing continual encouragement. Others have complained that Gardner's approach "concerns only the social dimension of L2 motivation" (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 123).

Starting with the classroom-related issues, Dörnyei makes the point that the Gardner model of integrative motivation does not neglect the effect of the classroom on motivation in that it includes a focus on the classroom in its "attitudes toward the learning situation" component. As for complaints that the Gardner approach does not pay sufficient attention to learner psychological processes, while this was probably true of earlier conceptualizations, Gardner's latest model (with Tremblay)(as cited in Dörnyei, 1998) does take these into account to some extent under the headings of goal salience, valence and self-efficacy.

To sum up this section, motivation in ELT has been strongly influenced by the constructs of integrative and instrumental motivation. While controversy remains as to the extent to which these constructs can be used to explain motivation, considerable research continues to support them. It should be emphasized however, that they are not the only factors inherent in the motivation equation. Gardner (2001) himself notes that “there may be other factors such as a particularly stimulating teacher or course that promotes motivation” (p. 7).

MOTIVATION AND UNIVERSITY-LEVEL LEARNERS IN SOUTH KOREA

It would seem, based on the literature, that both integrative and instrumental motivation are likely to have some role to play in EFL education in South Korea. However, there exists some uncertainty as to the relative strength of each factor in this particular context. S.-K. Kim (2005), a Seoul National University English professor, highlights the strength of instrumental motivation when he writes that “Our high schools have turned into nothing more than exam coaching factories, churning out machine-like students whose sole function in life is to pass exams” (p. 15). H.-O. Kim (2002), in a study of high school students, university students and white-collar employees learning English in South Korea, found evidence to support the importance of instrumental motivation but seems to question the significance of integrative motivation in South Korea by writing that Gardner’s instrumental-integrative motivation bilateral distinction has relevance only when the learner is studying in the L2 context. On the other hand, Y.-S. Kim (2004) found in a study of South Korean university learners that both instrumental and integrative motivation were highly influential in determining learner motivation. Finally, Warden and Lin (as cited in Y.-S. Kim, 2004) found that instrumental motivation was a strong motivating factor among their Taiwanese EFL learners, but not integrative motivation. These findings are held to be relevant to South Korean learners because Taiwan and South Korea are similar EFL learning environments (Y.-S. Kim, 2004).

In order to add to our understanding of the motivational climate in South Korea, a number of groups of EFL learners from a variety of majors enrolled in elective, oral communication classes (conversation and public speaking) offered by the Department of English Language and Literature at a South Korean university were asked to complete two surveys. The first survey was intended to elicit information on a variety of motivational influences, while the second focused on three motivational factors in particular: instrumental, integrative and intrinsic.

Survey 1

This survey was developed from a needs analysis form created by Nunan (1994)(see Appendix A). The primary purpose of the survey was to discover more about the motivational influences affecting these students in order to provide them with a better learning experience. From a research design perspective, it was intended, in part, to narrow the concepts to be addressed by Survey 2, as recommended by Dörnyei (2003). Survey 1 was meant to shed light on the relative importance of instrumental motivation (Items 1, 7, 9 & 10), integrative motivation (Items 3 & 6), significant-other motivation (Item 12) and intrinsic motivation (Items 4 & 8). Items 2, 5 and 11 were concerned with the learning of particular language skills, listening, reading and writing, respectively. The learners were asked to rank a total of 12 items from most important to least important.

Results

The survey was conducted twice. First, at the beginning of the semester and, second, at the end. A Pearson correlation coefficient of r = .76 for the two sets of scores indicates a highly positive correlation between the learners' responses over the two administrations. For the purposes of this paper the results of the second survey (see Table 1) will be used for analysis as it was drawn from the larger sample (n = 125). A total of 41 male and 84 female learners participated in the study.

TABLE 1. REASONS FOR LEARNING ENGLISH

Student Responses	Reasons for Learning English											
N = 125	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Mean	6.15	7.14	3.99	5.77	6.58	6.87	7.02	7.46	6.54	3.61	9.54	11.11
SD	3.6	2.9	3	4.7	2.7	3	3.6	3.7	3.1	2.9	2.8	2.4

The survey suggests the following:

- The learners are highly instrumentally motivated with regard to jobs (Item 10, mean = 3.61).
- The learners are highly integratively motivated in relation to informal oral communication with L2 speakers (Item 3, mean = 3.99).
- The learners seem to enjoy learning new languages (Item 4, mean = 5.77).
- The learners are not strongly influenced by significant others (Item 12, mean = 11.11.).
- The learners are not particularly interested in developing their writing skills (Item 11, mean = 9.54).

Discussion

The above summary of this survey focuses primarily on the results at the poles. This is in response to criticism of ranking surveys of the type described here. Burns (2000) notes that respondents might want to choose the same rank for two or more items but be unable to do so, or might be unable to rank some items but are forced to do so. It is believed that by focusing on the results nearest the poles, there is a higher degree of certainty that they represent accurate estimates of learner preference.

The survey suggests that for these university students the most important reasons for learning English are to aid them in getting a job and to help them have casual conversations with native speakers of English. The former is unsurprising as other studies of similar learners (cited above) found this reason to be important. In addition to Item 10, two other instrumentally-oriented items were highly ranked: Item 1 (4th) and Item 9 (5th). A third item, #7, was ranked 8th, perhaps indicating that foreign study was not something commonly envisioned by the survey respondents.

The importance given to Item 3, an integratively-oriented item, suggests that for these learners integrative motivation is an important consideration. However, a concern was that perhaps this item, which was intended to measure integrative motivation, was not truly doing so. Reasons for this suspicion are (1) that the second integrative motivation item (Item 6) had a considerably higher mean score (mean = 6.87), and (2) questions raised in the literature about the ability of items to truly distinguish between instrumental and integrative motivation (see Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). Also of concern was intrinsic motivation because of the disparity between the rankings of the two items intended to measure this construct. Item 4 was ranked 3rd while Item 8 was ranked 10th.

As a result of these concerns, an additional survey was administered which focused specifically on instrumental, integrative and intrinsic motivation.

Survey 2

Approximately 6 months after the administration of Survey 1, another survey (Appendix B) was filled out by 114 learners at the same South Korean university. Survey 2 was completed by different students than Survey 1. They were, however, highly similar in that they were taking the same oral communication courses in the Department of English Language and Literature, and were similar in age and English ability. This survey asked learners to rate nine statements on a 5-part scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Three statements measured each type of motivation: instrumental (2, 7 & 8), integrative (1, 4 & 5), and intrinsic (3, 6 & 9).

The statements were adapted from sources in the literature devoted to motivation research (Gardner, 2001; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001). Dörnyei (2003) suggests using 4 or more items per sub-area because some statements may not work, thus resulting in too few to properly assess the construct under investigation. However, as all the statements had been found to function well in previous studies, 3 statements per sub-area were judged to be sufficient in this case. It should be noted, though, that a check of internal consistency using Cronbach's Alpha revealed a somewhat low coefficient for the integrative motivation sub-area (alpha = .532), and a low coefficient for the intrinsic motivation sub-area (alpha = .226). As a result, claims regarding the intrinsic motivation sub-area need to be regarded with caution.

Statements

1. Studying English is important to me because I will be able to participate more freely in the activities of English-speaking cultural groups.
2. Studying English is important to me because it will be useful someday in getting a good job.
3. When my English class ends, I often wish that we could continue.
4. Studying English is important because it will allow me to find good friends more easily among native speakers of English.
5. I am learning English because it will help me to communicate with people who speak it.
6. I really enjoy learning English.

7. Increasing my proficiency in this language will have financial benefits for me.
8. Being able to speak English will help me get a higher position in society.
9. My English class is difficult but I enjoy it.

Results

The combined average mean for the instrumental motivation statements is 1.58, for the integrative motivation statements, 1.63 and for the intrinsic motivation statements, 1.94. A combination of a One-way ANOVA and a Scheffé test revealed no significant difference between the instrumental motivation and integrative motivation statement means, while both of these were significantly different from the intrinsic motivation statement mean at the 95% confidence level.

TABLE 2. MOTIVATION STATEMENTS

Student Responses*	Motivation Statements								
N = 114	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Mean	1.5	1.21	2.04	1.96	1.44	1.71	1.91	1.62	2.08
SD	0.63	0.54	1.14	0.89	0.72	0.68	0.83	0.84	0.94

* 1 = strongly agree, 2 = slightly agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = slightly disagree, 5 = strongly disagree

Discussion

Given the results of the first survey, it is not surprising that the learners in this survey responded somewhat strongly to statements related to instrumental and integrative motivation and slightly agreed with statements focused on intrinsic motivation.

It would seem then, based on the results of Survey 2, that both instrumental and integrative motivation should definitely be considered as important by EFL teachers in South Korea. This is **not** to suggest that other factors do not also contribute to motivation or perhaps may be even more important than those surveyed above, but rather to argue for the relevance of the factors being considered, especially integrative motivation given the suggestions to the contrary, with regard to the South Korean context. Intrinsic motivation, while not as strong as either instrumental or integrative in this study, was regarded positively and, thus, should also be a consideration when teachers are reflecting on the motivational climate of their classroom.

INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION AND THE SOUTH KOREAN EFL CONTEXT

While the above surveys support the position that integrative motivation is an important consideration in EFL motivation in South Korea, as has been seen above, not everyone concurs. It would seem that a closer look at this type of motivation is warranted.

Cook (2001) writes that "The integrative motivation reflects whether the student identifies with the target culture and people in some sense, or rejects them" (p. 115). However, much of the empirical research done to justify claims about the importance of integrative motivation in foreign language learning is based on English native speakers learning French as an L2 in Canada, a country where French is an official language and which has a large number of French-language native speakers. Other studies found less importance for integrative motivation in settings which did not have the large contingent of L2 native speakers that Canada has (as cited in Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991) and more of a role for instrumental motivation. This has led some to question the relative importance of integrative motivation in all settings (Williams & Burden, 1997). Cook (2001), however, recently reported integrative motivation to be stronger than instrumental in all of his research settings with the highest scores coming in Taiwan where 88 percent of the learners favored it. A possible explanation for this preference for integrative motivation in settings where it is difficult for learners to contact L2 native speakers comes from Dörnyei (as cited in Cook, 2001) who found that general attitudes and stereotypes toward an L2 culture and people can stimulate integrative motivation. About this Dörnyei and Csizer (2002) write,

> In the absence of a salient L2 group in the learners' environment … the identification can be generalized to cultural and intellectual values associated with the language, as well as to the actual L2 itself. … We suspect that the motivation dimension captured by the term [integrativeness] is not so much related to any actual, or metaphorical, *integration* into an L2 community as to some more basic *identification process* within the individual's *self-concept*. (p. 453)

Are South Koreans integratively motivated with regard to English language cultures? Do South Koreans identify with the target language culture and people in some way or reject them (to paraphrase Cook above)? South Korea's strong ties with one English-dominant country, the U.S., might suggest an affirmative response. In South Korea, the United States has exercised a great deal of influence, especially from the end of World War II on. Cumings (1997) cites V. Holt, a British minister, in the following:

> American influence reached new heights by 1950. … American cultural influence was "exceedingly strong", ranging from scholarships to study in the United States, to several strong missionary denominations, to "a score of traveling cinemas" and theaters that played mostly American films, to Voice of America, to big-league baseball: "American is the dream-land" to thousands if not millions of Koreans. (p. 255)

Furthermore, S.-H. Cho (2003) writes that a survey of students at a prestigious South Korean university found that if given a choice of citizenship, 45% would choose U.S. citizenship over South Korean. On the other hand, another survey reported by S.-H. Cho (2004) revealed that 39% of South Koreans believe the U.S. to be the country which most threatens South Korean security, with the percentage rising to 58% for South Koreans in their twenties.

Various authors (Lightbown & Spada, 1993; McGroarty, 2001) have noted that language learning is related to the power relationships that exist between cultures, including between their languages. In South Korea, the U.S., has been regarded diversely as a beneficial big brother who provided assistance through its actions in World War II and the Korean War, and as a tyrannical usurper who is perceived by some to have had undue influence over South Korean domestic affairs (S.-K. Kim, 2005). This complexity muddies the waters to do with the influence of integrative motivation on English language learning motivation in South Korea.

AN INTERVIEW WITH K CONCERNING INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION

In order to better understand the relationship between integrative motivation and the South Korean learner a small-scale study was undertaken. In the study one good learner, (K), was asked a number of questions (see below) in a structured interview format. The purpose of the interview was to examine whether or not integrative motivation played a part in this learner's ability to achieve a high level of English language communicative competence. (It is assumed that even if integrative motivation is found to be important, other factors [expectancy of success, for example] will have played important motivational roles in the learner's language development.) Specifically, the research question the study sought to answer is *Was integrative motivation a factor in the learner's language learning process?*

In this study integrative motivation is defined as having a *positive regard* for an L2 group's language, culture (including its traditions, customs, and artifacts—art and entertainment forms, for example), geopolitical persona and people. (This may include stereotypes of people or actual encounters or both.) These categories are intended to operationalize the previously-mentioned concept of psychological identification with the L2 group.

K (the interviewee) and the writer have known each other for approximately 8 years. K is a Korean language native speaker who has lived exclusively in South Korea. She is 36 years old, female, a college graduate, and works as a private English teacher, teaching elementary and middle school children. She also works as a volunteer tourist information officer, a job she was selected for on the basis of her English language ability. K was chosen for this study for reasons of convenience, but also because she has a history of criticizing the U.S. presence in South Korea. As a result, she seemed a likely candidate to provide support for those who claim that integrative motivation is not of significance in South Korea. Alternatively, if even a person with an aversion to at least some aspects of the L2 context (as represented by the U.S.) could be found to have integrative motivation, this would constitute more compelling evidence for the integrated motivation position than if someone with a neutral or positive attitude had been interviewed.

The interview took place in a one-hour session in June, 2003. The interview was audio-taped and transcribed based on conventions found in van Lier (1988).

Interview Organization

The interview questions were devised and the responses analyzed according to three levels with respect to four categories. The three levels were a measure of the interviewee's type of regard for the L2 context, and they were positive, neutral or negative. This measure is essentially a subjective evaluation based on the interview comments. The four categories which sought to capture integrative motivation in this study are language, culture, geopolitical orientation and people. In addition, the interviewee was asked to recall four time periods (middle school, high school, university and post-university) in order to assess change over time. The above were operationalized by the following questions:

(a) Language: (1) *What was your opinion of the English language at that time?* This category was deemed relevant to integrative motivation because it is possible for learners to have a regard for the language itself (e.g., French sounds like beautiful music, German is hard and cold.)

(b) Culture: (2*) What did you think about the customs (food, social behavior, etc.) of countries where English was the main language?* (3) *What did you think about the countries' art and entertainment (literature, movies, fine art, etc.)?* This category measures the learner's attitude toward certain aspects of culture.

(c) Geopolitical Orientation: (4*) What did you think about the countries' roles in world affairs?* This category is intended to reflect the learner's opinion of the role the L2 country or countries play on the world stage, perhaps vis-à-vis her own country.

(d) People: (5*) Did you come into contact with any English native speakers at that time (in person, on TV or radio, etc.)?* If yes: (5a) *What did you think of him/her/them?*(6) *Did anybody you know come into contact with any English native speakers at that time?* If yes: (6a) *What did they think of him/her/them?* (7) *What was your opinion of English native speakers at that time?* This category seeks to describe the learner's attitude toward people of the L2 culture.

Results

TABLE 3. INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION INTERVIEW RESPONSES

	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Language		(L= transcript line)	
middle school		L10 didn't think about learning English	
high school		L80 didn't think speaking English was good or bad	
university		*no relevant response*	
post-university		*no relevant response*	

TABLE 3. (CONTINUED)

	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Culture			
middle school	L156/164 dancing & music/we love them (American songs)		
high school	L88 poems were popular L156/164 music & dancing	L84 no time to think about culture	
university	L142 liked Westerns (American movies) L156/164 music & dancing	L130 not very interested	
post-university	L190 love watching movies		L190 becoming a slave of their culture
Geopolitical Orientation			
middle school	L12 rich country L32 rich country L62 rich, powerful		L24/26 problems between South Korea & the U.S.
high school	L80 U.S. is powerful		L100 negative feelings for the U.S.
university	L146 wealthy & powerful		L130/146/148 very negative toward the U. S.
post-university			L192 rich countries have too much power
People			
middle school	L32 attractive, wealthy L38 positive encounter L60 rich L62 wealthy, attractive		L26 was taught U.S. soldiers were a problem L54 father conveyed negative ideas about U.S. soldiers L60 arrogant U.S. soldiers
high school		L118 never saw any foreigners	
university	L146 attractive, peaceful, graceful L174 attractive		L174 negative view of U.S. soldiers
post-university	L202 positive encounters		L202 somewhat negative encounters

Summary of the results with respect to integrative motivation by category

- The English language, itself, is not an important factor.
- Culture indicates a positive association though tempered by some statements to the contrary and concerns about cultural conditioning.
- Geopolitical orientation includes both positive and negative influences.
- The people category shows a positive association with a generalized notion of L2 people and non-military L2 individuals, but a negative attitude toward U.S. soldiers.

Discussion

There seems to be no relationship between the English language itself and the learner's reasons for learning English. Such a relationship might have existed as Dörnyei and Clement (2001) in their study of Hungarian learners found that German and Russian were regarded as masculine languages and French and Italian as feminine. English, however, was found to be "gender-neutral" indicating, perhaps, less of a masculinity-femininity signature. The interviewee in this study showed no appreciation for such intrinsic qualities of English, if indeed there are any, and rather emphasized its utilitarian value as a communication tool (L38 & L80, for example).

The interview results clearly show a positive regard for aspects of L2 culture, particularly American movies and music. Curiously, the learner reports not having had an interest nor the time to be interested in L2 culture. It may be that while being a salient factor with regard to integrative motivation, L2 cultural influences represented such a small part of the learner's life in general that they are not thought of as important. However, support for the strength of culture as a motivational factor comes indirectly from the interviewee's concern about cultural conditioning and the concomitant loss of Korean identity. Surely, L2 culture had to have been a significant part of the interviewee's (or other's) experience for such a concern to exist. The threat to her Korean identity seems to have grown as she got older in that it is part of her post-university experience. It may be that her initial positive regard for L2 culture became tempered by concern as her exposure to the L2 culture grew and she matured.

The importance of geopolitical factors in language learning motivation was noted by Dörnyei and Clement (2001). They write that "These findings provide unambiguous support to the claim that macrocontextual and geopolitical factors significantly affect people's language attitudes" (p. 423). In this study the interviewee is divided between admiration for L2 countries' (primarily the U.S.'s) wealth and power and a negative attitude toward the U.S.; which given the historical relationship between South Korea and the U.S. is likely a result of the power differential which existed and exists between these two countries. This contention is supported by the interviewee's post-university comment that it is unfair that rich countries control everything (L192). It is unclear what effect this opposition of views (L146) would have on integrative motivation, but it seems likely that the negative attitude would act to counter the positive. One complicating developmental factor is that initially (in middle school and high school) the negative view of the U.S. seems to have originated outside the learner, coming from her teachers, whereas later (at university) it seems to have been internally generated and to have been stronger. This may mean that initially, a largely positive attitude shifted to a more negative attitude as she grew older.

The learner is also divided in her attitude toward L2 people. On the one hand, she is positively-oriented in that she admires their appearance, wealth and manner, a view which was bolstered by one very positive encounter and other congenial interactions with English native speakers. On the other hand, she was exposed to negative views of U.S. military personnel at home and in middle school. It should be noted that these views do not seem to have been internalized in the way that her attitude toward L2 countries was (L174). It would seem, then, that her attitude toward L2 native speakers would have an overall integrative effect with regard to motivation.

With regard to the degree of influence of integrative motivation on second language acquisition, Gardner and Lambert claimed a strong relationship for the Canadian context (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991) but noted that it may be less significant in settings where there is limited opportunity for learners to contact L2 native speakers (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991)(a condition which prevailed in South Korea according to the learner in this study—L116). Cook's (2001, p. 116) research which demonstrates a strong relationship between integrative motivation and interest in language learning (though not proficiency) might be explained by Dörnyei's contention (see above) that general attitudes and stereotypes can influence integrative motivation when direct contact with L2 individuals is limited.

In South Korea both stereotypical and direct-contact causal factors seem to be of importance. The interviewee reported having a somewhat idealized view of L2 speakers with regard to appearance, manner and wealth, and also positive and negative impressions based on actual encounters with L2 native speakers, with the negative effect of the U.S. soldiers based in South Korea being of especial importance. In this regard, South Korea may not be comparable with other contexts where a large L2 military presence does not exist (as in Cook's [2001] examples of Taiwan and Singapore) because the negative attitude toward U.S. military personnel is fueled in part by crimes committed by the personnel and their family members in South Korea ("U.S. military," 2005).

One might wonder if perhaps English language-dominant countries other than the U.S. (the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, for example) might be the source of learners' integrative motivation. However, another survey conducted at the same time and with the same learners as Survey 2 showed American English to be the favorite variety to be learned among those listed above (see Appendix 3). This result is supported by a similar finding which was reported by Gibb (1997). One should be cautious, though, in interpreting this finding as support for integrativeness with respect to the U.S. as the desire to learn American English could also be the result of instrumental motivation, with learners believing that American English might be the key to a more successful future.

Summary

This study suggests that integrative motivation is a factor to be considered in language learning in South Korea. While the language specific factor was deemed unimportant and the geopolitical orientation influences appear to counter each other or tend to the negative, K revealed an early positive regard for the L2 context with respect to the culture and people categories, a positive regard that seems to have weakened as she got older. It is, of course, impossible to determine with specificity from this study the degree to which integrative motivation affected K's language learning; however, it seems clear that it was an influence even for this somewhat L2-antagonistic learner.

MOTIVATIONAL IMPLICATIONS FOR THE CLASSROOM

It is axiomatic that teachers should try to promote motivation in the classroom. A first step in managing this process is to obtain an understanding of the nature of motivation as it relates to language learning. Next, gain knowledge of your learners and then relate this knowledge to the construct of motivation that has been chosen. (For a list of general motivational advice culled from the literature, see Appendix D.)

This study has highlighted the importance of three aspects of the motivation construct: instrumental, integrative and intrinsic motivation. With regard to instrumental motivation, it seems clear that presently, it is a highly influential type of motivation given South Korea's highly competitive examination-focused educational system and tight employment market in which English proficiency is highly prized. Teachers need to remain aware that this very utilitarian aspect of motivation is one which drives many learners, and, therefore, can be used to promote language learning.

A word of caution ought to be introduced at this point, for too much of an emphasis on instrumental motivation might not be entirely positive. Survey 2 showed the learners to be in slight agreement with statements related to the impact of intrinsic motivation, and though intrinsic motivation seems to be of less importance than integrative and instrumental motivation for them, nevertheless, it is influential. This is relevant in that it raises the specter of conflict between intrinsic motivation and instrumental motivation. Some studies have reported (van Lier, 1996) that an emphasis on extrinsic motivation (like instrumental motivation) can reduce intrinsic motivation. Given the importance of instrumental motivation, this suggests a strong weighting of emphasis in the classroom on references and activities that focus on instrumental motivation while not forgetting those that appeal to intrinsic motivation.

It seems likely that integrative motivation is less strongly emphasized in the South Korean context as compared to instrumental motivation, given the negative views that exist toward the U.S. among some elements of society, and, thus, that teachers might improve their classrooms by considering how best to incorporate references to the target culture and people in their classes. To begin with, teachers can benefit from knowing what their learners' attitudes are with respect to the target group, especially negative attitudes. Lambert (as cited in Cook, 2001) makes the point that "The best way I can see to release the potential [of bilingualism] is to transform their subtractive experiences with bilingualism and biculturalism into additive ones" (p. 118). Similarly, a language teacher in South Korea can try to transform initially negative attitudes into positive ones, or, if that seems too grand a goal, to at least focus on the positive attitudes and avoid exacerbating the negative ones. To achieve this, the teacher might do well to emphasize America the wealthy and influential while at the same time avoiding references to America as the determiner of geopolitical affairs (especially in South Korea), and highlight Americans, the people, for their positive aspects while not directing learners' attention to U.S. military personnel. In addition, teachers can include references to English-dominant countries other than the U.S. While these countries may lack some of the cachet of the U.S. in South Korea, they also evoke less antagonism.

CONCLUSION

In this paper, an attempt has been made to provide a rationale for recommending ways of maximizing motivation in the South Korean English language classroom. It has been argued, based on the results of two surveys of university-level EFL learners and an interview with a foreign language learner, K, that instrumental, integrative and intrinsic motivation are important motivational influences to consider in South Korea.

It should be noted, though, that small-scale studies of the kind reported here are generally considered to be limited in their generalizeability. Readers might consider the similarity of their educational context to the one in which the study was conducted as a way of judging the relevance of the findings.

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APPENDIX A

ENGLISH AND YOU

Instructions

1) Do not write your name or student number.
2) Why do you want to learn English? Rank the following reasons from 1 to 12. Number 1 is the most important reason and number 12 is the least important.

I want to learn English

1. to talk in formal situations (e.g., to a doctor, employer, government official) _____
2. to understand the radio or television _____
3. to talk informally with native speakers (e.g., a friend, future neighbor, etc.) _____
4. to learn a new language (I like learning languages.) _____
5. to read newspapers, books, the Internet, etc. _____
6. to understand foreign cultures (e.g., American, Canadian, British, etc.) _____
7. to do further study in a foreign country (e.g., go to a foreign university) _____
8. to please myself (I enjoy learning English.) _____
9. to travel more easily in foreign counties _____
10. to help me get a good job _____
11. to write letters and essays _____
12. to please someone else (my parents, teachers, etc.) _____

APPENDIX B

ENGLISH AND YOU 2

Instructions
1) Do not write your name or student number.
2) Check the box that you agree with most.

1. Studying English is important to me because I will be able to participate more freely in the activities of English-speaking cultural groups.

Strongly agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2. Studying English is important for me because it will be useful someday in getting a good job.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3. When my English class ends, I often wish that we could continue.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4. Studying English is important because it will allow me to find good friends more easily among native speakers of English.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5. I am learning English because it will help me to communicate with people who speak it.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6. I really enjoy learning English.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7. Increasing my proficiency in this language will have financial benefits for me.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8. Being able to speak English will help me get a higher position in society.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

9. My English class is difficult but I enjoy it.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

APPENDIX C

LEARNERS' PREFERRED VARIETIES OF ENGLISH

LEARNERS' PREFERRED VARIETIES OF ENGLISH

Student Responses*	Varieties of English				
N = 123	Australian	American	British	New Zealand	Canadian
Mean	3.85	1.6	2.59	4.41	2.56
SD	1	1.1	1.1	0.8	0.83

*1 = most want to learn, 5 = least want to learn

APPENDIX D

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING MOTIVATION IN THE CLASSROOM

1) General

- Create conditions which allow learners to succeed because success promotes positive regard (Lightbown & Spada, 1993)
- Try to ensure physical surroundings, temporal conditions and a classroom atmosphere (pleasant and relaxed) that are conducive to learning (Dörnyei & Csizer, as cited in Dörnyei, 1998; McGroarty, 2001)
- Enhance the learner's social image by avoiding face-threatening situations (Dörnyei, 2001)
- Encourage learners to make the most of what they have achieved as opposed to focusing on the negative (Dörnyei, 2001)

2) Tasks

- Variety of tasks (McGroarty, 2001)
- Personalize tasks (McGroarty, 2001)
- Appropriate level of difficulty for group work (If tasks are too difficult group cohesiveness breaks down.) (Jacob et al., as cited in McGroarty, 2001)
- Give learners some choice, some control over task selection (Williams & Burden, 1997)
- Discuss the purpose of the tasks with the learners (Williams & Burden, as cited in Dörnyei, 2001)

3) Teacher

- Make the classes interesting (Dörnyei & Csizer, as cited in Dörnyei, 1998)
- Have a good command of the L2 (McGroarty, 2001)
- Organize instructions clearly (McGroarty, 2001)
- Treat students fairly (McGroarty, 2001)
- Provide timely feedback that is informational not controlling (Williams & Burden, 1997)
- Be enthusiastic (Deci, as cited in Dörnyei, 2001)
- Try to align your goals with those of the student (Schumann & Schumann, as cited in Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991)
- Develop a good relationship with learners (Dörnyei & Csizer, as cited in Dörnyei, 1998)
- Promote learner linguistic self-confidence, autonomy, and goal-orientedness (Dörnyei & Csizer, as cited in Dörnyei, 1998)
- Familiarize learners with target language culture (Dörnyei & Csizer, as cited in Dörnyei, 1998)

How People Write Differently: A Comparative Study of Korean and North American Graduate Students' Writing Styles

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Academic writing samples of two NS (Native Speaker of English) and two NNS (Non Native Speaker) Korean graduate students are analyzed to investigate the writing theories they are most often based upon and to look for cultural differences in demonstrating strong personal opinions. There are some important differences in the participants' writing styles based on divergent theories that affect the extent to which writers demonstrate strong critiques and suggesting solutions or recommendations in their writings. These gaps in terms of presenting personal opinions, questioning and providing possible solutions for questions are interpreted as one of the cultural components. Possible conflicts between teachers of English writing and Korean students and the teachers' roles as cultural resources, models and counselors in actual writing classes are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

We have learned how we should write in academic settings and have judged what kinds of writing styles are considered to be superior to others. Whenever I face the value judgments about so called 'good academic writing', I have to ask myself whose criteria are being applied and why certain writing techniques and styles should be recommended for academic success. Here I argue that it is very natural for students from different backgrounds to have various ways of writing about the topic they are dealing with. These differences should be valued in academic settings as cultural or linguistic differences, rather than as demonstrations of the minority students' ignorance of "standard written discourse" of English.

To make my argument convincing, I will introduce my research into different writing styles of Korean and American students when they present their ideas or opinions on academic topics within their fields of study, and will discuss possible misunderstandings or misjudgments of Korean students' writing from the viewpoint of American educators' standards.

RESEARCH PROBLEM

The purpose of this study is to question the strict criteria of academic discourse and to point out the danger of marginalizing non-dominant discourses, focusing on written academic discourse. American academia does not seem to pursue education for all. To begin with, Mutnick (1996) posited that the academic standards many have tried to define

> conceal the political basis for excluding social groups from cultural institutions like universities; their narrative of basic writing omits the race, class, and gender oppressions that pervade higher education. [The American academic standard] assumes that the academy is an ideologically natural zone that fosters critical thinking and self-criticism, rather than a key site for the reproduction of the dominant culture, and that literacy is indeed a ticket to upward social mobility (Mutnick, 1996, p. 41).

Moreover, Gee (1990) and Cazden (1988) demonstrate a discourse theory which indicates that different cultures have a variety of ways of using language and expressing ideas through language. As Heath (1983) and Hull et al. (1991) pointed out, the discourse model that students acquire as part of their home culture at times conflicts with the academic, or mainstream, model. This conflict might imply the disadvantage of students from non-mainstream backgrounds, and things could be even worse for students coming from across the world and from varied cultural and academic backgrounds. Gee (1990) mentioned, "Cultural models from different cultures can conflict in their content, in how they are used, and in the values and perspectives they carry" (p. 90).

In addition, the fact that writing is crucial for academic success, and that ESL writers are unlikely to adapt smoothly from writing in their native language to academic English writing expectations in American school settings (Bizzell, 1986; Carson & Leki, 1993; Fox, 1994; Kaplan, 1966; Silva, 1993) leads us to suppose that second language learners of English might show even bigger disparities in their writing styles when their academic discourse is compared to the dominant one used by American students. Some previous studies indicate that native speakers of English think second language learners' writings are less effective (Campbell, 1987a, 1987b, 1990; Park, 1988; Yu & Atkinson, 1988). Here, we see the possible differences among students' writing styles depending on their cultural backgrounds, and the potential for miscommunication among people from different cultures. This kind of miscommunication might lead readers to underestimate the writing abilities of students who do not have the dominant discourse of certain typical academic settings. Since things will be even worse for second language learners of English, it would be meaningful to look for the different writing styles of students from two different cultures, America and Korea, for example, when they are doing academic writing. It will help us as educators to predict Korean students' writing difficulties and avoid potential underestimation of what they attempt to express in academic English writing.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

In recognition of the significance of the research problem, this section will present a summary of the theories this study will be based upon. Two sub-sections will be introduced: *L1 Composition Theory* and *Cultural Forms of Rhetoric*.

L1 Composition Theory

L1 composition theories set the foundation of how we perceive writing should be and how people from different cultural backgrounds write differently. Among these, the individual/cognitive view and the social view are the two main theories that are closely related to this research.

The individual/cognitive view

Elbow (1973), Emig (1971), Flower (1985, 1989) and Flower and Hayes (1981) think of writing as writers' cognitive procedures. They emphasize the cognitive processes writers go through, rather than writing products themselves. *Thinking* and *process* are two important concepts in this approach. *Thinking* identifies higher-order thinking skills with problem-solving strategies, which are considered to be crucial components of writing from the cognitive point of view. According to Flower and Hayes (1981), *process* is "a set of distinctive thinking processes which writers orchestrate or organize during the act of composing" (p. 366). These comprise two main writing processes, in that once a problem has been identified and a paper has been planned, writers continue the writing process by translating their plans and thoughts into words and reviewing their work by revising and editing (cf., Hayes, 1996).

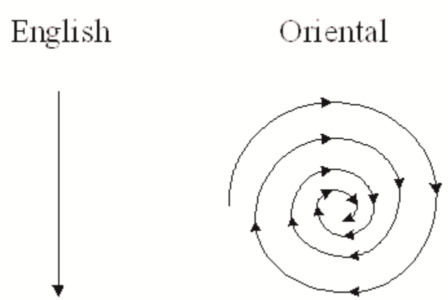
Many criticisms (Nelson, 1990; Brandt, 1986; Horowitz, 1986) have been expressed in that the variables that might affect writing, other than the writer him/herself, were ignored by defining writing as an act of solely the individual writers' control. These criticisms have developed into social theories of writing, which will be described next.

The social view

There are three schools of thought that look at writing as a social act, social constructionists, social interactionists, and social cognitivists. Whereas social constructionists take writing products as a social act that can take place only within and for a specific context and audience (Coe, 1987), social interactionists add the writers' influence to the social contexts as well. Nystrand, Greene and Wiemelt (1993) emphasize "dialogism" in that both the writer and readers take the responsibility for a coherent text because they communicate to each other to make meanings for creating and contextualizing texts. Social cognitivists seek to understand writing as situated cognition (e.g., Berkenkotter, 1991), and so they try to assess how cognition and context interact with each other in specific situations for a text to be produced. They approach writing more holistically because they try to combine both writer factors and social influences.

With these theories in mind, we have learned of two different views for looking at writing, the cognitive view and social. In this study, we will apply these two theories and look for the components of the cognitive and social views of writing from the participants' writing samples. Focusing on these two perspectives will facilitate a search for the differences in students' perceptions toward writing underlying their own written discourse, because it provides us with a lens to look at the writing products both as individual cognitive processes and social interactions between the writers and the outside world.

FIGURE 1. ENGLISH AND ORIENTAL APPROACHES TO WRITING



Adapted from R. Kaplan (1966, p. 15).

Cultural Forms of Rhetoric

There is a classical but important theory of rhetoric arguing that each culture has unique ways of writing. Kaplan (1966) identified five distinct patterns of paragraph development for five loosely defined cultural groups; the underlying hypothesis is that one's preferred rhetorical structure is divergent based on one's culture of (academic) origin. Among five groups studied, the English model followed a direct, linear development but Asian writers used an indirect or circular approach, only coming to their main point at the end of the paragraph. *Figure* 1 visualizes the movement of writing within the paragraph in English and Oriental groups.

Related to this, Hall (1976) talked about high-context and low-context cultures and found that members of high-context cultures communicated non-directly, but people from low-context felt the need to give and receive clear information quite directly. When writers of these two respective groups brought these forms of communication to the written page, it is assumed that high-context writers were likely to suppress their ideas, whereas low-context writers wrote much clearer opinions of their own.

The implications we can get from these two arguments of Kaplan and Hall are that North American students will be more likely to express their opinions quite directly and in detail, while on the other hand, Korean students might have readers guess what they really want to say and will be relatively reluctant to mention their own ideas, especially when they have opposing opinions- that is, they will suppress their own ideas and write indirectly. We will interpret students' different writing styles as one aspect of cultural diversity based upon these theories.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Under the theoretical frameworks above, this section will introduce previous research, which is closely related to the present study. The two parts of this section are *Comparing L1 and L2 writing* and *cultural factors influencing academic English writing*.

Comparing L1 and L2 writing

Several studies have been done comparing L1 and L2 writings. Among these, Silva (1993) examined 72 reports of empirical research comparing L1 and L2 writing and claimed that L2 writing differed from L1 writing strategically, rhetorically, and linguistically. He identified a number of notable differences between L1 and L2 writing in the aspects of the composing process (planning, writing, and reviewing), features of written texts (fluency, accuracy, quality, and structure), and linguistic structure (discoursal, morphosyntactic, and lexicosemantic). To selectively summarize the findings, Mahmoud (1983) indicated that L2 writers less often stated and supported their positions fully and differently from NES. Choi (1988a) stated that Korean students often use indirect (inductive) strategies—going from evidence to conclusion. In addition, Choi (1988b) reported that Koreans preferred to provide solutions for perceived problems, whereas NES's make claims and then demonstrate justification for their claims. Angelova and Riazantseva (1999) did a similar study targeted at second language learners of English. They found out that NNS students' papers were different in structure and rhetoric from those of their American counterparts. With rhetoric, for example, Chinese and Russians tend to express their ideas quite vaguely and the Chinese think explaining their ideas in a strictly defined logical way is not recommended because to have the audience infer what you mean is considered to be better in China. The findings of these studies are similar to what we expect to find in this study, in that Koreans are predicted to be indirect and try to come up with solutions rather than focusing on justifications of their arguments. Koreans are predicted to be more vague in expressing their opinions. I will test these hypotheses in this study.

In general, the target groups of the previous research in this section have been low proficiency level second language learners, and that makes these studies more focused on the formats or structures of students' writings, with discussion of linguistic errors and lack of cohesion in writing formats. Thus, there is a strong need for further study focusing on high-achieving students to rule out the possible differences caused by low proficiency in English. In that way, we can truly look for the cultural effects on students' writings.

Cultural factors influencing academic English writing

Many researchers present contradictory findings about the ways cultural factors influence students' academic writing. Some studies show that culture does not affect academic writing much. For instance, Dong's (1996) study of three Chinese doctoral students' dissertation writing in science showed that the students' linguistic, cultural and educational backgrounds did not hinder their acquisition of academic language and conventions. Recently, Zhou (2004) studied the dissertation proposals of 6 doctoral students (4 NNS, 2 NS) and found out that differences in the students' written texts were less related to their linguistic or cultural backgrounds but more to the ideology and epistemological and methodological norms and conventions of their disciplines or programs of study.

In the same vein, Mirshafiei (1994) conducted a longitudinal study of 230 students from various cultural backgrounds, where he studied the influence of culture on students' writing styles. He insisted that "the percentage of students who believe that culture influences their writing style, their thinking process, their role in class, and their treatment of technical and scientific information is almost identical for non-native respondents and native speakers" (1994, p. 276). This study implies that cultural influences on one's writing cannot necessarily be interpreted as specific rhetorical patterns shaped only by one's culture.

Other scholars insist that culture is one of the important factors making students' academic writings quite different depending on the cultural backgrounds the students are coming from. Among these, Spack (1997) documented a Japanese student's writing in a United States university for three years and concludes that both writers' educational and cultural backgrounds and their experiences of writing in their present institution or program shape their approaches to academic literacy practices. After analyzing the composition skill development of 21 adult ESL students from 15 different nations, Rahilly (2004) also insists that culture plays an important role in students' writing development, and that might impact negatively on students' affective factors and communication and learning styles by having American teachers under-evaluate them.

Similarly, Snively (1999) investigated Chinese students learning academic English writing and revealed that they have been taught to write in tightly controlled, hierarchical patterns based on Confucianism and carefully worded to avoid directness, personal opinion, or confrontation with the teacher. Such essays in English would generally be considered excessively wordy, indirect, and academically unacceptable according to standard American writing conventions (as cited in Rahilly, 2004, p. 65-66). These studies indicate that there may well be possible discrepancies in the writing styles depending on writers' diverse cultural backgrounds, and potential conflicts when North American educators evaluate the writings of students from other cultures. I will further investigate cultural components in Korean and North American students' writings to see if I can corroborate the findings of these researchers.

There seem to be some limitations in previous research on cultural differences in writing. The research that found that cultures do not affect students' writings used mostly dissertation proposals. Those kinds of writings rarely allow students to creatively express their ideas or opinions because of certain conventions they should follow. Furthermore, previous studies that show 'culture' as one influential component in students' writings do not actually look into the contents of writing samples, but rather concentrate more on the writing development process. The only study that talked about the contents of students' writing is Snively's (1999), but the focal students there were not Koreans. There should be some cultural specificity which is applicable only to Korea. These limitations strengthen the need for this study.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The foundations of the theoretical frameworks and the points that are missing in the literature have helped us come up with the specific research questions that need to be further investigated through this study. The research questions are:

1. How differently do students' writings represent students' individual perceptions of 'writing'? Do North American and Korean students have social views of writing in their work?
2. How do NS (Native Speaker of English) and NNS (Non Native Speaker) graduate students write differently to demonstrate their own opinions on topics? How could the differences in their way of writing create miscommunication between Koreans and North Americans?

METHODOLOGY

The research design, the characteristics of participants and the data I collected and the ways of analyzing the data will be introduced in this section. First, I will state the design of this research, followed by *Participants, Data collection and Data analysis*.

Design

Content analysis (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996) is applied in this research. Fraenkel and Wallen (1996) explain that since much of human activity is not directly observable or measurable, we use content analysis, which is the analysis of the usually, but not necessarily, written contents of a communication (p. 405). Textbooks, essays, or political speeches—in fact, the contents of any type of communication can be analyzed. Since the purpose of this study is to see writing styles of four participants, a content analysis research design would be the proper way to fulfill my goal for the research.

Participants

Two NS (Native Speaker of English) and two NNS (Non-Native Speaker) Korean graduate students participated in this research. All four participants are graduate students in one American university located in western New York State. All participants are doctoral candidates. To rule out diverse academic written discourse deriving from different fields of study, I only chose students from a single major—education. Since my focus is not linguistic errors of student writing, students who have high educational backgrounds and corresponding English proficiency would be appropriate to compare and contrast students' different writing patterns arising from cultural diversity.

I will use the initials of students' names to maintain participant confidentiality. The two American students' initials are: N and T. Y and M will be used for the Korean students.

Data collection

Writing samples from four participants were collected. All writing samples are weekly reflections students wrote for one of the courses they took for the spring semester, 2005. The reason I decided to use weekly reflections as writing samples is that weekly reflection demonstrates students' understandings of assigned readings for a class discussion and are usually quite flexible in their formats and contents because the purposes of weekly reflections is to express students' own opinions and questions. This type of writing sample is perfect when it comes to looking for cultural components.

Data analysis

A theme-based approach was applied in data analysis. After carefully investigating the data collected, I ascertained the themes that are noticeable as differences in students' writing styles that might be influenced by their own cultures. Each theme will be stated as a sub-title in the Results section.

In addition to the theme-based approach, I analyzed the content by looking at the structures of students' written narratives (Labov & Waletzky, 1967). Following Labov and Waletzky's (1967) criteria, I selectively concentrated on the evaluative statements, since it will reflect how they assume the concept of writing to be and the evaluative comments often show their styles of presenting their own subjective and somewhat biased ideas.

RESULTS

Here I will demonstrate students' noticeable writing styles that may be explained by cultural influences. *Interactive approach in their writings, Demonstration of their own opinions* and *Beauty of being vague* are three themes I will discuss in this section.

Interactive approach in their writings

In their writings, we could clearly see which writing theories they are based upon. N and T consider writing as a tool for communicating with others and seem to take writing as an on-going process of meaning-making. Both N and T concentrate more on sharing ideas and have readers think about the questions they have. This is identical with Nystrand, Greene and Wiemelt's (1993) "dialogism". For example, N wrote:

> N: Discussion question: Were those of you more adept at quantitative analysis than I am satisfied with their explanation here?

What N is trying to do here is invite her readers to express opinions on one of the research readings she has read for the class. She also put in one question when she closed her writing.

> N: They bring up an excellent point in their insistence that "we need to take the information from [teachers'] intuition and experience and validate it by well-designed research." Do you agree? There are some who would agree, I suspect, insisting that experienced teachers know more about what works in a classroom than those who don't have classroom experience and who make recommendations based upon "flawed" research. Others would point to action research as a middle ground, perhaps. I think this would make an interesting topic for some class discussion.

She continues asking questions that came to mind throughout her entire paragraph. T also talked about the questions he wants answered in order to know about the research methods used in the study he is reading.

> T: There are a couple more things that I am interested in from the reading. First, I wonder about the combined-procedure condition that had not been run at the time of the paper in the last experiment presented. Also, what has been done since this paper in the area of contextual learning? I must say that I enjoyed this read, not only because it proved much more accessible than the Sternberg and Powell (1982) piece I first read, but also because I liked the way Sternberg conducted the research. This is something we should also discuss in class.

Not only do N and T position themselves explicitly but they also try to communicate with their readers. They do not seem to think that complete ideas of their own are needed because they ask questions they have in the middle of their writings and do not necessarily try to come up with answers to their questions. Rather they provide food for thought for the upcoming discussion they will have in class by asking questions.

Y and M provide us with quite a different story. Y and M tend to consider their writings as one complete work of their own. They rarely show willingness to communicate with their readers and leave their questions unanswered. What they are usually doing is trying to show their own ways of constructing meanings and suggesting the solutions for the questions they have. In other words, they show their thinking process of problem-solving, which reflects the cognitivists' view of writing (See also Elbow, 1973; Emig, 1971; Flower, 1985, 1989; Flower & Hayes, 1981). This corresponds with Choi's (1988b) results that Korean students want more to provide solutions, rather than to justify their positions. For example, M talks about different vocabulary teaching methods and positions herself with methods she prefers, but she decided to have general solutions, rather than justifying her position.

> M: However, whatever methods we promote, I deem, it should neither be complicated to teach nor complicated to learn to use it in everyday practice. After all, students should have automatic access to vocabulary knowledge to be good reading comprehenders (Mezynski, 1983). For this automaticity, everyday practice should be essential, and we have to think what to practice everyday for students' vocabulary growth.

Y tries to make sense of functions of school using critical pedagogical perspectives. He asks a question to himself and writes what is in his thinking process, based on the texts he has read.

> Y: Do schools function only as a tool determining, reflecting, and reproducing social, cultural, and political inequalities that the dominant class wants to maintain? Critical educational theorists give an answer to this question that schools also play a role of emancipating their students . . .. However, critical educational theorists argue that the meanings of true emancipation and empowerment of schoolings have been stained by hidden curriculums . . .. Therefore, it frequently happens that even people who have received successfully schoolings do not further promote their social and economic status . . ..

Rather than have his question open-ended for discussion, he focuses more on clarifying his own answers to the question so it makes his writing more complete. He doesn't seem to communicate with his readers, but talks to himself about the topic he is working on.

These show that T and N are more based upon social perspectives of writing theory, whereas Korean students Y and M tend to have more cognitivists' components in their writings. As Mahmoud (1983) and Angelova and Rizantseva (1999) found in their studies, one may ascertain that supporting writers' positions has different values in Korea and North America. Here we can assume possible miscommunication between North Americans and Koreans when they interact in written discourse. This will be elaborated further in the discussion section.

Demonstration of their own opinions

North American and Korean students have different ways of demonstrating their opinions. N and T frequently state strong opinions against the author's arguments and are more likely to extend the content knowledge they have learned from assigned readings into their own ideas. This can be explained by Kaplan's (1966) theory of rhetoric, in that North Americans tend to be direct in their statements. Here are some samples from N and T. First, T found the missing points of one meta-analysis paper and mentioned his extended opinions on this.

> T: Beyond noting the effectiveness of group involvement, the authors stop short of discussing the importance of social interaction and instruction in the sense that we often talk about social interaction within the context of a classroom. However, I noticed that the setting factor of group versus individual instruction did not have a large effect on every type of instruction. Semantic-based methods for example did not have big differences.

N did similar things, in that she demonstrated her extended ideas on intelligence by mentioning what the authors had not clearly taken into consideration in their study.

> N: . . . but it didn't seem to me that aptitude (intelligence) had been investigated fully enough in any of the studies that were reviewed in the literature for this week. . . . and maybe that verbal aptitude is stronger in some learners than in others. Okay, fine; that explains some of the variation in learning for me, but not all of it. I think that rather than merely regarding the "low verbal aptitude" learner as "less skilled" based on a test of verbal aptitude, as is reported in many of the studies reviewed in the meta-analyses read for this

> week, maybe we need to recognize the other types of aptitudes that these learners have and factor those aptitudes into the instruction in word learning that they receive.

After mentioning what the authors did in the research, N argued against their insistence about the keyword method.

> N: They report that "keyword methods also produced consistently strong effects, at least on measures of definitional and contextual vocabulary knowledge" (p. 101), something that they said they found "surprising" (p.98). However, I didn't find this surprising at all. After all, a keyword method calls upon a learner's ability to visualize knowledge. It is very possible that those learners who do not necessarily have high verbal aptitude but who do have strong visual aptitude could learn and remember vocabulary very effectively from the keyword method.

On the other hand, Korean students Y and M did comment on what they thought of the readings, but seem to be more cautious about stating strong opinions on the author's arguments and about criticizing the authors. This corresponds to Hall's (1976) argument of high-context culture because Koreans prefer indirect comments. Y wants to have neutral positions about controversial issues:

> Y: Closing this paper, I'd like to ask myself whether Korean teachers have to prevent students from using the so-called non-standard Korean and English expressions in cyber spaces or even in school environments. My answer is "no." However, it does not mean that I am disregarding people's efforts to preserve Korean language.

Even though he thinks some theories are not suitable for Korean educational situations, he tries to make sense of each theory as much as possible; instead of taking extreme positions against the theory by saying the theory would not make sense in Korean situations.

> Y: At a first glance, "multiliteracies" pedagogy seems to have few relations with the Korean educational situation . . .. In this respect, the multiliteracies pedagogy seems to suggest that even the countries which are believed uni-cultural and uni-lingustic like Korea need to adjust their cultural perspectives from macro- to micro-level in order to deeply understand students' small but diverse cultures and reflect them in their learning, which will make it possible for more students to empower themselves in and out of school.

In the case of M, even though she wondered why the author did not provide information which might facilitate readers' understanding, she did not find fault or critique them. Instead, she went through her own ways to get the necessary ideas for comprehending the research she is reading.

> M: However, I wondered why she did not give any examples of "text-based references to local context." (p.323). When you look at the three Tables the text-based references to local context was the most used strategy for both Marian and Shawn, but there was no excerpts. Nevertheless, I have realized that the Tables give you more clear picture of how Harmon identified the strategies students used for each unknown word.

In short, Korean students are less likely to criticize harshly when the authors they are reading make a claim against their beliefs. They want to have balanced opinions on certain facts and try to focus more on what we can take from them and are less likely point out what is missing or can be improved. This finding reinforces the arguments of Snively (1999), Spack (1997) and Rahilly (2004), because Korean and North American cultures give different values about expressing controversial opinions. It will provide important guidelines when North American educators read Korean students' writings. The discussion on this matter will be followed up in the later section.

Beauty of being vague

There is more evidence to support Kaplan (1966) and Hall's (1976) arguments of cultural rhetoric formats. Compared to North American students, Korean students tend to suggest quite general and somewhat unrealistic solutions for the problems they discuss in their reflections. This theme is related to the indirect strategies of Choi (1988a)**;** Korean students often use the careful wording that Snively (1999) talks about. Here are some examples from Y and M:

> Y: In order to connect homes and schools, teachers should be ready to integrate minority students' cultural and literacy practices at home into their instruction, so that the students can arm themselves with their own mediational tool which they can use when tackling academic and literacy challenges that they face in school.

> Y: Therefore, without a careful understanding of language minority families' economic and social issues, it is hard to imagine for family literacy programs to be able to satisfy the needs of both schools and language minority families.

Even though Y suggests very important educational implications and synthesized his points with proper arguments, his solutions don't explain how educators can be aware of his points and can apply those in real educational settings. The vague conclusion is shown in M's writing as well.

> M: More importantly, however, I think students should be motivated to learn words from reading on their own, and if we have to teach students word learning strategies, it should be something that makes sense to the students.

Here we cannot have clear ideas how we can motivate students to learn vocabulary while reading independently and what she does mean by "something that makes sense". It is quite vague. In the following sample, M pointed out the need for future research on word acquisition practices, but did not provide realistic ways to actually do that kind of research.

> M: For this reason, as Biemiller (1999) pointed out, I think there is a need of research on children and adolescent's actual word acquisition practices. If we have information about students' actual word learning practices, we can develop an instruction more suited for their vocabulary needs.

N, on the other hand, has very concrete solutions and ideas that are ready to be applied in real educational settings. She thinks about the implications one reading provided us and wraps up her writing with a concrete conclusion;

> N: This finding, they say, "confirms the incremental nature of word learning" (p.278). While this ideas does need further research, as they say, it also suggests to me that the benefits of steering students to reading materials like series books where they will more likely encounter the same words multiple times (while still reading uncontrived, interesting stories) or to several notification books on the same subject of interest for students where, again, they might encounter the same initially unfamiliar words a number of times . . ..

Using series readers and resource materials on subjects of interest to the students are very realistic and concrete solutions. T also demonstrates the implications of one piece of research, and mentioned he has learned the importance of teachers' modeling and scaffolding when students learn vocabulary learning strategies.

> T: Later they also notice the need of lengthy time of instruction in order for a significant transfer effect from intentional word learning to incidental word learning. This makes sense as students must

> learn how to learn first. This, in my mind, recognizes the importance of teacher modeling and scaffolding to enable students to internalize the methods of word learning, so they can eventually do it on their own . . ..

This explicitly shows the concrete teachers' roles in reading classes—modeling and scaffolding.

In summary, we have learned how Korean and North American students write differently in terms of perceptions of writing and of ways in which they elaborate their opinions and conclusions. The results show the cultural components in the cases of North American and Korean students' written works. These cannot be explained by differences of academic discourse or by Korean students' low proficiency in English, which might block their output in English: all participants are education majors so that the recommended form of academic writings will be the same, and both Koreans—Y and M—have advanced proficiency levels in English writing. It is, therefore, hard to presume the different writing styles arise from their lack of ability in expressing themselves. Let us now turn to the discussion of the implications of these findings.

DISCUSSION

In this study, I have recognized three possible conflicts Korean students have to deal with when they communicate with North American educators in written forms. This section will discuss some educational implications that the findings of this research provide.

First of all, teachers should be able to recognize various writing theories that might affect their students' writings and be open-minded about diverse writing styles which might be grounded in other writing theories that are not valued in North American academic settings. Moreover, rather than writing theories implicit and undiscovered, teachers should recommend students choose different writing theories of cognitive or social views and have them investigate how their writing will flow differently by the theories these are based upon. We have considered the fact that Korean students perceive good academic writing differently from North American colleagues. Koreans think that showing their thinking process on the topics of interest is more important than brainstorming questions and interacting with readers for future class discussions. Even though they sometimes come up with good questions, they tend to think they should be the only ones who provide possible solutions and they perceive this way of writing makes their points more complete and convincing.

When North American educators evaluate this kind of student writing, they might misunderstand Korean students by assessing a lack of inviting other people's opinions to stem from a lack of enthusiasm and willingness to discuss. Furthermore, Koreans might not feel confident when they cannot answer the questions that were brought up from readings and have to leave them for other students to solve. Thus, these Korean students are not likely to mention all the questions which are not simple to answer. North Americans could judge that Korean students do not have enough insight for the issues because they do not mention the questions they cannot clearly explain, as opposed to American students who do. North American teachers would perceive this tendency as lack of curiosity and creative thinking. But teachers should be able to read not only what students wrote but what students didn't write. They cannot simply think Korean students did not think enough to brainstorm and were not willing to discuss. They rather should be able to be aware of the different writing theories Korean students bring to their writings, which make up the criteria for good writing in Korea and try to balance different writing theories which different cultures value. This will encourage students to open their eyes to different writing styles when they acquire successful English academic writing.

Second, teachers not only need to be knowledgeable about the different cultural rhetoric of their students when they teach writing, but they also should be able to suggest diverse tools in presenting strong opinions for Korean students. North American and Korean students show different ways of demonstrating their own opinions on topics of interest. North American students tend to value stronger positioning as writers and using their own ideas which are extended from readings they have done. They do not hesitate to strongly criticize the author's arguments. Korean students, however, prefer to tone down their strong critiques and to have neutral positions about certain controversial issues. This might come from one of the Korean values of vagueness and circumlocution. In a similar sense, being neutral is a virtue of Korean culture so that they don't take either extreme positions or criticize other's ideas, even though the ideas are against their beliefs. North American educators easily under-value these kinds of students' writings. American teachers will consider that Korean students do not have the critical lens needed to provide productive critiques. But that is not necessarily true because showing strong opinions might be against the values students have learned throughout their lives. Thus, we as educators need to be sensitive about different rhetorics diverse students have when they express their own opinions. Furthermore, when they teach academic English writing, teachers should deliver various ways of making personal opinions stronger and more logical, rather than taking neutral positions. Suggesting different types of rhetoric would encourage students to consider applying them more.

Lastly, teachers should be able to understand that to be vague in Korea is quite different from in North America. Whereas North American students mention very practical and concrete suggestions for future education, quite general and unrealistic solutions for detected educational problems were suggested by Korean students. North Americans might feel that the conclusions and implications Korean students come up with are too vague and teachers might put their comments of "elaborate more" or "how can you make your ideas practical?" on these kinds of student writings. But Korean students' vagueness in their recommendations might come from careful wording or avoidance of being direct in their claims that their culture gives high values. American educators need to know the underlying cultural impact on the vagueness that many Korean students might have in their writings. To overcome this possible under-estimation, teachers can discuss the concept of vagueness in academic writing both in English and Korean and have students experiencing the directness and elaboration of the strong points will influence individual's writing effectively. Teachers' roles as modelers and discussion leaders will be recommended.

In general, even though we can say there is not much of a gap among students' language proficiency, the ways if presenting their arguments, opinions and the writing theories they are based upon show the wide gaps between Korean students and their American counterparts. High-context culture and cultural rhetoric forms that Hall (1976) and Kaplan (1966) insist contribute to the "gaps" here and American educators should be aware of the cultural impact on students' academic written discourses. Finally, we might want to go back to Gee (1990) and Cazden's (1988) claim that there are unique ways to use language depending on culture. This argument is confirmed by this research where even though the same language is used in written discourses, students show the uniqueness of their own cultures in their written discourses.

CONCLUSIONS

This study has limitations. The design of the present research, the content analysis, tends to have difficulties in establishing validity. I only chose writing samples from education majors and weekly reflections are used which are only for certain courses students are taking. Thus, the findings of this study might not be applicable to other types of writing samples and other fields of study might offer different stories when the same research is done. In addition, unique characteristics of courses might influence students' writing styles such that the writing samples I used might not truly reflect students' individual traits of writing. Furthermore, the participants were all selected by the researcher based on issues of convenience. Other students, even from the same cultures, might have very different tendencies in writing academic reflections. Thus, we should be careful about generalizing the findings of the present research. These limitations should be controlled for in future research. Moreover, the content analysis of cultural components in the writings was not a popularly investigated topic. Thus, there should be more research done challenging and reinforcing the present study.

The limitations of this research design do not weaken the importance of the implications we can draw from this study. Education for diversity is urgently needed to better serve students from different cultural backgrounds. Culture is a part of us and it controls our conscious and unconscious behaviors. We cannot rule out the influences of culture in any kind of educational activities. Rather than criticizing minority students' low achievement, we should question on what criteria they are unsuccessful and whose standards those would be. By now, we should be able to conclude that they are not failing or bad students. They are just different!

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A Survey on the Relationship Between English Language Proficiency and the Academic Achievement of Iranian EFL Students

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One of the most serious problems that Iranian EFL students face in their field of study is their inability to communicate in and handle English after graduating from university. The intent of the present study was to examine the strength of the relationship between English language proficiency and the academic achievement of Iranian EFL students. A significant connection was found between English proficiency and grade point averages (GPAs) of academic achievement. Similarly, the results revealed significant correlations between English language proficiency and achievement in English speaking and writing subjects.

I. INTRODUCTION

Many students who are majoring in English language in Iran have chosen their field of study with little degree of capability in language use and its components. The term "capability" here can refer to the ability of an examinee to recognize, comprehend, or produce language elements, since "… at a given point in time the language learner may be a listener, speaker or both" (Farhady et al., 1994).

Having difficulties in grasping fully the contents and concepts of courses given in the target language seems to be one of the most serious problems that EFL students face. This might be due to their general weaknesses in English, which may in turn have a drastic impact on their academic success. Passing some courses successfully is not a determining yardstick in assessing students' overall language ability; having passed some courses and having graduated, Iranian EFL students in general seem not to be as proficient and qualified in language use and components as might be expected (Farhady, et al., 1994). In particular, they fail to understand fully the context of language use – the contexts of discourse and situations. Savignon (1983) states that communication takes place in an infinite variety of situations and success in a particular role depends on one's understanding of the context and on prior experience of a similar kind (pp. 8-9). The intent of this present study was to examine the strength of the relationship between English language proficiency and the academic achievement of Iranian EFL students.

In this connection, the following research questions were proposed:

1. Is there any relationship between English language proficiency and the academic achievement of Iranian EFL students?
2. Does English language proficiency have a significant impact on achievement in English speaking subjects (lessons) of Iranian EFL students?
3. Does English language proficiency have a significant impact on achievement in English writing subjects (lessons) of Iranian EFL students?

On the basis of the above-mentioned research questions, the following null hypotheses were formulated:

1. There is no relationship between English language proficiency and the academic achievement of Iranian EFL students.
2. English language proficiency does not have a significant impact on achievement in English speaking subjects (lessons).
3. English language proficiency does not have a significant impact on achievement in English writing subjects (lessons).

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

According to Stern (1983), proficiency can be looked at as a goal, and thus can be defined in terms of objectives or standards, that is, the actual performance of given individual learners or groups of learners. He states that "proficiency ranges from zero to native-like proficiency. The zero is not absolute because the second language learner as speaker of at least one other language, his first language, knows language and how it functions. Complete competence is hardly ever reached by second language learners" (p. 341). Bachman (1990) defines language proficiency as ability in language use. Oller (1983) states that language proficiency is not a single unitary ability, but that it consists of several distinct but related constructs in addition to a general construct of language proficiency. Farhady (1983) states that the term "proficiency" refers to an examinee's ability in a particular area of competency in order to determine the extent to which they can function in a real language use situation. Achievement tests attempt to measure what an individual has learned, and are particularly helpful in determining individual or group status in academic learning (Best and Kahn, 1989). Achievement test scores are used in diagnosing strengths and weaknesses and as a basis for awarding prizes, scholarship, or degrees. They are used also in evaluating the influences of courses of study, and of teachers, teaching methods, and other factors considered to be significant in educational practice. Graham (1987) pointed out the problems associated with research that attempts to delineate the relationship between language proficiency and academic performance, including the nature of the measures used to define L2 proficiency, and the definition of academic success, especially when the reported GPA may be based on unequal numbers of studies.

Butler and Castellon-Wellington (2000) compared student content course performance to concurrent performance on a language proficiency test. Their study established a correlation between English language proficiency and performance on standardized achievement tests in English. Ulibarri et al. (1981) compared the performance of 1st, 3rd, and 5th-grade Hispanic students on three English language tests with their achievement data for reading English and math; they found that the language test data were not very useful in predicting achievement.

Stevens et al. (2000) investigated the relationship between the performance of seventh-grade English language learners on two tests—a language proficiency test and a standardized achievement test. They found that the correspondence between the performances on the two tests was limited. Bayliss and Raymond (2004) examined the link between academic success and French second language proficiency in the context of two professional programs. First, they collected GPAs obtained over two semesters, and then, they investigated the link between French second language scores on an advanced L2 test together with the number of courses failed and the first semester GPA. They found that there was a high correlation between academic success and second language proficiency. In recent years, researchers have examined the relationship between language proficiency and such various areas as intelligence, aptitude, and language skills. Garcia-Vasquez et al. (1997) compared the reading achievement scores of Hispanic middle and high school students with measures of their proficiency in English and found that the highest correlation was between English proficiency and English academic achievement ($r = 0.84$). Lower, significant correlations were observed between Spanish reading and English reading ($r = 0.24$), while no correlation was found between Spanish proficiency and English academic achievement ($r = 0.03$). Ulibarri et al. (1981) demonstrated that English language proficiency is the best predictor of English reading achievement for students with lower levels of English proficiency, even when students are just beginning to read. De Avila (1990) observed that the relationship between academic achievement and language proficiency disappears as students approach native-like proficiency levels.

III. METHOD

1. Participants

EFL students majoring in English translation at the Islamic Azad University of Takestan campus were randomly selected to participate in this study. The selection procedures yielded a sample of 50 students, all in the last semester of their course of study. Of the 48 participants, 80% were female and 20% were male. Subsequently, two subjects withdrew, leaving a total of 48.

2. Procedure

As mentioned earlier, the purpose of this study was to find out the relationship between language proficiency and academic achievement. So, for this goal to be achieved, a standardized TOEFL paper test was first administered to the participating students, so as to decide their overall English language proficiency. The subtests consisted of listening, reading comprehension, grammar and written expression, and vocabulary. To test the speaking ability of the subjects, we also arranged an interview, which took 20 minutes for each subject to complete. An interview panel conducted the interview, and a standard form was used to make sure that the interview questions were evenly distributed among all the subjects. The criteria for assessing the interview were pronunciation, style, vocabulary, grammar, suitability, fluency, and accuracy, to all of which equal maximum points were assigned. Data on academic achievement was obtained from students' cumulative folders. After administration of the TOEFL paper test and the interview, the arithmetic sum of the results of different parts of the test and the interview were used as an indicator of each student's estimated English language proficiency score. Grade point averages (GPAs) included those specialized subjects that were in the areas of language learning and teaching. The computed GPA was comprised of content areas such as linguistics, methodology, testing, English literature, phonology, and advanced writing which students had passed in subsequent semesters. It should be noted that all these courses were taught in English. Then, the coefficient of correlation between two sets of scores obtained from the students' GPAs and the results of the language proficiency test was calculated.

To decide whether the calculated proficiency scores have a significant impact on the students' achievement in speaking and writing subjects, the author computed two different GPAs for each student. The first GPA was comprised of oral contents, that is, those lessons that had been assessed orally, such as oral reproduction of a story etc. The second GPA was restricted to the written language, that is, those lessons which had been evaluated in a written form. Speaking and writing tests were not subtests of the academic courses, and all the subjects had to take the same courses.

Later, correlation analysis was used to determine the relations between scores on language proficiency and achievement in speaking and writing subjects.

IV. RESULTS

The results of descriptive analysis of the data showed that the mean of the language proficiency score of participating students was 9.49, and the standard deviation was 1.62. This indicates that the language ability of almost all students was low. This is because the maximum score for each subject is 20; therefore, a mean of 9.49 is considered to be rather low. The mean of the English speaking and writing subjects (lessons) scores were 14.68 and 13.60 while the standard deviations were 1.72 and 2.14 respectively. This demonstrates that these EFL students performed much better on English speaking subjects than on English writing subjects (see Table 1).

The result of the correlation test revealed a significant relation between English language proficiency and academic achievement (GPA). The correlation coefficient between the two sets of scores was 0.48. This suggests that as English proficiency increases, so does academic success.

TABLE 1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF DATA

Variable	N	Mean	Median	Tr Mean	St Dev	SE Mean
Language Proficiency	48	9.49	9.75	9.43	1.72	0.315
Speaking Subjects Score	48	14.684	14.675	14.588	1.728	0.249
Writing Subjects Score	48	13.608	13.745	13.595	2.141	0.309

Significant correlations were also observed between English proficiency and achievement in speaking and writing subjects. The results of the Pearson correlation revealed that the English language proficiency of the students in this study correlates positively with achievement in speaking subjects (0.36) and achievement in writing subjects (0.40) respectively. (See Table 2). The findings indicate that, although speaking and writing were given equal weight in the measure of proficiency, proficiency in English influences achievement in English writing subjects of students more than achievement in English speaking subjects.

TABLE 2. CORRELATION ANALYSIS

	Language proficiency
Academic Achievement	0.48 $p = 0.01$
Writing Subjects	0.40 $p = 0.01$
Speaking Subjects	0.36 $p = 0.01$

V. DISCUSSION

The results of data analysis demonstrated that the first null-hypothesis of this study, which asserts, "There is no relationship between English language proficiency and academic achievement" was rejected at 0.01 level of significance. Therefore, there is a relationship between these two variables; in other words, English language proficiency correlates positively with the academic success.

This study presents some evidence that success in completing university assessment tasks may be related to proficiency in English, at least for students studying English. Students with lower levels of proficiency in English had low academic performance. This suggests that there is a direct relationship between academic success and language proficiency. Researchers have long noted that there seems to be a correlation between first and second language proficiency, and academic achievement in the first and second language. For example, Feast (2002) found a significant and positive relationship between English language proficiency as measured by IELTS test scores, and performance at university as measured by Grade Point Average (GPA).

Although, it is logical to assume that English proficiency influences scores on academic achievement grade point average, the findings of this study revealed that the goals of educating language learners to be proficient have not been fulfilled. Stern (1992) states that proficiency goals include general competence, mastery of the four skills, or mastery of specific language behaviors. The low scores on the administered TOEFL test (Mean = 35 out of 100 maximum) indicated that the EFL students in undergraduate programs of Iranian universities are not sufficiently proficient and capable to act as English language experts. Their weak overall language ability affects drastically the academic success of the students in subsequent semesters. It seems that present general English courses have not been sufficient or successful in preparing students for their future careers. Graves (2001) points out that the tests that measure proficiency are also a part of needs assessment because they help determine what students already know and where they are lacking. Also, the Iranian University Entrance Examinations for the admission of EFL students should be reviewed critically; otherwise the academic achievement of the admitted EFL students may not meet the intended course goals.

The results of statistical analysis of data also showed that the second and third null-hypotheses of this study which assert that “English language proficiency does not have any significant impact on achievement in English speaking and writing subjects were rejected at 0.01 level of significance. There is a positive correlation between English language proficiency and achievement in English speaking and writing subjects. In other words, it should be asserted that, in the light of this finding, as English language proficiency increases, so does performance of EFL students on English speaking and writing subjects.

Another important point is that language proficiency had greater impact on achievement in writing subjects than in speaking subjects, that is, those with higher language proficiency had higher achievement scores in written language compared with spoken language. However, this does not undermine the significance of proficiency in relation to students’ spoken language, as Farhady (1983) observed performance on language proficiency tests was closely related to students’ educational background, major field of study, sex, and nationality. So, the students’ performance and proficiency are related, even though a variety of parameters such as subjectivity of scoring, affective variables, physical conditions, and backwash effect of test produce varying scores.

VI. CONCLUSION

In summary, English language proficiency is a good predictor of academic achievement for those students who are majoring in the EFL area. It is also predictive of the performance of EFL students in written and spoken subjects. In the present study, EFL students with higher proficiency performed relatively better in writing subjects than speaking subjects. It seems that the difference is due to non-standardized university entrance screening tests that need to be corrected. Therefore, it is recommended that the selection process be appraised and changed carefully. This requires the attention of higher education authorities in Iran and elsewhere in order to choose more proficient candidates from the very beginning. Such a measure will have potential implications in all areas of academic development. Also, general English should be given a special attention at university level not only for EFL students, but also for students majoring in other fields, because Iranian college applicants must read many articles and books in English in order to meet their major course requirements.

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Characteristics of Learners Who Frequently and Rarely Focus on Form: A Case Study of Four ESL Students in a College Writing Class

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Long (1991) and Long and Robinson (1998) present focus on form instruction as a type of pedagogical innovation that permits teachers to address students' form-based comprehension and production difficulties not according to a pre-planned instructional sequence, but rather when they come about in the course of classroom interaction. Moreover, Long and Robinson (1998) stipulate that learners themselves may address their own and their peers' form-centered difficulties. By encouraging learners to participate in their own and others' morphosyntactical and lexical growth, focus on form instruction is a learner-centered approach. However, it seems plausible that not all learners will attend to form with the same frequency. Nevertheless, previous research has not investigated the differences between those learners who frequently focus on form and those who infrequently do so. The present study attempted to fill this gap. Four learners (two of whom frequently attended to form; two of whom rarely attended to form) studying in an advanced ESL writing class in a large US university were investigated while engaging in group tasks. The results showed that learner attitudes, the use of language learning and communication strategies, and experience with native/fluent speakers distinguished those who frequently attended to form from those who rarely did so.

INTRODUCTION

As reported elsewhere (e.g., Poole, 2003, 2004, 2005a,b), Long and Robinson (1998) assert that the fundamentalism of the two dominant views on second/foreign language teaching—one which focuses wholly on meaning (e.g., Communicative Language Teaching or CLT), and the other which focuses wholly on form (e.g., precommunicative methods such as Situational Language Teaching)—is pedagogically unappealing. For them, neither has proven able to produce learners who can communicate fluently with a reasonably high degree of grammatical and lexical accuracy.

In contrast, Long and Robinson (1998) feel that the ideal way of acquiring L2 grammatical and lexical forms lies in instruction that not only promotes authentic communication, but which also confronts form-based problems when recognized by teachers and other learners. This is what they term *focus on form instruction*. Focus on form instruction is student-centered in two ways: (1) It proposes that students' errors and communicative difficulties be attended to as they arise, and eschews teaching forms based on others' (teachers, administrators, curriculum designers) pre-conceived notions of what they should be learning. (2) It encourages learners to help themselves and their peers with their form-based errors and difficulties. Such a high degree of learner participation necessitates that group work plays a central role in the focus on form classroom.

Several papers have investigated the value of focus on form instruction (e.g., DeKeyser, 1998; Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001a,b; Williams, 2001) and expounded on its various interpretations (e.g., Ellis, 2001; Leow, 2000). However, no study has looked at the differences between those who frequently attend to form and those who rarely do so. Such information is important because it can inform teachers, administrators, and curriculum designers which types of students are more likely to successfully engage in focus on form instruction, and thus, by extension, whether or not focus on form instruction would be appropriate in their instructional setting. By successfully engaging in focus on form instruction, I do not mean that those learners will necessarily learn or acquire more grammar and vocabulary; instead, I mean that they will actively attend to their peers' and their own oral and written errors and difficulties. Thus, the purpose of the following study was to fill this gap by investigating the factors that distinguish those learners who frequently attend to form from those who rarely do so. The following question was used to guide the study:

> What are the differences between those learners who frequently attend to form and those learners who rarely do so?

The study took place in two parts in order to answer this question. In the first part, individual instances of learners attending to form were identified and calculated. Using a qualitative methodology, the second part investigated the differences between those learners who frequently attended to form and those who rarely did so.

METHOD—PART I

Setting

The study was carried out in an advanced ESL writing class in a major research university located in the United States. The one-semester course is required for all international students during their first year of undergraduate study. Every student must have achieved a TOEFL score of 500 to be eligible for course enrollment. The course emphasizes writing elements such as thesis, body paragraph development, sentence-level transitions, grammar, mechanics, and vocabulary development.

Participants—Part I

The participants were five males and five females, all of whom ranged from 18 to 31. Seven of the students spoke Japanese as their native language, followed by Arabic (1) Korean (1), and Swahili (1). Students were majoring in either natural or social sciences. As indicated on a student background questionnaire, participants had studied between 2 and 12 years. Below is a brief profile of participants, their real names withheld in order to ensure anonymity (See Table 1 for a summary of participants).

Walid: Walid is a 19 year-old Architectural Engineering major from Oman. He has studied English for eight years, seven years of which were in Oman and one year at an intensive English institute in the United States.

Billy: Billy is a 22 year-old Computer Science major from Kenya. He reports that he received all of his primary and secondary education in English, although his first language is Swahili.

Keiko: Keiko is an 18 year-old Japanese female majoring in Physical Education. She has studied English for six years, five of them in Japan and one in an intensive English institute in the United States.

Taiko: Taiko is a 31 year-old Japanese female who has studied English for almost two decades. In fact, she has a bachelor’s degree in English from a Japanese university. Her major is Sociology. She was studying in an intensive English institute in the United States for five months prior to enrolling in this course.

Kim: Kim is a 28 year-old native of South Korea majoring in Accounting. She arrived in the United States two years ago and reports that she never studied English in her home country. She studied at an intensive English institute for two years before enrolling in this course.

Naomi: Naomi is a 19 year-old Japanese female who is majoring in Sociology. She has studied English for six years, five years of which were in Japan, and one year at an intensive English institute in the United States.

Yasu: Yasu is a 19 year-old Japanese male majoring in Zoology. He has studied English for six years and studied at an intensive English institute for three months before enrolling in this course.

Naoko: Naoko is a 19 year-old Japanese female majoring in Environmental Science. She has studied English for six years, five years of which were in Japan, and one year at an intensive English institute in the United States.

Yuskey: Yuskey is a 19 year-old Japanese student majoring in Aviation Science. He has studied English for six years, five years of which were in Japan, and one year at an intensive English institute in the United States.

Hiro: Hiro is a 19 year-old male from Japan. He studied English in Japan for six years and in an intensive English institute in the United States for three months prior to enrolling in this course. His major is undecided.

TABLE 1. DEMOGRAPHIC SUMMARY OF LEARNERS

Name	Age	L1	Major	Yrs. of English	Gender
Walid	19	Arabic	Architecture	9	M
Billy	22	Swahili	Computer Science	10+	M
Keiko	18	Japanese	Physical Education	6	F
Taiko	31	Japanese	Sociology	10+	F
Kim	28	Korean	Accounting	2	F
Naomi	19	Japanese	Sociology	6	F
Yasu	19	Japanese	Zoology	6	M
Naoko	19	Japanese	Ecology	6	F
Yusky	19	Japanese	Aviation Science	6	M
Hiro	19	Japanese	Undecided	6.25	M

Procedures and Materials—Part I

Participants were put into two groups of five, one of which consisted of three males (Walid, Billy, and Yasu) and two females (Taiko and Keiko), the other group consisted of three females (Naoko, Naomi, and Kim) and two males (Hiro and Yusky). Students were tape-recorded for 3.75 hours over five class periods during a two-week period. During that time, students jointly answered comprehension questions and wrote essays based on class readings. The tasks provided the schematic background for essays that they would later write. However, they were not designed to have students attend to any particular forms, thus keeping in line with Long and Robinson's (1998) stipulation that L2 forms should be focused on as the need arises. The students received credit for completing the tasks, of which they completed three. The texts came from *Cultural Anthropology* by Podolefsky and Brown (2000). Learners were assigned the texts two days before participating in tasks. The teacher silently completed other work while students worked on tasks, except when learners directed an LRE to him.

Data Analysis—Part I

Data were transcribed after each class was completed. After all data had been transcribed, individual occasions of students attending to form were identified according to Williams' (1999) understanding of Swain (1998) and Swain and Lapkin's (1995) concept of language-related episodes (LREs): (1) learner-initiated requests to the teacher about language; (2) learner-initiated requests to another learner about language; (3) learner-learner negotiation about language; (4) learner-learner metatalk; (5) and other correction.

Learner-initiated requests to the teacher about language take place when learners direct inquiries about L2 morphosyntactic or lexical forms to the classroom instructor. Learner-initiated requests to another learner about language are also direct inquiries about L2 morphosyntactic or lexical forms, but are intended for a peer. The following instance shows Taiko engaging in this type of LRE by asking Walid for the definition of the word *gothic*:

Walid: He is studying abroad. Gothic architecture.
Taiko: Gothic.
Walid: Gothic.
Taiko: What gothic?
Walid: Gothic, Gothic, you know Gothic?
Taiko: Oh, Catholic, Catholic, Christian.
Walid: A kind of, a kind of church.

Learner-learner negotiation about language involves peer debate about an L2 morphosyntactic or lexical form that arises from a communication failure. In the following example, Walid and Taiko experience such a breakdown surrounding the word *Osama Bin Laden*:

Walid: I wish we were writing about Osama Bin Laden.
Taiko: Hugh?

Walid: I wish we were fighting about Osama Bin Laden. You know Osama Bin Laden?
Taiko: No.
Walid: The US is fighting against.
Taiko: Fighting.
Walid: Afghanistan. Big beard.
Taiko: I'm saying that I wish we'd be writing about Osama Bin Laden.
Walid: Yes, but why?

Learner-learner metatalk occurs when two or more learners carry out a communicative act in which a specific L2 morphosyntatic or lexical form is the focus. In the following metatalk LRE, Billy and Walid are discussing the word *subsistence*. Both of them understand its basic meaning, and appear to be confirming this mutual understanding before proceeding with the rest of the activity:

Billy: Subsistence.
Walid: Subsistence means one word. It means sub-
Billy: It means, things like cash crops.
Walid: Uh ha.

Finally, other correction is when a learner explicitly corrects another's use of an L2 morphosyntactic or lexical form when they sense that it has been erroneously produced. As seen below, Billy is correcting Walid's use of the past tense on the verb *to get*:

Walid: Okay, okay, after he graduated from Harvard University, he get, get
Billy: Got
Walid: Ya, he got MBA at Sydney University. He come back.

Immediately after each recording session, the individual LREs that students had attended to were identified by the teacher (also the current author). The teacher rechecked the previously identified LREs two days later to determine whether or not his preliminary identifications were accurate. With regard to erroneous LRE classifications, the teacher would reclassify them and examine them again two to three days afterwards. All LREs were correctly identified after reclassification. After transcription and classification, the total number of forms that learners attended to was tallied, and Pearson's Chi-Square was used to determine whether or not there were significant differences between individual learners.

RESULTS—PART I

Table 2 indicates the number of LREs attended to by learners. Learners attended to a total of 36 LREs, and there was significant variation among students, Pearson Chi-Square (7, N = 36) = 31.556, $p = .000$. Walid alone accounted for 33.3% of all LREs made, while Kim accounted for 28%, and Taiko 19.4%. Most other learners, however, initiated no more than two LREs, and some, such as Yuskey and Hiro, initiated none at all.

Of the LREs initiated, 92% (33 of 36) of forms attended to were lexical in nature, while 8% were grammatical (3 of 36). Interestingly, in studies by Williams (1999) and Poole (2005b) using a similar methodology, nearly identical results were found. In the advanced group in Williams' (1999) study, which was similar in proficiency to the participants in the current study, 80% of forms attended to were lexical, while 20% were grammatical. In Poole's (2005b) study, which also focused on advanced college ESL writers, 89.9% were lexical and 10.2% were grammatical.

Finally, the most common type of LRE was learner-learner metatalk (39%, N=14), followed by learner-initiated requests to another learner about language (25%, N=9), learner-learner negotiation about language (19.4%, N=7), other correction (11.1%, N=4), and learner-initiated requests to the teacher about language (5.5%, N=2). In the advanced group in Williams' (1999) study, the most frequently instigated LRE was learner-initiated requests to another learner about language (36%). Likewise, in Poole's (2004) study of advanced ESL college writers, it was learner-learner negotiation about language (32.4%).

TABLE 2. NUMBER OF INDIVIDUAL LREs

Student	Observed Number	Expected Number	Residual Number
Walid	12	4.5	7.5
Billy	2	4.5	-2.5
Keiko	1	4.5	-3.5
Taiko	7	4.5	2.5
Kim	10	4.5	5.5
Naomi	1	4.5	-3.5
Yasu	2	4.5	-2.5
Naoko	1	4.5	-3.5
Yuskey	0	4.5	-4.5
Hiro	0	4.5	-4.5
Total	36		

χ 2 (7, N = 36) = 31.556, p = .000

METHOD—PART II

Participants—Part II

As seen in the results of part one, there were large individual differences among learners. In fact, in the group that consisted of Walid, Taiko, Yasu, Keiko, and Billy, one can see a large amount of variation. Walid and Taiko, for instance, accounted for 33.3% and 19.4% of all forms attended to, respectively. On the other hand, Yasu and Keiko only accounted .06% and .03%, respectively, of all forms attended to. The second part of the study seeks to explain why such variation exists in one group by comparing these four learners. Even though one member of this group, Billy, initiated as many LREs as Yasu (2), he was not included in this part of the study in order to compare an even number of learners.

Data Collection and Analysis—Part II

Instead of searching for statistically testable data, differences in these four learners were investigated using *analytic induction*. According to Goetz and LeCompte (1984) and Merriam (2001), this qualitative technique requires the researcher to investigate and analyze various data sources, the goal being the establishment of categories that reflect the various inclinations and patterns occurring in them. Once categories are established, hypotheses about the various phenomena being investigated are generated and, if necessary, revised if contradictory evidence is found. Goetz and LeCompte (1984) assert that the hypotheses generated using analytic induction can later be investigated using more rigorous quantitative and qualitative techniques, suggesting that analytic induction is most appropriate for questions to which few answers have been given, such as the one in the current study which pertains to the differences between those learners who frequently attend to form and those who rarely do so.

In this study, the sources of data investigation included student diaries, histories, informal course evaluations, teacher observations, and one-to-one student-teacher conversations. Specifically, diaries in which students were simply told to write a few days a week about their social and academic English language learning experiences were examined at the end of the semester. In addition, personal histories in which students reported their native language, length of time in the United States, and years of English study were explored. Furthermore, evaluations that students were given at the end of the semester asking them various questions about group work, its utility, and their feelings about it, were analyzed (see Appendix A). Additionally, as the teacher of this group, the current author observed individual learners in a variety of classroom situations throughout the semester. Finally, individual meetings between the teacher and the students, which usually took place during the former's office hours, were also part of the analysis.

The above-mentioned data sources were investigated because they provided information about the learners' past and current experiences as English language learners and users inside and outside of the classroom. Moreover, as Leki (1995) demonstrates in her study of language learning strategies using analytic induction, investigating multiple data sources is necessary if one is to produce the thick descriptions of learners necessary for hypotheses generation. In the current study, it was hoped that such a thick description would shed light on why some learners frequently attend to form, and why others rarely do so.

RESULTS—PART II

The results indicated that attitudes toward class tasks, one's own proficiency, and using English inside and outside of class differentiated Walid and Taiko from Keiko and Yasu. The use of language learning/ communication strategies and exposure to fluent and native speakers were also significant factors that set apart these learners. Below is a description of how these factors—attitudes, strategies, and experience with fluent/ native speakers—manifested themselves in each participant.

Walid. In general, Walid can be characterized by a positive attitude. He often reported that he liked class tasks. In addition, his attitude toward group work was very positive. For example: During one activity that required his group to take a neutral position on whaling, he commented: "I really like it and want from the teacher to give us good assignments like this in the future."

Likewise, he did not get bogged down by questions of his own proficiency or the difficulty of tasks. In fact, he appeared to be able to recognize the usefulness of assignments and tasks that were challenging: "On this day, our teacher gave some interesting homework. They were to write one custom in country that was in the past and does not exist anymore. We have to explain whether they were good or bad for society when it was changed. In the beginning, I was sad to write this homework because I have such homework to finish this week, but I saw the purpose of this homework I get happy and decided as much as I can."

In class, Walid also appeared willing to talk without any inhibitions. Regarding his overall feelings about participating in group work, he said, "I spoke freely, explaining my thought about the topic we are supposed to do." Moreover, he went to any length to make himself understood, including using hand gestures: "I sometimes used my hands to explain my ideas about the topics." As Brown (2000) reports, the use of "…nonverbal mechanisms for the productive communication of information" (p. 127) is a common communication strategy used by learners when trying to make themselves understood.

Such a positive attitude toward his own proficiency was further revealed in his willingness to engage in spontaneous conversation in other classes. In one diary in which he wrote about a group project in a Physics class, he commented on how they all enjoyed chatting about their lives and their countries: "On this day, I was solving Physics problems with my friends who are from different countries such as Japan, Nepal, and China. They were cool guys. We spend much time talking about the lifestyle in our countries. I discovered some new things about their culture that encouraged me visit these countries."

Even in situations in which he encountered difficulties when speaking to native speakers, he did not get discouraged. In one instance, he was talking with a native speaker and mistakenly asked for her age [a taboo for some people in the United States]. Instead of getting dispirited, he simply apologized: "This day, I was about to hit a girl by the mistake when I was going outside the dorm. I did not see her and she was going very fast. At the end I apologized from her. We talked about different topic. When I asked her about her age, her face changed. I note that something wrong I have done. She told in America, it is not good ask the women about their ages, so I apologized again."

Interestingly, the aspect of his L2 use that seemed to discourage him the most was his willingness to talk when it was not appropriate. On the informal course evaluation, Walid stated that he should not have been so quick to criticize others' ideas: "Yes, in fact my way to correct other's ideas was wrong. When someone's idea did not make sense to me, I told him that you were wrong and you have to change your idea, but I learned that I have to respect others' ideas even though they were wrong because no one in perfect, so I apologized for them."

As seen, Walid is a self-confident L2 learner who is not adversely moved by affective factors. Such confidence could be due to his length of time in the United States and his experience using spoken English. Prior to enrolling in this course, he studied for one year at an intensive English institute in which he had a lot of opportunities to practice his oral skills. Moreover, while in Oman, he had worked with people from Japan, Nepal, and Korea using only English. Finally, he reported that some of his family members were married to Americans and that he had occasional contact with them.

Taiko. The same positive attitude towards using English that Walid possessed was also seen in Taiko. Specifically, she reported that group work was not only beneficial for learning vocabulary, but also personally enjoyable: "Nobody in my group knows the tradition about marriage in Australia. I enjoyed talking with them because each of them has different ideas and can also learn English since my vocabulary is poor but other international students have a larger vocabulary than I. I studied new words and expressions. Group work is very nice for me."

Taiko also showed herself to be an effective strategy user, especially with respect to social strategies (Oxford, 1990), which Cohen (1998) defines as "…the actions which learners choose to take in order to interact with other learners and with native speakers (e.g., asking questions to clarify social roles and relationships or cooperating with others in order to complete tasks)" (p. 8). More specifically, she sometimes had difficulty understanding her professors, yet she did not hesitate to ask her classmates for help before, during, and after class. In her sociology class, for example, she frequently asked a native speaker to give her explanations of concepts she did not comprehend from the professor's lecture: "An American who sits next to me in Sociology class taught me Sociology last Sunday because I don't understand the class very well and asked him to review with me. We talked about the social problems, for example, poverty, inequality, racism, and so on. I asked him a lot of questions and he answered." In general, Taiko frequently engaged in conversation with native speakers. She reported having close relationships with her roommate, attended a Bible study class regularly, and frequently ate dinner with native speakers. Although she noted that she sometimes had difficulties understanding them, she asked for clarification until she understood what they were saying.

Finally, like Walid, Taiko also complained that she should have let others speak more during group work: "I should have said, 'What do you think?" to other Japanese students in my group." In one of her frequent visits to my office, she explained that her self-perceived dominance was due to the fact that she was an English teacher in Japan for five years and enjoyed speaking English. In fact, she had studied English for ten years, holds an undergraduate degree in English, and knows many couples in Japan in which one member is a native speaker of English. She also planned on obtaining a graduate degree in TESOL before returning to Japan.

Keiko. Unlike Taiko and Walid, Keiko cannot be characterized by a positive attitude towards English; in contrast, she often disliked speaking English and felt very uncomfortable doing so. She expressed this sentiment while writing about her encounter with an American female at the cafeteria: "At the cafeteria, I met an American friend who introduced the girl to me and she was eating with the girl. But I did not noticed because I did not know her face. After lunch, I said her that I could not receive answer and she said that she ate lunch with her. I felt it was hard to communicate in English. The thing like this may happen again if I will not learn to be good English speaker. Because if I talked with her more, I could know the girl was there. When I speak English I am stressed out very much. It is not good to study here because I have to speak everyday."

As a rule, speaking events made Keiko quite tense, even in the classroom. In one journal entry, she reported on one class in which each student had to give a presentation for one minute about a fictional family their group had written about. Keiko felt quite unprepared to deal with such an event: "But my teacher said we would do group presentation on next Friday. I though this class was easier than any other classes because I heard that other classes had done a lot of presentation. But we never done a presentation. But he said we would do it. I felt very sad. I am very nervous."

At times, Keiko seemed to feel hopeless about her English abilities and reported that she did not believe that she would make any improvements. In addition, she regretted not practicing oral skills while she was a student in Japan: "Before I came to America, I thought that I would be a good English speaker if I went to America. For this reason, I did not study conversation or listening. I studied little grammar. I think now that it was a mistake. If I had studied more, I could speak well. It is too late."

Interestingly, one of Keiko's key problems was comprehension. She often complained that she had a difficult time understanding spoken English. In one journal entry, she talked about a journey to the local shopping center with a Japanese and an American friend. Although she would have liked to be part of their conversations, she found it too difficult to comprehend their speech: "Today, I went to shopping with my American and my Japanese friend. My Japanese friend has studied here for about one year. While we were shopping, she and my American friend spoke well, and I could not join the talk well. I tried to understand their conversation and it was as much as I understood it. I would like to join but it was hard by my poor English skill."

As seen above, Keiko did socialize, but frequently did so with at least one other Japanese speaker. In addition, she complained that she had no one to talk to, seeing as her American roommates moved out during the middle of the semester, and American friends were frequently unavailable when she sought them: “When I feel it, I usually go to other rooms to meet my American friends. But they are not in their rooms when I want to see them.” Notably, she did not report using any strategies that would help her interact more frequently and effectively with native speakers.

Yasu. Yasu was generally not enthusiastic about group work. He rarely spoke and frequently did not seem interested in the class topics. He reported that group work was difficult because its cooperative nature did not allow him to express his own thoughts: “I do not like group essay because I cannot write just what I want to write.”

Furthermore, when he had comprehension and production difficulties, Yasu frequently looked up individual vocabulary items in his dictionary instead of asking his peers for help or using any other social or communication strategy. In addition, he consistently stated that he thought the best way to learn English was to speak with native speakers, which he frequently did during Bible study sessions and sporting events, thus suggesting that he may not have felt that group work with other international students was very useful. However, many of those events involved listening to lectures on the Bible and watching sports games, both of which appeared to be rather passive in terms of the amount of spoken output they required from him.

However, Yasu did report that he would have liked to have spoken more during group work, but two things inhibited him: (1) ignorance of the topic; (2) and low oral proficiency. During a group activity regarding intercultural marriage, for example, he revealed that he had little to offer the group due to the novelty of this topic: “You know, in Japan almost all people are Japanese so intercultural marriage is very rare. Therefore, next essay is hard for me but I will try.” However, Yasu did not report seeking out help in order to understand intercultural marriage. In addition, he perceived other group members to be more orally proficient, which inhibited him from speaking; however, he did not ask them to slow down or allow him more opportunities to speak: “Some members in my group could speak English well, so they continued talking. I had few time to speak my opinion.” Interestingly, Yasu expressed the belief that his English should be perfect before publicly using it: “I think to use sentence fragments collect is very difficult. I can say about everything that to do perfectly is so difficult. However, I will try to understand English perfectly.”

DISCUSSION

Summary of Findings

As seen, Walid and Taiko had very positive attitudes towards using English both inside and outside class. Likewise, they possessed a balanced attitude toward their own proficiency: On the one hand, they were aware that they were not perfect or native-like in their speech; on the other hand, this lack of proficiency did not keep them from interacting with native speakers and seeking their help. Additionally, Walid and Taiko effectively used strategies to fill gaps in proficiency and performance.

Keiko and Yasu, in contrast, did not look as if they enjoyed using English, nor did they appear to enjoy group work. Likewise, they both exhibited rather unbalanced views of their own proficiency. In Krashen's (1985) terms, their *affective filters* were high. More specifically, Keiko seemed inhibited by her low proficiency and general lack of self-esteem, while Yasu appeared to believe that his listening and speaking skills should be perfect for him to actively interact with other learners and native speakers. Notably, neither reported using strategies to overcome comprehension and production difficulties.

It is plausible that these factors—more positive attitudes towards using English and effective use of language learning/communication strategies—influenced Walid and Taiko's increased participation in classroom activities, and subsequently, the number of forms they chose to focus on. However, it should not be forgotten that even before this research study began, Walid and Taiko had benefited from using English with native speakers in their own countries, while Keiko and Yasu had not. This could have provided them (Walid and Taiko) with more confidence as speakers of English. Table 3 summarizes the differences among learners.

Instructional Implications

Based on the results of this study, I posit that those learners who are positive about using English, able and willing to use various language learning/communication strategies, and have had previous experience speaking English are more likely to successfully engage in focus on form instruction as defined by Long and Robinson (1998). However, many second language learners will probably not possess all of these characteristics until they are very advanced, in which case focus on form may be of limited use at the beginning and intermediate levels. Even so-called "advanced" learners, as evidenced in this study, may not possess these characteristics. Therefore, teachers and curriculum designers should probably refrain from

TABLE 3. SUMMARY OF DIFFERENCES AMONG LEARNERS

Walid	Taiko	Yasu	Keiko
Positive attitude toward group work	Same	Negative attitude toward group work	Same
Positive attitude toward using English inside class	Same	Limited interaction with native/fluent speakers	Same
Positive attitude toward using English outside class	Same	Expectation that he should speak error-free English	Negative attitude toward own proficiency
Extensive experience with spoken English	Same	Frequent use of the dictionary	Feelings of hopelessness and anxiety about own proficiency
Use of communication strategies	Use of social strategies	Reluctance to ask peers and teachers for help	Same

employing focus on form instruction with individual classes, regardless of proficiency level, until they are confident that the majority of students are willing and/or able to focus on form. This suggestion is especially important for L2 grammatical development in light of the minimal attention that was paid to grammar in the current study, and in previous studies done by Poole (2005b) and Williams (1999) using a methodology similar to the one employed here.

CONCLUSION

If only a portion of learners are willing or able to successfully participate in focus on form instruction, then it still can be considered a success, for there is so much variation in individual learners that it would be unrealistic to think that one approach or technique would be appropriate for all learners at all levels. The more important question regards the relationship, if any, between participation in focus on form instruction and the acquisition of L2 morphosyntactic and lexical forms—a question that this study did not address. Another limitation was the relatively short duration of the study. Future studies should be of longer duration, and should also be carried out in diverse instructional settings such as public schools in the United States and in English as a foreign language (EFL) settings. Moreover, they should use a variety of tasks, for the results of this study suggests that at least one learner—Yasu—participated in tasks based upon their perceived connection with his cultural background. The results of this study also suggest that group dynamics and specifically, issues of dominance and perceived ability to participate, impacted learners' willingness and/or ability to attend to form, and therefore warrants further study.

A final note concerns culture and second language learning. As seen, Taiko was a dramatically different learner than Keiko and Yasu, even though all were from Japan. This shows that stereotypes about learners from particular backgrounds frequently do not match the reality of their lives—a fact that English as a Second Language teachers (ESL) should keep in mind when anticipating the success or failure of their students when using certain approaches to L2 learning.

THE AUTHOR

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APPENDIX A

Name: ___________________
Instructor: Alex Poole

Directions: Please fill out the following sheet evaluating the group activities we did this semester and hand it to me during the beginning of the next class period. Use different paper if necessary.

Question One: “Have you had any kind of experience like this before (that is, working in groups in class)?

Question Two: “If the answer is ‘yes’ to the above question, describe your previous group-work experience briefly [Skip this question if the answer is ‘no’].

Question Three: “Describe how you felt about doing group work.”

Question Four: “Have your feelings about group work changed this semester? Explain.”

Question Five: “Describe your relationship with the others in your group” (e.g., was it friendly, did you get along well, did you meet outside of class, etc.?).

Question Six: “In what way did group work this semester help (or caused problems) in your study of English? Please explain.”

Cunning Perceptions: Japanese Attitudes Toward Cheating

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Some students cheat. Although various studies have examined students' cheating habits, little has been done to examine how attitudes toward cheating in high school change during their tenure in university. Via surveys administered to approximately 450 students from seven universities in Japan, the authors of this study explore this issue as it is perceived by Japanese students. Furthermore, five factors attributing to students' reasons for cheating were examined. Results indicate that although the majority of students perceive cheating to be wrong in both high school and university, a higher amount of cheating is observed in university. Of the five factors, laziness was found to contribute to cheating more than any other in both high school and university. Conversely, competitiveness with friends was found to be the least influential. Students responded that family pressure and competitiveness with friends were more influential in high school while post-graduation pressure, lack of understanding of material and laziness were stronger incentives attributing to cheating in university.

INTRODUCTION

Immoral behavior has captured the public's attention from business to academia. During the data gathering stage of this study the authors noted how both the British Broadcasting Company and the American Broadcasting Company news services examined academic dishonesty in their respective countries. Aided by the easy access of information, one lecturer claims, "cheating has reached epidemic levels" (Epidemic of student cheating, 2004). Another article exploring recent Internet-based plagiarism states that "some students simply found it easier to cheat than to do the work themselves," and found that twenty-five percent of university students in Great Britain have cheated using the Internet (Quarter of students, 2004).

In yet another earlier U.S. study, "some 50 percent of those responding to [a] survey said they don't think copying questions and answers from a test is even cheating" (Survey finds cheating, 1996). Given these surprising findings, one wonders about cheating attitudes in other countries around the world.

Empirical evidence from secondary and tertiary level educators in Japan suggests that cheating in high school and university, in all its various forms, is prevalent. The fact that it is such common knowledge, and that it is so underreported (Diekhoff, Labeff, Shinohara, & Yasukawa, 1999) has been the impetus for much of the research conducted by the authors of this study. Cheating studies at the university level in the United States, Canada, and Singapore (Genereux & McLeod, 1993; Diekhoff, Labeff, Clark, Williams, & Francis, 1996; Lim & See, 2001; Keith-Spiegel, 2001) and comparative studies between Japan and the United States (Diekhoff, et al.,1999) have provided insights into student behavior. The previous studies inform current research and help in understanding the behavior, norms and perceptions of cheating. Informed by earlier research in the educational arena and other disciplines, this study examines comparisons of cheating perceptions and behavior between Japanese high school and university students. Cultural, anthropological, and educational considerations have been taken into account and, as a result, not only has the behavior been examined, but also the underlying perceptions of cheating, and reasons why there are differences in cheating, between high school and university. Although results from this study are not expected to influence student behavior, it is hoped that the findings will provide teachers with insights into current cheating practices. These findings will serve as a reminder to instructors that students require continual guidance in academic honesty.

From a cultural perspective, the etymology of two words for cheating is of note. Arai states, "that cheating sounds less heinous if called 'cunning' (*kanningu*) rather than 'dishonest act' *fusei koi*" (as cited in McVeigh, 2002, p. 206). The Japanese word "cunning " (*kanningu)* is borrowed directly from the English, but its connotation has been changed. Although "cunning" in English refers to deception, ingenuity and cleverness are connoted. In contrast, *fusei koi,* a word of Japanese origin, is used to describe an injustice, wrong, or fraudulent act, and has no positive attributes. It is curious that the Japanese word "cunning" (*kanningu*) is only used to describe academic cheating, while *fusei koi* is used to describe all sorts of dishonest acts. The word for academic honesty doesn't carry the same weight as a dishonest act.

Educators and students at all levels in Japan are all too familiar with the anxiety and enormous amount of time associated with *shiken jigoku* or "exam hell." In fact, in preparation for exam hell "two-thirds of all students aged twelve to fifteen attend *juku* (cram school), which accounts for between two and four hours each day" (Kerr, 2001, p. 296). These highly competitive exams are in effect a sorting process to see who gets into the most prestigious schools. This, in turn, leads to careers at the most prestigious companies since "many Japanese companies recruit only from the top universities" (Learning in Japan, n.d.). One cultural anthropologist has summed up, quite succinctly, the enterprise: "it provides a fair and objective standard for allocating desirable career tracks" (Hill, 1996, p. 96).

With all that said, current demographic shifts in Japanese society have also contributed to making the infamous exam hell system "less severe" (Mori, 2002, p. 27). Mori (2002) has noted a paradigm shift in some areas of education (namely less prestigious institutions and vocational schools), due to a greater need for students, resulting in less competition. The tides have turned to some extent and rather than students needing universities, universities need students. Poole's translation of Amano's poignant essay on Japanese universities also addresses this issue and looks at how the low birthrate has impacted admission policies at even more prestigious universities. Poole (2003) describes the present situation as the following:

> Most universities in Japan have seen, first, a slowing in the rate of applicants, and, now, an overall decrease in the number of students sitting the yearly examinations. Even top name schools in the higher echelons of the rankings have had to consider the ramifications of fewer and fewer applicants each year. (p.155)

The impact of these changes in society has, in some cases, eased the burden of entrance to university for some individuals. Nonetheless, despite current climate changes, in many instances Japanese primary and secondary students face intense pressure to pass entrance examinations. This pressure can have a lasting impact on student attitudes toward higher education and their reasons for studying; in many cases it can cause motivational problems.

Dörnyei describes *amotivation* as "a lack of any regulation, whether extrinsic or intrinsic, characterized by a 'there is no point' feeling" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 27). Amotivation is certainly a factor to consider when surveying student behavior in Japanese universities. The majority of the respondents in this study were second-year students and many of their courses were compulsory. McCabe (2001) has drawn some conclusions between motivation and cheating, positing that large classes that students do not want to take are more likely to be arenas for cheating. Similarly, Jordon (2001) looks at the doubled-edged sword of motivation in relation to courses:

> A student who is uninterested in a course may look for ways to complete the course with the least effort. In addition, high extrinsic motivation may also increase student vulnerability to cheat. If a student's purposes for taking a course have little to do with the course and more to do with extrinsic goals, such as grades or opportunities, cheating may serve these goals. (p. 243)

Blatant cheating in the university classroom has few if any serious ramifications (Schoolland, 1990). McVeigh illustrates "the lengths to which dishonest students will go" (McVeigh, 2002, p. 206) in a long laundry list of tricks of cheating (*kanningu no teguchi*) that are given to exam proctors. The prevalence of cheating "by students to obtain a desired academic outcome through prohibited or unauthorized means" (Genereux and McLeod, 1995) has made further examination of this issue imperative. While the prevalence of cheating at secondary and tertiary educational institutions in Japan is recognized by those in the field, there still remains a paucity of research comparing high school and university cheating.

In the spring of 2004, a survey was administered to approximately 450 university students, from both public and private schools, to examine changes in Japanese students' attitudes in university relative to high school regarding cheating on homework and examinations. This study is an in-depth analysis of the survey findings and a discussion of the variables that contributed to the changes in behavior. The survey has been done to open the arena for future research and gain a more global understanding of present-day student trends and behavior in Japanese higher education with regard to cheating. The wide cross section of students surveyed encompasses students at all levels of higher education and in a number of majors. The implications of the current research, from both theoretical and pedagogical points of view, will inform classroom practices and aid educators in understanding student behavior.

SURVEY

A two-sided survey was created to examine students' perceptions and habits in regard to cheating in high school and university. The survey was first written in English, translated into Japanese, and finally revised based on a pilot run in two classes outside the survey sample. The Japanese students were given the revised survey (Appendices A, B) in their native language.

The first side, hereafter referred to as the *Cheating Frequency* (CF) survey, sought to measure the amount of student cheating on homework and examinations. The survey was divided into a number of sub-categories: high school vs. university; personal cheating vs. witnessed cheating; and homework cheating vs. examination cheating. For both the homework and examination categories, the survey asked about the frequency of certain styles of cheating: copying from classmates, using a cheat sheet, obtaining a copy of a previous exam when prohibited from doing so, copying from a teacher's text, and "other." The questions related to not only how often students themselves cheated, but also how often they witnessed their classmates partaking in such behavior. Students were given five choices to choose from for their answers: never; 1 time; 2-5 times; 6-10 times, and more than 10 times.

This portion of the survey served three functions. First, it provided a means of introducing the sensitive topic of cheating. According to Sudman and Bradburn, one way to effectively survey practices of an undesirable nature is to "assume the occurrence of the behavior and ask about frequencies or other details rather than whether the behavior has occurred" (as cited in Dörnyei 2003, p. 58). Second, it specifically defined the types of cheating this survey was examining. Third, data provided allowed students to be classified into two categories: cheaters and non-cheaters. Due to the differences in years spent in high school and university, this survey could not be used to directly compare frequency of cheating between high school and university.

The second side, hereby referred to as the *Cheating Perceptions* (CP) survey, asked four questions, each with its own separate purpose. The first question obtained data pertaining to the level of stigma associated with cheating in high school and university respectively, particularly in relation to each other. While the CF survey measured volume, the second question on the CP survey asked students to state where cheating was perceived to be more prominent (personal and observed): high school or university. Questions three and four asked students to provide possible reasons for cheating in high school and university, respectively. The questions were worded in such a way as to elicit answers based on general perceptions rather than personal behavior, allowing students to provide data regardless of their experience with cheating themselves.

STUDENTS

In order to obtain data that would be representative of typical students in Japan, a variety of students were surveyed from numerous universities and majors. The seven Japanese universities involved in the study include a top-ten public institution (Yonezawa, Nakasui, and Kobayashi 2002; Ward, n.d.), what are generally regarded as high- and mid-level private schools, and a lower echelon junior college, reflecting the broad cross-section of students our objective requires. As of 2003, according to the Ministry of Education, Sports, Culture, Science & Technology, of the 702 higher education institutions in Japan, 100 (14.25%) are national, 76 (10.8%) local and 526 (74.9%) private. In selecting schools for the questionnaire, attempts in the authors' limited study were made to mirror Ministry statistics. Although six of the seven universities were in the Kansai region, students attending these schools come from all over Japan.

As is the case with the universities involved in this study, the students varied widely. As student anonymity was safeguarded, no personal information that could possibly identify the students was collected. Variables pertaining to students such as sex, academic performance, and course history were beyond the scope of this study. Nonetheless, numerous majors are represented in the sample. Some of the classes were homogeneous in terms of major and include Science and Engineering, English and Liberal Arts. Other more diverse classes contained students from a variety of fields. Although sex was not considered, no one sex was overly represented.

Of the 455 students who participated in this survey, 448 answered both sides of the survey. As the main objective of this study was to compare perceptions regarding cheating between high school and university, only students who had at least one year of university experience were surveyed. As the surveys were given in English classes and many students complete their English courses in their second year, over 90% of the respondents were sophomores. Care must be taken in an analysis of the survey results not to generalize this data to all Japanese students because the findings only reflect high school students who went on to some form of higher education in Japan.

LIMITATIONS

As with any study of this breadth, a number of psychological, cultural and methodological issues have arisen that deserve further examination. Surveying students about cheating behavior is no mean task. The respondents, all high school graduates, would be more likely to fear consequences from admitting to university cheating than high school cheating because they have yet to receive their university degree. In other words, even though the survey is anonymous, certain fears may unduly influence their responses. To assuage these fears, students were assured that their anonymity would be protected and no connection would be made to the individuals and schools involved. The authors are aware that a negative consequence of this methodology is that variables pertaining to individuals cannot be measured and considered.

In designing the survey, the authors chose to question only university students who were in their second year or above. Although all surveyed students had three years of high school, as is the norm in Japan, their experience in university may be as little as one full year. This difference in duration at the respective institutions may account for an imbalance in perceptions regarding cheating. Additionally, students had to rely on long-term memory to answer the questions related to cheating in high school. The authors are aware of reliability problems that may occur as a result of poor memory or an inability to accurately recall events that have occurred a number of years ago. Nonetheless, in order to get student data applicable to this study's hypothesis, students with experience in both high school and university were required.

Other variables may have influenced the outcome of the survey data and should be noted. Previous research into cheating behavior notes that the attitude of the teacher can play a factor in whether or not students cheat (McCabe, Trevino, and Butterfield, 2001). With the sample coming from seven universities, students' high school and university experiences revolving around teacher instruction of ethical behavior as it applies to cheating may vary greatly. Similarly, schools have various curricula and exam systems. Students in more coordinated programs have increased accessibility to previously given test questions and materials. Additionally, enforceable university cheating policies vary from school to school. Students come from a multitude of classroom experiences and receive mixed messages regarding cheating.

While a number of variables related to the questionnaire and data gathering have become inspirations for further research, there are some limitations in surveying students about cheating. The survey sample is representative of Japanese high school and university experiences; however, it begs the question: Can cheaters be trusted to answer a survey honestly? Despite these concerns, the overall trend in the data should be consistent and the findings relevant to other studies in this area.

METHODOLOGY FOR THE STUDY

All teachers, both Japanese and foreign instructors of English, involved in administering the survey were given identical instructions on distribution and collection. Due to the sensitive nature of the survey questions, students were informed that all surveys would be anonymous (that is, no names or references were to be written on the questionnaire), data kept in the strictest confidence, and that their participation in the data collection would in no way affect their grades or standing in the university. Students were also requested to answer the questions about all of their courses based on their cumulative experience in both high school and university and given sufficient time to answer the questions; generally the survey took about five minutes for completion. An envelope was placed in the back of the room for students to deposit their surveys after completion.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results from the first question of the CP survey pertaining to students' perceptions of the offense of cheating in high school and university (relative to each other) are given in Table 1. Of the 448 students who answered this question, 53.8% (241 students) recognized cheating to be equally wrong in both university and high school. Simply put, the majority of students acknowledge that cheating is unethical. However, since no instrument was used to measure student ethics it is unknown if it is high enough to place a negative stigma on cheating and prevent them from doing it. For example, is the desire to pass a class one would fail based solely on ability stronger than one's ethics?

TABLE 1: STUDENT RESPONSES TO THE FIRST QUESTION OF THE CHEATING PERCEPTION SURVEY (N = 448)

	high school than university	university than high school	they are equally wrong	neither are an offense
In general, do you think cheating is more of an offense in:	30.6% (137)	9.4% (42)	53.8% (241)	6.3% (28)

Table 1 shows that 30.6% of the students surveyed felt that cheating was more of an offense in high school relative to university, while only 9.4% felt that cheating was more of an offense in university. This statistically significant difference ($c^2(1) = 50.42$, $p < .05$) raises some interesting questions as to why three times more students felt cheating in high school was an act carrying heavier consequences (real or psychological) than cheating in university.

VISIBILITY OF CHEATING

Results from the second question of the CP survey, relating to how often students see cheating in their school environment, are presented in Table 2. Of the 447 students who answered this question, 44.5% (199 students) responded that they saw cheating more often in university while only 23.9% (107 students) responded that they saw cheating more in secondary school. The null hypothesis of this study is that there is no difference between the amount of personal and observed cheating in high school and university. However a one-way chi-squared test shows that there is a significant difference between the number of students who answered that they saw more cheating in high school than the number of students who saw more cheating in university ($c^2(1) = 27.66$, $p < .05$). This data indicates that students do in fact perceive cheating more on the university campus. The findings show that 17.7% (79 students) reported that sightings of cheating were similar in both high school and university while13.9% (62 students) never saw cheating in either high school or university. This last figure is similar to a 1996 report on American cheating in which only 11% of the students reported cheating to be uncommon in their school (Survey finds cheating not uncommon, 1996).

TABLE 2. STUDENT RESPONSES TO THE SECOND QUESTION OF THE CHEATING PERCEPTION SURVEY (N = 448)

	high school than university	university than high school	about the same	never seen cheating
I see cheating more in:	23.9% (107)	44.5% (199)	17.7% (79)	13.9% (62)

Results that cheating was more prominent in university than high school are not surprising given the attitude many students hold toward university in Japan. In the eyes of one observer, “there is no need to study, because grading is lenient, and companies that hire college graduates pay little attention to grades. . . . Since a university education matters so little for his future, the next four years spent on it are sheer play” (Kerr 2001, p. 299).

REASONS FOR CHEATING

The final two questions on the CP survey are concerned with reasons students cheat in high school and university. Results from these questions are presented in Table 3. Of the six possible reasons presented on the survey, family pressure and competitiveness with friends contributed more in high school while post-graduation pressure, lack of understanding of material and laziness were more predominant reasons for cheating in university. The catchall “other” reason received a relatively similar number of responses in both high school and university. Several students indicated, either on the survey itself or in post-survey interviews, that lack of time to study due to their part-time job schedule was the reason for selecting the “other” option. The theme of student time management deserves greater examination in future research.

Considering the wording of this portion of the survey, caution must be used to correctly interpret the data. It reflects not reasons why the survey taker cheated in high school and university, but rather why he or she believes cheating occurs in high school and university. One way that students can be classified is based on whether they have cheating experience or not. Those who have never cheated responded with their perceptions as to reasons they believe others practice “cunning” while the answers of those with cheating experience will be based on a combination of their perceptions of other’s motivations for cheating and their own. Based on the CF survey, of the 448 students who participated in this study, only 25 (5.6%) reported that they had never cheated on a homework or quiz. To put some perspective on this result that makes cheating appear to be pandemic in Japan, a recent study in the US found that “of 12,000 high school students, 74 percent admitted cheating on an examination at least once in the past year” (Cheaters amok, 2004).

From a statistical perspective, a two-way chi-squared analysis finds the data to be statistically viable ($c^2(5) = 45.49$, $p < .05$). Of the five specified possible reasons for cheating, one-way chi-squared analyses show that differences in results between high school and university of four of the six (family pressure, post-graduation pressure, lack of understanding of material and competitiveness with friends) were statistically valid ($p < 0.05$).

TABLE 3. SURVEY RESULTS CONCERNING REASONS CITED BY STUDENTS FOR CHEATING IN HIGH SCHOOL AND UNIVERSITY (N = 448) (TWO-WAY c^2 (5) = 45.49, $p < 0.05$)

	Family Presssure	Post-graduation Pressure	Lack of Understanding of Material	Laziness	Competitiveness with Friends	Other
High School	29.9% (134)	30.6% (137)	30.4% (136)	45.5% (204)	14.1% (63)	13.4% (60)
University	18.1% (81)	40.2% (180)	39.7% (178)	50.0% (224)	4.9% (22)	15.2% (68)
One-way c^2		13.07	5.83	5.62	0.93	19.78

FACTORS MORE INFLUENTIAL IN HIGH SCHOOL THAN UNIVERSITY

Table 3 shows that the two external variables that contributed to cheating more in high school than university are the fact that in high school there is more competition from friends and also more pressure from families to achieve academic success.

Family Pressure

As shown in Table 3, family pressure was cited as a reason for cheating in high school by 29.9% (134) of the students in high school, while only 18.1% (81) of the students claimed it was a reason for cheating in university ($c^2(1) = 13.07$, $p < .05$).

McVeigh asserts that the Japanese university system is designed "to ensure that virtually all students graduate" (McVeigh, 2001, p. 129). As a result, after a child has entered university, for better or worse, there is a tendency for families to be less concerned with academic performance because graduation is assumed. This is known in Japanese as *iriguchi kanri*—

entrance management. Little or no emphasis is placed on *deguchi kanri*—exit management. One university graduate interviewed recalled that her parents had absolutely no interest in her grades or university life (S. Yamada, personal communication). It was assumed that she would graduate.

Competitiveness with Friends

The results show that competitiveness with friends is perceived by students to be a greater influence on cheating in high school relative to university (c^2 (1) = 19.78, $p < .05$). 14.1% (63) of the surveyed students reported that competitiveness with friends and other students was a reason for cheating in high school. However, only 4.9% (22) of the students believed this was a reason for cheating in university. Compared to other factors influencing cheating, Table 3 shows that competition was not viewed as significant.

Our research supports Hill's claims that there are "low levels of competition among Japanese schoolmates" (Hill, 1996, p. 96). According to Keifer, "By means of the entrance examination system, competition is taken out of the classroom into a more impersonal setting in which contact and communication between competitors is minimized" (as cited in Hill, 1996 p. 96). Hal Eugene Hansen's statement that students unanimously agree that "'university is the only real vacation'" sandwiched into a life otherwise absorbed in the competition of the high-school student and the obligations of the salaryman" (Wordell, 1986, p. 155) supports the extremely low response for competitiveness as a reason for cheating in university.

FACTORS MORE INFLUENTIAL IN UNIVERSITY THAN HIGH SCHOOL

Table 3 shows the three external variables that contributed to cheating more in university than high school: laziness, lack of understanding of the material and post-graduation pressure.

Laziness

Student laziness, a topic that could easily encompass an entire paper, is a cause that results from numerous factors. As determining causes of laziness were not an objective of this study, the discussion of the data will not attempt to examine all of its origins, but rather present several main contributing factors.

Of the six possible reasons, more students reported laziness as a reason for cheating in both high school (45.5%, 204 students) and university (50.0%, 224 students) than any other. Although 4.5% more students cited laziness more in university, this difference is not statistically significant. However, the large number of responses in both university and high school, relative to the other possible reasons for cheating, is statistically significant.

Although the data tends to paint a negative picture regarding Japanese students, it must be realized that individual students may interpret the definition of laziness differently. A student may feel that he or she should study ten hours a day and anything less than that would be considered lazy. At the same time, another student may be on the other end of the spectrum and define laziness as doing little or no work. Additionally, an individual student's definition of laziness may change over time. An interesting extension of this study could entail obtaining personal definitions of laziness, as well as surveying students in other countries for a comparison. Nonetheless, it must be recognized that a significant amount of perceived laziness among students will have an adverse affect on academic performance and students' ability to understand course material.

Children growing up in Japan today are surrounded by the convenience and excess associated with being in a first-world economy. Kerr observes that the present generation finds itself "[in] an era of relative wealth and leisure, when children do not feel threatened by poverty as their parents did" (Kerr, 2001, p. 298). One could theorize that the youth of Japan have less drive to succeed than their predecessors and would rather enjoy the benefits of their society. This could contribute to the high percentage of students who marked laziness as the reason for cheating.

The concepts discussed by Clark (n.d.) on Japanese "instinctive" incentives as it pertains to business practices can give interesting insights when viewed from the perspective of education. He states that people "obtain whatever skills are needed to survive" (Clark, n.d., para. 21). He goes on to say their "skills are not developed in universities or management courses rather they are the results of practical wisdom growing out of that most powerful of all instincts – survival" (Clark, n.d., para. 21). From the perspective of some university students, who know that companies will train them for their jobs, they do not feel their course work to be of importance or necessary for survival. Subsequently they can justify their laziness.

Lack of Understanding of Material

Although over 30% reported one reason students believe cheating occurs in both university and high school is that they do not understand the class material, this reason is significantly higher for university students ($c^2(1) = 5.62$, $p < .05$). This reason was cited by 30.4% (136) and 39.7% (178) of the students for high school and university, respectively.

Part of the reason for the greater lack of understanding in university has its origins based in the cultural mind-set that university life places more emphasis on "fun" (clubs; smaller, less formal clubs known as circles; social activities and other extra-curricular activities) than academics (McVeigh, 2001, p. 124). Some students enter classes half-heartedly and do not make the required effort to grasp and understand the material taught in class. After a number of classes with this attitude, students can easily fall too far behind that they believe it is not worth their effort to study to catch up. Thus, cheating becomes an appealing option. It is also worth noting that while 39.7% (178) of the students cited lack of understanding as a reason for cheating, 50% (224) of the students also cited laziness. There seems to be a significant correlation between these two variables.

Post-graduation Pressure

Pressure to get into a university after high school was cited as a reason for cheating by 30.6% (137) of the students. Moreover, data shows that pressure to get a good job after graduation from university was believed to be an influence on cheating by 40.2% (180) of the students.

As previously discussed, in order for students to get accepted into university they must pass a minimum of one challenging entrance examination. To receive a score high enough to be accepted, students must actually have acquired the material. To the high school student, cheating is of no advantage in this respect. On the contrary, in respect of university students looking for jobs, with the exception of specialized fields such as engineering or medicine, students are not expected to be able to reproduce the knowledge gained in university.

Although changing, traditionally, employers are less interested in the transcript of a potential employee than their alma mater (Abe, Nishijima, Sunder, and Lupardus, 1998). Kerr notes that, "there is no need to study, because grading is lenient, and companies that hire college graduates pay little attention to grades" (Kerr, 2001, p. 299). Additionally, it is widely known that employers in Japan seek "not 'specialized' graduates but prefer 'generalists' who can be more readily molded for company-specific work" (McVeigh, 2001, p. 26). These two considerations may give insights into why cheating is perceived as more common in university (see Table 2).

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The data, which clearly indicates that cheating is observed more in the university setting, gives insight into the Japanese student, educational system and culture. What has occurred to spawn so many students who either see no problem with cheating or engage in it themselves? Although our research gives the impression that students are the culprits of cheating, they are only reacting to their culture and educational environments. While the purpose of this study was grounded in pedagogy and an attempt to understand student perceptions regarding classroom behavior, further research on this topic needs to be done from a sociological and cultural standpoint in order to come to a deeper understanding of the genesis of cheating. As epidemic cheating has been reported in England and America, the authors of this study do not wish to suggest that cheating is isolated to Japan, but rather desire to increase awareness of current student practices there.

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APPENDIX A

THE CHEATING FREQUENCY SURVEY (ENGLISH VERSION)

(FIRST HALF)

In High School, I have:	never	once	2-3 times	5-10 times	>10 times
Cheated on homework					
1. Copied a classmate's answers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Copied answers from a previous year's assignment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Copied answers from a teacher's answer sheet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Other	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cheated on a quiz or test					
5. Copied answers from another student during a quiz or test	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Used a "cheat sheet" during a quiz or test	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Other	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

In High School, I have seen other classmates:	never	once	2-3 times	5-10 times	>10 times
Cheat on homework					
8. Copy a classmate's answers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Copy answers from a previous year's assignment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Copy answers from a teacher's answer sheet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Other	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cheat on a quiz or test					
12. Copy answers from another student during a quiz or test	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Use a "cheat sheet" during a quiz or test	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Other	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX A

THE CHEATING FREQUENCY SURVEY (ENGLISH VERSION) (SECOND HALF)

In University, I have:	never	once	2-3 times	5-10 times	>10 times
Cheated on homework					
1. Copied a classmate's answers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Copied answers from a previous year's assignment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Copied answers from a teacher's answer sheet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Other	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cheated on a quiz or test					
5. Copied answers from another student during a quiz or test	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Used a "cheat sheet" during a quiz or test	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Other	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

In University, I have seen other classmates:	never	once	2-3 times	5-10 times	>10 times
Cheat on homework					
8. Copy a classmate's answers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Copy answers from a previous year's assignment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Copy answers from a teacher's answer sheet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Other	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cheat on a quiz or test					
12. Copy answers from another student during a quiz or test	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Use a "cheat sheet" during a quiz or test	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Other	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX B

CHEATING PERCEPTIONS SURVEY (ENGLISH VERSION)

Please do not write your name on this paper.
Please only answer this questionnaire if you are a second year or higher university student.
Please answer both sides of this questionnaire.

A. In general, do you think cheating is more of an offense in: (select one answer)
___ high school relative to university
___ university relative to high school
___ they are equally wrong (in both high school and university)
___ neither are considered an offense (in both high school and university)

B. I see cheating more in: (select one answer)
___ high school relative to university
___ university relative to high school
___ about the same
___ I've never seen cheating

C. Why have you or people you know cheated in high school?
(select all applicable answers)
___ Pressure from parents and family to get high scores
___ Pressure to get high scores to get into university
___ Because of lack of understanding of material
___ Laziness
___ Competitiveness with friends
___ other __________________

D. Why have you or people you know cheated in university?
(select all applicable answers)
___ Pressure from parents and family to get high scores
___ Pressure to get high scores to get a good job after graduation
___ Because of lack of understanding of material
___ Laziness
___ Competitiveness with friends
___ other ___________________

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The *Korea TESOL Journal* welcomes evaluative reviews of publications relevant to the field of TESOL. In addition to professional books and reference materials, these include non-print materials such as computer software and audio, video, and testing materials.

Reviews Editor: David E. Shaffer, *Chosun University*

APOLOGIES

The name of Zoltán Dörnyei was incorrectly spelled in the Reviews section of Volume 7. The error resulted from a computer software glitch that was not detected before publication. The editors of Korea TESOL Journal *regret the error and extend our sincere apologies to our readers and contributors.*

Professional Development for Language Teachers: Strategies for Teacher Learning

Jack C. Richards and Thomas S.C. Farrell.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005.
Pages: x + 202. (ISBN: 0521613833 Paperback)

REVIEWED BY ROBERT J. DICKEY

Professional development has become a major focus area in English Language Teaching over the past decade, as the educational community begins to look beyond basic qualifications and any need for minimal "continuing education units" (where that requirement exists). This trend is equally strong in the teaching community beyond ESL/EFL – even teachers' labor unions are involved (see American Federation of Teachers, 2002). Yet, a survey of the literature indicates that there are very few materials available to guide language teachers or trainers in a holistic manner. We find resources on teacher research and (increasingly) on reflective teaching, but only one other general treatment of the topic (Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001). Other titles in the field tend to either consider specific subfields in more detail, such as Crookes (2003) or Farrell (2004), or are more oriented to the "stories" of professional development rather than explaining how it may be done (e.g., Casanave & Schecter, 1997).

Jack Richards, widely recognized as one of the leading scholars in applied linguistics and language teacher education, has done it once again: presented what is sure to be a best-selling teacher education resource while also introducing another scholar to the ELT mainstream. We in Korea are thrilled to see Thomas S.C. Farrell, who spent over one decade in Seoul and who was the founding editor of this journal, illuminated by the global reach of the Cambridge University Press spotlight. One may think it difficult to remain uninfluenced when reviewing a book that includes a vignette of you on page 1, but the text is of such a quality that there is no difficulty in writing a critical and fair review.

Richards and Farrell set the stage by identifying the target audience and overall tone clearly and early – the series editor's preface, the preface, and page 1 all set roughly the same message – how language teachers, particularly those new to the field, can manage their professional self-development once their initial training has been completed. However, they also note that the scope is not so narrow: teacher supervisors, coordinators, administrators, and trainers will also benefit from the concepts presented in the text, in the aim of developing a “coherent and strategic approach to teacher development” (p. ix). Other important works take other routes: Wallace (1991) is clearly focusing on organized training programs and the work is largely focused towards those who control and implement them.

For those who are familiar with the classic methods work by Richards and Rogers (1986), you will find a number of similarities in organizational design between that book and this. Here eleven different approaches to professional development are outlined in individual chapters in a very detailed yet readable fashion, along with a clearly superior introduction – the introduction should be required reading for all entering or currently involved in the field of language teaching. (I’m suggesting it as the next reading task for KOTESOL’s Teacher Education and Development SIG.) There are some important improvements from the old Richards and Rogers design, however: the use of vignettes and reflection questions along with bulleted lists assists those with various learning styles to make full use of the information presented. Several of the chapters include their own appendices with additional forms or information.

The first development activity presented is workshops (chapter 2), which seems a peculiar choice at first glance – we all understand workshops, right? Perhaps not. Richards and Farrell distinguish workshops from seminars, and identify some reasons why “many teachers have experienced effective and less effective workshops during their careers” (p. 30). This chapter sets the stage for much of the rest of the book, displaying a “compare and contrast” methodology to explaining the nature of activities as well as relying on the reader’s own experiences for reflection.

Subsequent chapters discuss self-monitoring, teacher support groups, keeping a teaching journal, peer observation, teaching portfolios, analyzing critical incidents, case analysis, peer coaching, team teaching, and action research. Each chapter follows a similar format, various sections are interspersed with teacher vignettes that model items under discussion or raise questions for further reflection. The subsections consider the nature of the activity, purposes and benefits, procedures used, implementing the activity, and examples of the activity, as well as references. The index at the end of the book includes both vignette author names and key words, and while there is no concluding chapter or glossary, the design of each chapter and the writing style obviate the need for these tools.

Portfolios are an interesting addition to this book, something less discussed as a teacher-led method of professional development and reflection. Chapter 7 is fairly representative of the book's chapters; in a concise yet readable 15 pages, a number of issues and features involved are discussed within short and aptly titled sections (subsections), and with reflection sections and vignettes as well as checklists of things to consider including. There is also a 2½-page example of things included in one professional portfolio. This chapter – as do most chapters – does a good job of explaining how this tool is both a reflective tool and a stand-alone asset.

Naturally, each of us, as well as the professional and scholarly literature, may have variations on the designs presented; we may be less comfortable with some activities than others, or we may find some other concepts excluded. After all, the book is a general introduction, focusing principally on those new to the profession; it cannot cover every possibility. Bailey, Curtis, and Nunan (2001) include discussions on mentoring and language learning experience for teachers as well as more detail with self-awareness/reflecting, but far less detail overall in how to go about self-directed professional development. On the other hand, I find the lack of "alternate" development activities disappointing – I've previously (Dickey, 2004) advocated professional development designs such as those within Fiona Balloch's (n.d.) "Continuing Professional Development Record Card," developed for the now defunct British Institute for English Language Teaching. One might include the following inexhaustive list of possibilities (some of which are from Balloch): "visitations" and "shadowing" of other teachers or even other professions with impact on our students' professional futures, visiting other schools where innovation is taking place, browsing the literature beyond ELT, and serving in leadership roles in various committees or professional communities. Even simply being a member of a professional society can help teachers develop beyond present skills, as can "whole-self" development in areas outside ELT. Perhaps too obvious, but also worth mention, is further formal studies and learning more about the "content" of what we are teaching: both the nature of language itself and its pedagogy. It is interesting to note that in reviews of what teachers felt was important in their professional development, learning subject-matter content was rated at or near the top (see American Educational Research Association, Summer 2005; Borko, Summer 2004; and Firestone et al., 2001).

In summary, Richards and Farrell's *Professional Development for Language Teachers* is quite likely to become an early 21st century classic best-seller, just as Richards and Rogers (1986) became *The* methods book for TESOL professionals in the last part of the 20th century.

THE REVIEWER

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Task-Based Instruction in Foreign Language Education: Practices and Programs

Betty Lou Leaver and Jane R. Willis (Eds.).
Washington D.C.: Georgetown University Press, 2004.
Pages: vi + 336. (ISBN: 1 58901 028 0 Paperback)

REVIEWED BY ANDREW FINCH

At first sight, this volume appears to be another tome in the list of method-based instruction manuals, destined to be superceded by the next teacher-proof language-learning fashion. However, when we move past the cover and onto the contents page, we can see that something different is indeed going on. As the preface informs us, “This book has been compiled for teachers of foreign and second languages who are in the process of implementing task-based instruction (TBI), have been using it, or would like to” (p. v). In other words, it is aimed at practicing language instructors and program developers, the people who are already hard at work in the profession and need informed advice and concrete examples of effective teaching.

The editors (Leaver and Willis) have done a very good job in bringing together diverse professionals from various countries. These contributors have provided the reader with a number of interesting articles, which are presented in three sections: “TBI in Classroom Instruction” (Part II), “Internet Tasks and Programs” (Part III), and “Assessment and Teacher Development” (Part IV). Prior to these, Part I of the book offers a lucid (and very welcome) “Overview of Task-Based Instruction: From Theories to Practices.” It is interesting to note that the book keeps to its title by including articles on task-based programs in various languages (Arabic, French, Slavic, Spanish, etc.) in addition to English. It is not simply another ESL book in EFL clothing, but draws upon the experiences and practices of EFL professionals around the globe.

To return to the preface, this book is offered “as a practical resource of real-life TBI experiences for language teachers who want to add more task-based instruction to their own ways of applying the research and theory on TBI in a wide range of settings” (p. vi). Educators who are already interested in adopting and adapting TBI will therefore find a great deal of interesting material between the front and back covers. This does not imply, however, that people uninterested in TBI need not browse through. Rather than attempting to justify TBI in comparison with other teaching approaches, the first article that we encounter in Part II ("Task-based Instruction in U.S. Government Slavic Language Programs") immediately makes the unequivocal statement that:

> An important difference between U.S. government foreign language programs and university programs is that government teachers and administrators are held accountable for results of their teaching. This means that students *must* acquire foreign language proficiency – and do it at a rather rapid pace. It is a tribute to the efficacy of task-based instruction (TBI) that this method has become the one of choice in the best government programs. Since the 1980s, nearly all government institutions have used TBI in their foreign language programs." (p. 47)

Task-based instruction has thus been found to be efficient and effective, not just by the researchers and theorists, but also by the practitioners whose livelihoods depend upon producing visible growth in language proficiency. From this perspective, it becomes evident that this book can be recommended to practitioners of every persuasion. Given that a prime goal of every foreign language instructor is to produce verifiable linguistic "results" (in addition to cognitive, affective, and social goals), then any method that claims to produce such results with consistency must be examined.

Having made this point, it is possible to begin at the beginning, and to read through Part I: "Perspectives on Task-Based Instruction: Understanding Our Practices, Acknowledging Different Practices." Written by Jane Willis, these forty pages provide an excellent overview of TBI, both for those who wish to find theoretical backing for their practical experiences and those who want to find out "what all the task-based fuss is about." As the author states, "TBI is not monolithic; it does not constitute one single methodology. It is a multifaceted approach, which can be creatively applied with different syllabus types and for different purposes" (p. 3). Rather than being another in the long list of TEFL methods, therefore, TBI has grown out of dissatisfaction with those methods, and the overview takes pains to illustrate this, documenting the move toward communicative teaching in a logical fashion. When we read that "language learning, even in a classroom setting, seems to develop independently of instruction" (p. 5), that "learners acquire language according to their own inbuilt internal syllabus, regardless of the order in which they are exposed to particular structures and regardless of mother tongue influences" (p. 5), that "teaching does not and cannot determine the way that the learner's language will develop" (p. 7), that "learners do not necessarily learn what teachers teach" (p. 7), and that "most language learning is associated with relative failure" (p. 7), then the subsequent emergence of TBI and project-based learning, with its learner-centered, interactive focus, begins to make sense.

Willis then goes on to describe language learning in terms of organic process, the input and output hypotheses, the interaction hypothesis, and a focus on form. More than this, she also provides useful definitions of "task" from various perspectives, along with a useful explanation of task types and functions. Finally, this section offers illuminating examples and sample task cycles.

Having been prepared for the rest of this book by this excellent introduction, the reader is free to browse through the sections, investigating how other EFL professionals have approached the task of promoting language learning using the task-based paradigm. The reviewer found the section on task-based assessment particularly interesting, since performance assessment is a thorny issue for every EFL instructor and program developer. In this context, it was very good to see sample assessment rubrics in this section and in the appendix. These exemplify the book's practical emphasis, as seen in the various sample materials which appear throughout.

In conclusion, this book is a worthy addition to task-based literature and can be recommended without hesitation to EFL practitioners. Its marriage of theory, practice, and examples provides a highly stimulating resource for those whose job is to do rather than to talk about doing.

THE REVIEWER

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Task-Based Language Teaching

David Nunan.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2004.
Pages: xv + 222. (ISBN: 0 521 54947 7 Paperback)

REVIEWED BY JAKE KIMBALL

Task-Based Language Teaching is a reworked version of the groundbreaking *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom* (Nunan, 1989). The ELT world has changed much since 1989, and so has our knowledge of task-based language teaching (TBLT). This thorough and comprehensive update, a major overhaul of the earlier work, provides a welcome overview of TBLT since it first gained in popularity. Some of the original content has been updated, rearranged, condensed, or deleted. There are now four entirely new chapters on the issues of assessment, focus on form, empirical evidence validating TBLT, and the relationship between tasks and the curriculum.

This new volume is aimed at practicing teachers and teachers in training. Moreover, this text should prove to be especially valuable for teachers in need of a general introduction to TBLT, and more specifically, teachers interested in task evaluation or syllabus design. Early on, Nunan sets a narrow agenda as to what will follow, namely: "What is task-based language teaching, and how do I make it work?" Over the course of eight chapters, readers are introduced to the TBLT field and gradually come to understand how to effectively design, adapt, and implement tasks for classroom use, regardless of one's context.

Chapter 1 defines what has come to be a broad conceptual take on the term "task," followed by a general rationale for using TBLT in a communicative curriculum. Both strong and weak interpretations are covered. "Target tasks," or tasks completed in the real world, are contrasted with pedagogical tasks, the tasks that, regardless of how closely they may resemble target tasks, are confined to use in the classroom. Issues in syllabus design and learner responsibility are then spelled out.

A framework for task-based teaching is the focus of chapter 2. Here the author lays out a pedagogical sequence for introducing tasks and develops seven principles on which the sequence is based. The idea of task chaining, or linking tasks though themes, functions, and grammatical forms, is also addressed. A series of charts and graphs make task chaining more understandable.

Chapter 3 is an elaboration of chapters 1 and 2. Here the concept of a task is expanded, with goals, input, procedures, teacher and learner roles, and setting, all having an impact on task outcome.

Chapters 4 and 5 summarize research on the effectiveness of TBLT. Chapter 4 reviews input and output hypotheses as well as factors impacting a task's level of difficulty: learner factors, task factors, and input factors. Chapter 5 reviews interaction research supporting the use of focus on form. The author's stance on focused and unfocused tasks, a point of controversy in TBLT, is clarified. Proponents of a strong version of task may not recognize focused tasks as they attend to contrived linguistic forms. However, the author accepts a weak version of TBLT, noting that focused tasks are better termed activities and that focus on form still deserves a place in the task instructional cycle.

Chapter 6 centers attention on grading, sequencing, and integrating tasks in a curriculum. The chapter also recalls issues from previous chapters, such as task difficulty and task chaining.

Assessment is chapter 7's domain. This is a key addition to the pages of *Task-Based Language Teaching*. The chapter begins by clarifying evaluation and assessment. Healthy reminders are also noted early on: Assessment procedures should reflect what has been taught and issues of content, construct, and criterion-related validity need to be considered when assessing learners. The bulk of the chapter outlines performance assessment, and many examples are provided. The chapter closes with common procedures for data collection: observations, performance scales, production tasks, journals, diaries, portfolios, etc. The argument the author makes is that assessment should be formative, inherently learner-centered, and focus on meeting objectives rather than the assessment of our learners' overall proficiency.

Chapter 8 closes the book with professional development. The chapter's anchor is a model workshop of teachers developing and applying TBLT on their own, and the model nicely ties together all of the previous chapters. A number of good ideas for evaluating or monitoring tasks is also given at the close of the chapter.

The overview of TBLT, although necessary, is rudimentary, and unfortunately, leaves readers thirsting for more in-depth treatment of some of the issues and concepts. This is particularly evident in chapter 6 on the grading and sequencing of tasks, as the topic deserves more attention to detail than is given. The author even states that the topic is a complicated one, even for experienced syllabus designers, and deserves book-length treatment. Secondly, while most of the content centers on sequencing and ordering tasks, a scant two pages is devoted to task-internal sequencing, for example, pre-, during, and post-task stages of implementing individual tasks. Another TBLT book comes to mind as addressing these stages in greater depth, *A Framework for Task-Based Learning* (Willis, 1996). Finally, more coverage of task complexity and task characteristics would have added to the book's appeal.

Despite these shortcomings, *Task-Based Language Teaching* serves classroom teachers and course designers unfamiliar with TBLT very well by clarifying contentious issues in TBLT. The content is generalizable to a variety of contexts and student levels, and innovative teachers of adults or young learners will both benefit. The author's writing style is accessible and inviting. The prominent use of graphs, charts, and bulleted text make the difficult concepts easier to absorb, and in many cases, Nunan gives examples from his own textbooks. One of the book's best features is that it is designed with professional development in mind. Although one could read the text by oneself and learn a great deal, participation in a small-group study project would be an ideal way to get the most out of your reading. Throughout the book, reflection points showcased in boxes provide an impetus for deeper thinking and connecting to one's own context. Finally, Appendices D and E are especially useful for teachers intending to adapt or implement TBLT in their own classroom. Appendix D lists activities, graded by proficiency level and macroskill; Appendix E is a "can-do" self-assessment based on the Council of Europe's Common European Framework. Together, they offer teachers a starting point, or incentive, to make TBLT a classroom reality and not simply an *avant-garde* manifesto.

Nunan's previous publications (2003, 1987) uncovered disparities between policy and practice, noting that a substantial gap exists between administrative proclamations trumpeting the virtues and principles of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and which methods, approaches, and techniques eventually trickle into classrooms. *Task-Based Language Teaching* will no doubt bridge that gap. At the outset of the book, the author intended to answer two questions: "What is task-based language teaching, and how do I make it work?" At the end of 222 short pages, that mission was competently accomplished.

THE AUTHOR

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Teachers Exploring Tasks in English Language Teaching

Corony Edwards and Jane Willis (Eds.).
Basingstoke, England: Palgrave Macmillan, 2005.
Pages: xii +298. (ISBN 1-4039-4557-8 Paperback)

REVIEWED BY MELANIE VAN DEN HOVEN

Given the growing popularity of task-based teaching in EFL contexts during the past ten years, it is not surprising to find a text that considers real teachers addressing task-based learning (TBL) in their actual English classrooms. The award-winning *Teachers Exploring Tasks in English Language Teaching* is such a book. It aims to share the in-class research investigations of nineteen teachers and the extensive experience of two reputable editors into the various facets of TBL. Printed on smooth paper, this paperback's durability supports back-front reading, vigorous note taking or select reading across various purposes. Useful charts serve to signpost the reader through their preferred pathways in using the book. *Teachers Exploring Tasks*, which retails for US $32, delivers focused articles on specific aspects of TBL and general guidelines on how to offer better task-based instruction. It also offers TESOL graduate students and practicing English teachers the theory behind the various pragmatic suggestions, and for this reason it has recently been selected for the 2006 Innovation Award in the English Language Teaching Contact Scheme by the British Council.

Teaching through tasks is presented in this book as a process that has language learners benefiting from purposeful goal-oriented activities. Such tasks primarily involve ongoing student-to-student negotiations in English, which occur in all three stages of the task cycle: the task itself, planning of the task, and reporting. In addition, most contributors, wary of the criticism raised by Skehan (1998) that TBL encourages fluency at the expense of accuracy and complexity of language structures, have designed tasks that are premised on balancing this triangulation of fluency, accuracy, and complexity. Other contiguous investigations include the use of corpora, the role of chunks in the perceptions of fluency and the importance of incorporating scaffolding in TBL.

Though the back cover touts that this book represents “learners of various ages and in a range of contexts,” this is true only in its broadest sense. Because of the careful framing presented by the key editors, what is not apparent to the casual observer is that the discussions largely represent activities occurring in Japanese classrooms or with Japanese students. Of the 19 teachers, 10 feature investigations related to Japanese students. There are only 2 related to Korea, 2 for the Middle East and a paltry 4 representing the whole of Europe. This coverage appears to represent the distribution of distance education students affiliated with the editors who are both from universities in the U.K (the University of Birmingham and Aston University). Perhaps, this representation indicates that British training is more accessible to EFL teachers in Japan than to other populous EFL contexts, such as China, Vietnam, Russia, Brazil, or Indonesia. In addition, only two articles feature low-level learners and a mere two address young learners. Thus the majority of contributors in the book lean toward the usage of TBL for higher level high school and adult students.

Nevertheless, there are valuable insights based on the professional practice of the 19 contributors who represent real teaching in action, which appear alongside the expertise presented by the editors. The introduction by Willis, the concise explanations of the background and rationale for TBL by Ali Shehadeh, and the energy-generating epilogue by Edwards provide the core grounding for the other less-published contributors. The strength of these essays may distract the reader into overlooking the geographical omissions. Undoubtedly, many readers will applaud the sufficiently thorough treatment of TBL with genuine enthusiasm for related small-scale research projects.

The *Introduction* by Jane Willis on the aims and explorations into tasks and task-based teaching lends her authority to the investigations. Willis uses clear headings and direct questions to tackle the core concepts, such as “Who are the Learners?” and “What do we mean by task?” This important essay, in conjunction with Shehadeh’s following article “Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching: Theories and Applications,” enables the reader to immediately grasp relevant theory. This background knowledge helps attune the reader to the task variables, such as task types and perspectives on TBL, under scrutiny in the following four sections.

The first part of the book, entitled “Implementing Task-based Learning: Contexts and Purposes,” showcases the range of tasks and settings in which these explorations have occurred. Here six teachers based in Cyprus, Switzerland, the UAE, and Japan share their professional experiences in setting up the task in their classes. Lamprini Loumpardi discusses the suitability and of the Presentation, Practice, Production (PPP) format for exam-oriented English classes. From this basis, she willingly takes baby steps with her 11- and 12-year-old students towards TBL though creating a personality quiz. Pullen Stark integrates task-based learning in her business class in Switzerland with native speakers of French, German, and Italian. She highlights the importance of scaffolding students' spoken and written output as well as creating compliance among students for the overall language benefits of teamwork and process learning. Raymond Sheehan discusses how he led his students in the UAE to explore tendencies in real English through online access to corpora and storage banks of spoken and written English. There are also three investigations with Japanese learners on storytelling tasks, on modifying the PPP approach as presented in EFL textbooks, and on using English journals. This section helps the reader recognize how easy it is to adapt tasks for accuracy, complexity, and structure by capitalizing on the three stages of TBL: pre-task, planning, and reporting.

Part B, "Task Interaction: Helping Learners do Better" features two teachers who examine tasks with young learners and two who look at insights related to cross-cultural patterns of turn-taking. Korean contributor Seungmin Lee, like Annamaria Pinter in Hungary, reports on performance of younger learners. Lee's analysis quantifies numbers of confirmation and comprehension checks, and clarification and repetition requests. Pinter studies the impact of task repetition and advises YL teachers that info-gaps, in particular, should be exploited more with students at lower levels of language competence. Maria Leedham shares her experiences setting an oral-exam type of task for Japanese students who are preparing for the Cambridge First Certificate of English. Here the cross-cultural perceptions of turn-taking and the behavior of the listener are shown to be teachable areas which tasks can address. Similarly, David Coulson explores the cross-cultural patterns in turn-taking of Japanese students in interaction with non-Japanese guests on a special international day. He advocates a "team-talking" approach for bridging cross-cultural differences. All four papers use transcripts to study learner interactions for evidence of their language use and skill in completing tasks.

The focus of Part C is on the language used in authentic situations by three contributors. The goal of this section is to show how to draw attention to language and to provide opportunities that help learners notice and mirror the strategies of fluent speakers. Of particular, brilliance is a paper by James Hobbs, who shares his keen observation of the boredom factor in Q & A tasks set in many EFL textbooks. He explains how he subverted these tasks in order to maximize their interest to students by recording other English teachers in the same institution performing the featured textbook tasks. The familiar voices, it is implied, had encouraged students to really listen for the language forms used to reach the goal. His thesis favors lexicalized phrases being the real building blocks of fluent communication. Maggie Baigent in Italy, similarly, concludes that chunks and collocations play an important role in fluent speech. David Cox in Japan also makes his own recordings, like Hobbs, to re-examine naturally occurring lexical phrases.

Part D showcases five teachers who investigate task variables, namely the various conditions of the task, such as the set up and design of the task, to show its effect on implementation and performance. Craig Johnston compares the performance of three Japanese students in task versus report stage with an interesting task of dinner party seating arrangements of historical Japanese figures. William Essig picks up on an earlier discussion of storytelling. Antigone Djapoura measures the impact of planning time and pre-task instruction on learners' performance with the conclusion that planning time without explicit language instruction seems to benefit students' performance the most. Birch intensely examines task characteristics in order to highlight which tasks best serve fluency, accuracy, and complexity. Lastly, Glen Poupore's report on Korean university students categorizes student-student interaction in terms of how they negotiate for form, task content, task procedure, personal experience and self-initiated repair.

In short, *Teachers Exploring Tasks* shares exactly what the title infers. Well edited, and coherently presented in four well-framed sections, this book is rich in commentary on TBL in action. However, the nineteen essays do have a tendency to blur together in terms of overall style. The seamless editing, which on one hand makes it readable, cogent, and consistent, also masks each writer's individuality and contextual differences. However, given the open discussion of cross-cultural perception of both the teacher's role in providing instruction and guidance, and expectations of students' participation in TBL tasks woven throughout each paper, this book represents an important contribution to teacher-led investigations on task-based learning.

THE REVIEWER

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Analysing Learner Language

Rod Ellis and Gary Barkhuizen.
Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2005.
Pages: x + 404. (ISBN 978 0 19 4316347 Paperback)

REVIEWED BY DOUGLAS PAUL MARGOLIS

PRACTICE AND THEORY FOR TEACHERS

The fact that many excellent teachers have successfully taught foreign languages without special training in language teaching methodology and linguistics gives credence to the idea that necessity is the mother of all inventions. Throw a true teacher into a classroom, and she is likely to discover an appropriate means of instruction. Nevertheless, arm that teacher with principles based on collective experience, and the chances of success increase. More than augmenting the chances of success, the likelihood of a costly mistake that can negatively impact a student lifelong decreases. Research into language, education, psychology, and language learning provides the foundation for this principled approach. Research gives us knowledge of what works and what doesn't. Research itself, however, is a skill and art that requires self-reflection and careful selection of techniques. And teachers who read research results need to understand the strengths and weaknesses of each technique in order to better make use of their findings.

For this reason, Ellis and Barkhuizen's book, *Analysing Learner Language*, the latest addition to the Oxford Applied Linguistics Series, presents an opportunity to get the inside scoop on second language acquisition (SLA) research while obtaining a "hands-on" understanding of the different analysis techniques employed in the field. The authors' stated goals are (a) to familiarize readers with different methods for analyzing learner language, (b) to examine the theoretical and research bases for the different methods of analysis, and (c) to develop the reader's ability to undertake the analysis of samples of learner language using different methods (p. ix). The book grew out of their fifteen years of experience in teaching SLA. Although the book emphasizes research more than pedagogy, teachers should find this book worthwhile because it addresses pertinent issues, such as (a) what techniques can be used to measure student progress other than testing, (b) how teachers can identify student needs, (c) what research findings instructors should consider, and (d) how action research projects can appropriately analyze learner language.

BOOK CONTENTS

In chapter 1, Ellis and Barkhuizen introduce the field of SLA and describe key issues that set the stage for understanding the strengths and weaknesses of the following analysis techniques. For example, they discuss the dilemma of using performance data while trying to answer competence questions. They also describe three research paradigms and the differences between implicit and explicit knowledge. Chapter 2 is also a preparatory one that discusses data collection challenges and delineates three basic methods for collecting learner language data. They limit the book to the analysis of learner language samples and avoid learner self-reports and retrospective recall data, as well as non-linguistic performance data, such as reaction times and grammaticality judgments. Chapter 2 explains why.

In chapter 3 and beyond, they sink their teeth into the main fare, beginning with Error Analysis, what it is, how it has been used, how to do it, and what its limitations are – a pattern they repeat for each analysis technique. Chapter 4 explains obligatory occasion analysis, which they distinguish from error analysis as a technique that considers both well-formed and ill-formed student output. This technique was used in the morpheme studies that identified stages of acquisition and suggested that learners have their own internal syllabus. Frequency analysis, the subject of chapter 5, avoids dependency on target language norms and examines learner language in its own right, addressing a major drawback of the first two techniques, according to the authors. The problem with frequency analysis, however, the authors suggest, is that it is time consuming and, while serving as a tool to describe learner language and acquisition sequences, it fails to provide an explanation for them. In chapter 6, Ellis and Barkhuizen identify two types of Functional Analyses, which aim to examine learners' form-function mappings. This type of analysis has helped to identify the systematicity of interlanguage.

Chapter 7 may be the most useful for teachers. In this chapter, the authors focus on the analysis of accuracy, complexity, and fluency. They note that the previous techniques addressed forms, whereas in this chapter the analyses focus on broader constructs that acknowledge the fact that students may have different concerns from teacher and researcher, i.e., while a researcher may measure accuracy, learners might prioritize fluency. Moreover, they do not discuss assessment of accuracy, complexity, and fluency via tests, rather, their focus is the measurement of these items within student output. The chapter provides several measurement techniques for each construct and, like the previous chapters, reviews a research study as a model of the use of these techniques. They note that measuring these three constructs also recognizes that SLA is not a unitary phenomenon, but differentiated and multidimensional.

Chapters 8 through 10 go even farther away from form and analyze at the level of context or situation. Chapter 8, for example, explores Interactional Analysis, which has been instrumental in studies on negotiation of meaning, communication strategies, and error treatment, properties of interactions hypothesized to contribute to SLA. The chapter provides a detailed perspective of the interaction hypothesis and how it has changed and is limited. Chapter 9 covers conversation analysis, a technique that aims to provide a detailed, turn-by-turn explication of what it is that interlocutors do in their conversations. The technique attempts to adopt the participant's perspective and identify how conversations are co-constructed. Some researchers claim that conversation analysis can show how learners use turn-taking and repair as resources for L2 learning.

The focus of chapter 10 is sociocultural methods of analysis. More than interactional and conversation analysis, this chapter emphasizes the contextual influences on language output. Further, sociocultural theory suggests that learning is a socially situated activity and that knowledge is use. Thus, chapter 10 focuses on collaborative learning in classrooms. The authors point out that sociocultural SLA research often uses interactional analysis or conversation analysis techniques, but offers SLA learner language analysis a more fully articulated theoretical focus, frequently adapted for qualitative studies. Ellis and Barkhuizen suggest that much of the work in this tradition has been concerned with *microgenesis*, "the shift toward self-regulation which occurs during the moment-by-moment unfolding of a language learning activity" (p. 236).

Chapter 11 continues the authors' exploration of qualitative analysis, inspired by the sociocultural perspective, by addressing the topic of coding data qualitatively. To those familiar with the differences between qualitative and quantitative approaches, the chapter may be less interesting than others, but it serves as a good foundation and will be useful to readers who are unsure of the differences between inductive and deductive, grounded theory and hypothesis generating, and constructivist and interpretivist positions. The discussion of how to code, seek patterns, and interpret findings is practical and, like the previous chapters, Ellis and Barkhuizen review techniques via a sample study and offer data and instructions for the reader to try for him- or herself.

Perhaps slightly jarring, chapter 12 provides enlightenment on critical approaches to analyzing learner language, which are techniques to locate learners within the social contexts where learning takes place. Inevitably, such analyses reveal power relationships, how identity is constructed and other socializing processes. Next, the authors switch to metaphor analysis inspired by Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) book *Metaphors We Live By*. Ellis and Barkhuizen believe that "metaphor analysis has gained in popularity as a method for examining how participants in the teaching-learning process construct themselves and the activities they engage in" (p. 317). They suggest, however, that the technique has not been used much for studying learner cognitions.

The next chapter in this lengthy book, chapter 14, is written by Michael Barlow and explores how learner corpora can be analyzed by computers for a better understanding of the language acquisition process. Barlow explains the coding techniques for developing corpora and gives examples of the different questions addressed by this approach. The chapter also discusses corpus analysis software.

Ellis and Barkhuizen conclude the book by addressing a number of theoretical issues of importance to all the analysis techniques and by revisiting their earlier concerns about construct validity and the reliability of analyses.

STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES

Ellis and Barkhuizen's book is a great achievement and important addition to the field, helpful to both graduate students learning SLA and to researchers and teachers. The background that they provide for each technique ensures that even novices could gain from reading it. The organization, moreover, generally facilitates the usefulness of the book; however, if weaknesses must be identified, the beginning of the book tends to flow better and appear more unified than the last few chapters. Either due to the nature of their subject or less consideration for how they fit with the whole, the later analysis techniques are presented in a manner different from the earlier ones. As a result, these chapters appear to have been put together with less thought to their integration with the rest of the book, although they nonetheless provide helpful information.

To turn to the positive, rather than focusing on data collection methodology, which is the general focus of much research-oriented work, Ellis and Barkhuizen's tome targets an often neglected part of research courses: data analysis. From error analysis, obligatory context analysis, frequency analysis, etc., they cover the gamut of different ways that researchers in our field have attempted to elucidate the language acquisition process. The result is an eminently useful handbook of analytic techniques of our field that also identifies key research findings within the context of the analytic tradition from which they arose. Moreover, readers not only walk away with a better understanding of SLA and the analyses' procedures, they also gain insight into the strengths and limitations of each technique.

In addition, the authors provide a 25-page bibliography, 8-page index, and numerous tables, graphics, and transcripts that aid readers in pursuing additional topics, navigating the book, and grasping the essentials quickly. Final word on the book: highly recommended. Ellis and Barkhuizen have made an important and unique contribution to the field.

THE REVIEWER

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Assessing Speaking

Sari Luoma.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2004.
Pages: xiv + 212. (ISBN: 0 521 80487 6 Paperback)

REVIEWED BY GERRY LASSCHE

Teaching with Technology is another publication of the Cambridge Language Assessment Series Professional Series, edited by renowned assessment specialists J. Charles Alderson and Lyle Bachman. The author Sari Luoma tackles a difficult, multi-faceted topic, how to operationalize the assessment of speaking. She succeeds in delivering a comprehensive summary of the important issues in the field, with extensive ties to research-driven sources. The books of this series tend to flow from discussion of some aspect of the nature of language, toward a discussion of test items and factors of the testing context, and ending with a discussion of assessment purposes, which can help create expectancies in the reader for particular content and organization. *Assessing Speaking* follows this style.

After a brief introduction in chapter 1, in which the problem of testing is introduced through case studies and the scope of test design is defined, the author begins by attending to the nature of language itself in chapter 2. She characterizes her model of language as communicative, or meaningfully interactive. As a result, her presentation of test items, not surprisingly, highlights the use of tasks, as described in chapter 3. While painstaking in her description of tasks, the reading would be rendered more accessible if organized into smaller, more manageable chunks of information, framed with real test examples to clarify her ideas. Perhaps and executive- summary type section at the end of each chapter would make a later edition more appealing in this regard.

Once test items are designed, chapter 4 presents an evaluation for what and how items measure. To do this, a large menu of speaking scales are presented and discussed. This work represents the most extensive literature review of the subject that I have seen in some time. One question, though, might be whether a treatment of test items would flow more smoothly if it followed the chapter on scales, giving item design a more solid conceptual grounding. Fortunately, these concepts are reviewed later in chapter 7. Some of the constructs used in the scale criteria (i.e., uses language “smoothly”) still seem require further clarification. For example: “functions performed clearly and effectively” (p. 69). What is “clear,” and what is “effective”? This is a drawback that I have observed also in Bachman and Palmer (1996) and which seems to characterize some of the work in language testing. Many of the constructs are assumed defined per convention, when they as yet need some unpacking (Lassche, 2001).

In chapters 5 and 6, the Bachman model of language-as-communication is highlighted (after Skehan, 1998). A theoretical model for placing language assessment within the context of language-for-use, with a de-emphasis on underlying notions of competence, per se, is defended. How competence manifests itself during testing (after the Kenyon-McNamara Model; McNamara, 1996) is best measured through socio-cultural experimental studies, according to Skehan (1998)–a problem he attributes to the Bachman Model (Bachman & Palmer, 1996) as not sufficiently addressing. Significantly, the chapter concludes with a discussion of the socio-cultural approach to assessment, which tends to treat speaking as more of a process in which performance can change according to context and across time within the same individual. What is still missing from this discussion, however, is attention to the relative weight assigned to various components within the assessment scheme, as observed earlier by Skehan (1998).

In chapter 7, the author returns to her discussion of item design, and it is supported with many specific examples, which helpfully illustrate the ideas. In chapter 8, she closes with the concepts of reliability and validity, which prove very useful for reviewing concepts from throughout the book. In addition, by placing these concepts at the end, the book models an important pedagogical caveat in test design: that when all is said and done with preparing a test, we need to make sure that the product, and what we do with it, is legitimate. If that final evaluation indicates gaps in the process, we need to go back to the drawing board in our test design.

The book presents a vast review of the important concepts in measuring speaking, and for this reason alone–for the time it can save the researcher intent on a literature review–it is worth the price of the volume. On the other hand, *Assessing Speaking* and other books in the Language Testing series noticeably do not have any language samples of test performance. I would have found it very helpful to see how the speaking scales would have been applied to rate particular test item responses. The presentation of classroom data is certainly not a new idea, having been used extensively in general methodology books, such as Nunan’s (1991) volume. Why testing performance data has not found its way onto the pages of testing method books in a similar fashion is puzzling to me.

For those practitioners looking to develop a background in oral testing, Sari Luoma's book would be a good place to start. As well, the book's model for approaching test design would also be helpful for institutions wishing to develop their own in-house testing protocol in a more systematic, rigorous fashion. Classroom teachers, on the other hand, would be more inclined to pick and choose among the components when designing their own spot tests and quizzes, due to the constraints of time and resources. As a result, those readers might find a book designed more like Baxter's (1997) *Evaluating Your Students* more appealing, due to its shorter discussions and more numerous examples, but I have yet to find one specifically concerned with oral testing.

THE REVIEWER

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The Struggle to Teach English as an International Language

Adrian Holliday.
Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2005.
Pages: xii+193. (ISBN: 0194421848 Paperback)

REVIEWED BY MICHAEL DUFFY

A previous book from Oxford University Press, Sandra Lee McKay's (2002) *Teaching English as an International Language*, has already been reviewed in this journal (Duffy, 2002). Considering the similarity of the two titles, it is striking that although Holliday's references run to over seven pages, he makes no mention of McKay's book. This is an indication of how different the two books are; both start from the same premise, that English is no longer the sole property of "inner circle" countries, but now belongs equally to its users in the "periphery"; however, whereas McKay takes one chapter to deal with the question of how students from periphery countries are best to learn English, Holliday's book, as its title suggests, takes on the same topic in a much more polemical way.

Polemics require adversaries, and the adversary in this case is identified as "English-speaking Western TESOL,"

> A professional group which . . . propels itself into the professional domains of other education systems in other countries, while maintaining distance from them; and sees itself as liberally humanist even when it blatantly reduces foreign colleagues and students to a problematic generalized Other. (p. 29)

Holliday takes the view that native-speaker TESOL has failed to recognize the consequences of the changing ownership of English, and has persisted missionary-fashion in trying to impose a western pedagogical model on people who neither need it nor want it. He labels this charge "native-speakerism," something he sees as a descendant of a list of other -isms, including "essentialism" and "culturism," respectively the notions that cultures are coterminous with countries or regions, and that an individual is no more than a representative of his or her supposed culture, a culture which in turn may be seen as a problem or an obstacle when it comes to learning English. Though native-speakerism is seen as a distant legacy of colonialism, its more immediate origins can be found in the native-speaking teacher-dominated audiolingual method.

However, Holliday proposes that the current orthodoxy of Western TESOL, the supposedly learner-centered and autonomy-promoting communicative language teaching (CLT), exemplified in the writings of people like Hedge (2000) and Harmer (2001), with its “icons” like the four skills, staged teaching, oral elicitation, and monitoring, is in fact equally a form of “corrective training,” combining cultural control with linguistic education. He disputes the claim that western-style TESOL promotes student autonomy and suggests that autonomy should be assumed from the outset to be universal. He sees evidence of it in observations of the responses of students from various countries in “communicative” classrooms: choosing to remain silent when they are expected to speak, carrying out tasks as a group rather than individually, using rote memorization, even falling asleep. If we treat such behavior as problematic, Holliday suggests, it is only because we have a culture-bound view of “autonomy”.

Holliday’s solution to the problem of native-speakerism is to move to what he calls “Position 2”; this would entail a recognition that the “non-native speaker (NNS)” educator (as he points out, a highly unsatisfactory label) has as much claim to ownership of the English language as the native speaker (NS), and an equal right to determine how it should be taught. He also proposes an alternative, broader view of communicative teaching, one which rests on a “distinction between communicative *principles* and the *specific methodology* of the English-speaking Western TESOL ‘learning group ideal’” (p. 144).

Chapter 6 contains accounts of curriculum projects the author worked on in two universities, one in Damascus, the other in an unnamed Asian country. Here, he saw culturism in operation at the administrative level, with local participants in the projects being marginalized and, in turn, trying to resist the western matrix imposed on them. It appears that these experiences helped bring about the author’s conversion to his present views, and the book is certainly written with the passion of a convert.

I would guess that many NS teachers who, like me, are working with students from periphery countries would like to move towards the “cultural continuity” with their NNS colleagues that Holliday proposes in his closing chapter. At the same time, they may, like me, feel remote from the institutional ESL world that he writes about. Far from working within an imported western matrix, or “projecting themselves” into a foreign domain, they find themselves part of a home-grown matrix, whether they are working in a public school, private language school, or university.

Inevitably, students will be comfortable with culturally appropriate ways of learning, but equally, NS teachers will bring their own cultural and pedagogical baggage to their job, and will need to make constant decisions as to when to accommodate to the students' culture and when to apply their own standards. If a teacher is working in a situation where "sharing" or plagiarizing homework assignments is commonly practiced by students and accepted by educators, would he or she be "native speakerist" to insist on students doing independent work? Holliday may argue that these would be extreme cases, but I am not clear what criterion the author is using in the examples given to define activities as autonomous, and under what conditions he would describe behavior as being non-autonomous. I would have been interested to see some insights from his personal experience as a language learner; in what circumstances did he feel autonomous, and when did he feel he was subject to "corrective training"? Readers of the book might also like to compare Holliday's treatment of the question of classroom methods with the more neutral discussion in the final chapter of McKay's (2002) book.

Although Holliday recognizes that "Western TESOL is itself a diverse, divided and complex culture" (p. ix), he leaves himself open to suspicion of essentialism when he lays the charge of native-speakerism at its door as if it were some monolithic entity. Perhaps the demands of the polemic make this necessary, but it seems to me that this reification of a rather nebulous conglomeration of institutions and individuals leads him to overestimate its power, and to disregard influences from the wider world in which English is taught. For example:

> One email correspondent, a NS teacher in Bangkok, writes ". . . the only reason [Thai teachers] were not employed in the same capacity as us was that the parents . . . expected to see native speakers teaching their children. It was a question of prestige and image, something that seems quite important in Thai society." (p. 114)

Holliday comments that "All people, from whatever society, are concerned with 'prestige and image' in different ways" (p. 114). In finding his correspondent duly guilty of culturism, he unfortunately sidesteps the evidence presented here that native-speakerism may be generated not just by the ideology of "Western TESOL," but also by commercial demands. I get a constant impression that Holliday sees TESOL primarily as some post-imperialist project; I would have welcomed some acknowledgement of the implications of its role as an international business.

In one of the book's closing paragraphs, the author admits "This has been a particularly challenging book to write . . ." (p. 176). For this reviewer, at least, it was an extremely challenging book to read, not only because of the provocative nature and density of its arguments, but also because of the prolix nature of the writing style; I frequently found myself having to re-read sentences before I could grasp them. Since book appears in the publisher's Applied Linguistics series and is aimed at a specialized readership, this is perhaps to be expected. However, the issues that Holliday addresses will be of concern to many readers of this journal, and a careful reading of the book will give them a great deal to ponder.

THE REVIEWER

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Multiple Intelligences and Language Learning: A Guidebook of Theory, Activities, Inventories, and Resources

Mary Ann Christison.
Burlingame, CA: Alta Book Center, 2005.
Pages xiv + 361. (ISBN 978-1-882483-75-4)

REVIEWED BY ROXANNE SILVANIUK

This book is actually an activity book for language teachers based on Multiple Intelligences theory with a minimal discussion of the theory to set up the activities. In sixteen pages, Unit 1 introduces the theory, explains its relevance to teachers, and provides a five-step plan on how to use it.

First, the theory of Multiple Intelligences (MI) developed by Howard Gardner challenges the idea that intelligence is a single static concept that can be measured by an IQ test. In Gardner's view, humans use multiple intelligences "to solve problems or fashion products that are of consequence in a particular cultural setting or community" (p. 2). Originally, seven intelligences were identified (linguistic, logical/mathematical, visual/spatial, bodily/kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, musical), while naturalist intelligence was added later.

MI theory has helped teachers to recognize and better approach the different ways students learn as well as stretch the intelligences that students use in their learning. Christison cites four reasons (from Armstrong, 1994) why MI theory, originally developed to explain human cognition, gained the interest of teachers:

1. Each person possesses all eight intelligences.
2. Intelligences can be developed.
3. Intelligences work together in complex ways.
4. There are many different ways to be intelligent. (p. 7)

Throughout the introductory unit, and the preface, Christison urges teachers to take MI theory and apply it in ways that suit their teaching situations and students, as she does in Christison (1996), while recognizing that not all of the activities will work for everyone. However, teachers wishing to utilize MI theory are first encouraged to work through five steps. To facilitate this, activity pages for steps 2-4 are included for both pre-service and in-service teachers.

Having been written with new or inexperienced teachers in mind, the format is very user-friendly. The activities are listed in a table of contents at the beginning of each unit, followed by the activities, and then, at the end of each unit, any required activity sheets are listed. Each activity lists the intelligences being developed and states an objective for each. The target age group and language level are indicated in the margin for easy reference. Then, there is a complete list of materials. The instructions are brief, and on occasion may offer more than one version as well as suggestions for different age groups or extended activities.

The reader will want to refer to the appendices. Besides the answer keys, MI inventories are included for different ages of students and pre-service L2 teachers. Then, all the activities are grouped by age and language proficiency level: starting with Pre-K to adult. While these groupings may not speak to the Korean teaching system, it does give the teacher a place to start.

Some of the activities in the book are well-known to language teachers: word-picture matching, word mazes, family trees, letters to advice columnists, shopping, etc. Therefore, the following highlights a few of the less familiar activities from the beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels.

Unit 2, Linguistic Intelligence, has 24 activities involving reading, writing, telling stories, doing puzzles, and word games. A beginner activity is Spelling Maze where A4-sized letter cards are scattered on the floor, and a student must step on the letters to spell a word. Students create a T-shirt with a family motto and logo in Family Matters (intermediate to advanced level).

Logical/Mathematical is the next unit with 20 activities that focus on solving word problems and brain teasers, experimenting, finding patterns, working with numbers, categorizing, and sorting. There are two graphing activities for beginning to intermediate levels: Favorite Sports and Kinds of Candy. Purchase Power is a real-life activity to determine the cost of entertainment for various groups based on tickets in the handout (intermediate to advanced).

The 24 activities in Unit 4 use maps, visual details and patterns, mazes, spatial relationships and, of course, color and form to develop Visual/Spatial Intelligence. A great idea for Parents' Day is Family Gift Boxes (beginning) where the student makes a gift box, and then, puts a thank-you letter inside. The Food Pyramid (intermediate to advanced) introduces food vocabulary, food groups, and nutrition.

My favorite unit, Bodily/Kinesthetic, has 23 activities of experiments, role-plays, making crafts, using manipulatives, exercising, and playing games. Beginners can link color-coded paper chains together based on commonalities found in the class in Group Chain. The Foot Game (intermediate) involves fancy footwork around a circle, somewhat like hopscotch, while calling out words from a selected category. How to Make a Pinata (intermediate) and Valentine's Day Cake (intermediate to advanced) provide ways to celebrate special days.

Unit 6, Personal Intelligences, includes the Interpersonal and Intrapersonal Intelligences with 13 activities for each. To help teachers set up group activities, Christison includes six ways to form groups. A second activity introduces the five roles group members can perform. In the Intrapersonal section, students write a personal poem following a format in Autobio Poetry. (The reviewer has had great success using this idea in a composition class.) Two intermediate to advanced activities are analyzing dreams and examining students' beliefs in Gender Differences.

The unit on Musical Intelligence offers 20 activities of which three are dances (Filipino, Polynesian, and Indonesian Dance; Country Line Dance; Modified Square Dancing), and Choreography has students adding a dance, mime, or skit to their favorite music.

The final unit on Naturalist Intelligence has 20 activities that develop students' appreciation of nature, increase plant and animal knowledge, and thinking about the environment. Students record the weather for a month, paint something in nature in the pointillism style, and investigate puddles.

Who would find this book useful? If used as an activity book, all teachers could find a variety of useful activities to supplement their lessons. Teachers with a flexible curriculum and those doing English camps are encouraged to peruse this book. A judicious selection of activities centered around a theme could provide learning opportunities and active fun as well as a ready explanation of lesson objectives for parents. Finally, as Christison mentions, it is useful as a pre-service and in-service teacher-training tool to build self-awareness and look at language learning, and lesson and curriculum planning, from a new viewpoint.

From a Korean perspective some of the handouts are not always relevant to an EFL setting and would have to be largely rewritten. Also, some of the activities require pictures from magazines, catalogues, and advertising flyers, but teachers with access to the Internet and a color printer could find acceptable replacements. Furthermore, some of the activities require photocopying, cutting, and other preparation before the class, so Christison recommends laminating. Making class sets would initially be quite time-consuming although several teachers could work together and share the materials. On a practical note, the handouts should have been printed on single-sided pages to avoid shadows from the other side.

This book offers teachers a very practical opportunity to not only improve, but energize, their lessons in a relatively painless way. Understanding how different activities aid our students' language learning helps us better meet our students' needs and interests.

THE REVIEWER

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Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (7th ed.)

A. S. Hornby and Sally Wehmeier (Ed.).
Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2005.
Pages: xii + 1780 + R119. (ISBN-13: 978-0-194316491, Paperback/CD pack)

REVIEWED BY DAVID E. SHAFFER

In this fast-paced, high-tech world we live in, the lifetime of a dictionary is quickly shrinking. The recently published seventh edition of the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (OALD-7) follows the previous edition by merely five years, compared to fifteen years between the first two editions in the mid-twentieth century. In the tradition of previous editions, OALD-7 builds on its predecessors and is extremely up to date for a dictionary. This review will make comparisons of OALD-7 with the previous edition, OALD-6 (Hornby & Wehmeier, 2000), and with other prominent advanced learner's dictionaries (ALDs) that have been recently published. It will first look at the features of headword entries, and then consider the general features of the dictionary and manner in which the product is presented.

HEADWORD ENTRIES

OALD-7 bills itself as having "more words . . . than any other advanced learner's dictionary" (back cover), without specifying how many words it actually has. This is partially due to differing methods of characterizing headwords and treatments of polysemy. However, based on the number of pages the dictionary contains, at about 1,800 pages, OALD-7 is slightly larger than the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (CALD; 2003), 1,500 pages; Macmillan English Dictionary (MED; Rundell & Fox, 2002), 1650; and *Longman's Advanced American Dictionary* (LAAD; Gadsby, 2002), 1700. It is also comparable to the *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*, 3rd edition (CCED-3; Sinclair, 2001) and 4th edition (CCED-4; Sage, 2004), and the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LDOCE-4; Summers, 2003). With 300 more pages than OALD-6, it is estimated to contain 6,000 more words and phrases than the earlier edition.

Among these additional words are many recently debuting in the lexicon. Approximately 2,000 of the new words appearing in the second edition of the *Oxford Dictionary of English* (Soanes & Stevenson, 2003) also appear in OALD-7. These include *blog*, *my bad*, *CD-WR*, *crowd-pleaser*, *dirty bomb*, *firewall*, *keypal*, *phishing*, *SARS*, and *WMD*, none of which can be found in the recently published CALD. Also included are *authoring*, *local area network*, and *low-impact*, new expressions that had been added to CCED-4 only a short time earlier. CCED-4's *bioterrorism* is absent, but by parsing it into *bio-* and *terrorism*, the learner can arrive at the meaning through these headwords. Because of their high frequency of use, it is important to the learner that new words make their way into a dictionary as quickly as possible, and OALD-7 does a very good job of this.

All the major ALDs are now corpus-based. OALD-7 is based on the British National Corpus, a massive database of over 100 million words of written and spoken English (though less than half the size of the Longman corpus) and the OED-based "corpus." Corpora easily provide the information necessary for arranging polysemous words in order of frequency of use, as OALD-7 and others all do. Van der Meer (1997) points out that learners consider the sense of a word appearing first in an entry to be the most important. Knowing the relative frequency of use of a set of word senses is admittedly of some importance to the learner, but arranging the senses of words with the base sense first and progressing to the least literal sense would allow the learner to more inductively see this relationship in the progression of word senses away from the base sense, thereby aiding in vocabulary acquisition. Arranging according to frequency of use also allows unrelated meanings to be interspersed among related ones. To its credit, however, in some instances OALD-7 does place the base sense first, as with *Mecca* coming before *mecca* (p. 952), for example, while the non-literal, common noun *mecca* appears first in LDOCE-4, separate from the Saudi Arabian city *Mecca* in MED, and alone in CALD.

As in OALD-6, and now in all major ALDs, OALD-7 employs guidewords to highlight the different major senses of a headword. As a result, unrelated homographs become grouped under a single headword. For example, under the headword *fast*, one will find the adjective meaning "quick" (p. 556) as well as the verb meaning "to not eat" (p. 557). It would seem more logical for etymologically unrelated words to appear as separate headwords to accentuate this difference for learners, as done in CALD (p. 445-446; see Shaffer, 2003).

For the definitions of words and senses of words, OALD-7 employs a combination of sentential and phrasal definitions. Though Wingate (2002) cautions that sentential definitions tend to impede rather than aid in the understanding of word meanings, they can be advantageous if they are well written and not overused, a balance that OALD-7 strikes. Appearing below is an example of the two forms of definitions employed in OALD-7 compared with the wordier sentential definitions of CCED-3:

> OALD-7: **cloud. 1.** if sth **clouds** your judgement, memory, etc., it makes it difficult for you to understand or remember something clearly. … **2.** (of sb's face) to show sadness, fear, anger, etc.; to make sb look sad, afraid, angry, etc. (p. 281)
>
> CCED-3: **cloud. 3.** If you say that something **clouds** your view of a situation, you mean that it makes you unable to understand the situation or judge it properly. … **5.** If your eyes or face **cloud** or if sadness or anger **clouds** them, your eyes or your face suddenly show sadness or anger. (p. 275)

The defining vocabulary used in OALD-7 consists of 3,000 words. These are the most frequently used words in English and are marked with a key after the headword. It would be more informative to mark words for different degrees of frequency, indicated by one, two, or three stars, as done in MED and CCED-4. Words are also marked as British and North American English where there are differences in pronunciation, spelling, or meaning. This is of great value to EFL learners, such as those in Korea, who are often exposed to both varieties, especially in readings, and may not be aware of the dialectal differences.

GENERAL FEATURES

One of the features that contributed to OALD-6's appeal is back in expanded form in OALD-7 – the use of boxed material related to a nearby headword (see Shaffer, 2000). These boxes, highlighting information of particular importance, come in seven types. The *More About* boxes go into more detail about a word. For example, the *meal* box explains the usages of *dinner*, *lunch*, *supper*, and *tea* (p. 950). The highly useful *Which Word* boxes deal with easily confusable words, e.g., *as*/*like*, *ashamed*/*embarrassed*, *may*/*can*, *persuade*/*convince*. The *Vocabulary Building* boxes include items like "words that mean 'break'" (p. 180) and "actions expressing emotions," which accompanies the headword *body* (p. 159). Popping up here and there are *Word Family* boxes highlighting words from the same base, e.g., *stable*/*stability*/*stabilize*, and *Grammar Point* boxes such as the one dealing with grammatical number for *each* and *every* (p. 480). Most intriguing are the *British/American* boxes, which point out differences between British and American English. One informed this author of differences that exist in British and American usages of *course*, *program*, and *module* (p. 351). The last type of box is new to OALD-7 and is by far the most common of all box types used – *Synonyms*. In addition to synonyms such as *shade*, *tone*, *hue*, *tint*, and *tinge*, these boxes may also include patterns and collocations.

The synonym boxes will be a welcome addition for learners such as those in Korea who need to hone their vocabulary for TOEIC and similar tests. For test preparation, more of the grammar usage boxes would be welcomed. Alternatively, a column of syntactical information down the page, as found in CCED-3 (see Shaffer, 2001), would also be of great assistance to the Korean EFL learner. The addition of boxes focusing on spoken phrases, such as those found in LDOCE-4 (see Shaffer, 2004), would also have much to offer to the EFL student, as they have limited access to authentic speech. What this author would particularly like to see offered are metaphor boxes such as those in MED (see Shaffer, 2002), which introduce conceptual metaphors (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Introducing the learner to conceptual metaphors such as "life is a journey" would give the learner insight as to why we say "the baby *arrived*" (MED, p. 812) and "he is *at a crossroads* in life." Conceptual metaphors have the potential of showing the learner, as no other method can, that the way we think influences the way we speak. It is understood that it would be difficult to include all of these suggestions due to space considerations.

An attractive addition that does not take up space is color, and OALD-7 makes the change from all black to color for important headwords and boxed text, a change that the other major ALDs had already made in their most recent editions. Though the color does make the text stand out more than before, the selected darker blue does so somewhat less than the brighter blues and red appearing in other ALDs. The illustrations in OALD-7 are not only more abundant but more aesthetically pleasing, in many cases employing photographed material rather than drawings. The addition of color and the change in illustrations give the dictionary a more "academic" look than that of OALD-6.

Following the nearly 1,800 pages of lexical entries in OALD-7 are more than a hundred additional pages of useful information – colored sections of maps and featured topics, and a reference section. This reference section is extensive and contains invaluable information for the learner. It consists of subsections on grammar (including, conditionals, collocations, and idioms), study pages (writing emails, telephoning, electronic messaging), and other references (first names and geographical names, sayings and proverbs, and OALD-7s defining vocabulary of 3,000 words). Collecting all this information together in the back of the dictionary makes more sense and is more convenient than randomly interspersing sections of it through the dictionary, as done in OALD-6, especially since the pages of content have doubled.

PRODUCT PRESENTATION

While we are cautioned by a well-known proverb to never judge a book by its cover, we are also advised that “Clothes make the man.” And with this, Korean English learners agree. They rank physical characteristics very high in importance in evaluating and selecting a dictionary (Kent, 2001). Therefore, not only the contents but also the presentation of a dictionary must be taken into consideration. In size, OALD-7 has grown to 5.4 x 15.8 x 23.4 cm, equivalent to that of LDOCE-4 and at least as heavy. It is thus unlikely that a learner will carry it to school and back (electronic dictionaries have already replaced print dictionaries in the classroom in Korea), but OALD-7 is quite desirable as a desk reference. The paper quality is high, but character size and spacing between characters and lines have been slightly reduced from that of OALD-6, making the text slightly more difficult to read.

OALD-7 is available on the Web in its entirety from the OALD home page <http://www.oup.com/elt/catalogue/teachersites/oald7/?cc=gb>. Also available from the home page are a section on word formation, several worksheets from the 64-page *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary Resource Book* (2005), and a corrective download for OALD-7 CD-ROM installation if problems are encountered.

The OALD-7 CD-ROM may be purchased with the print dictionary. It contains everything in the print version of the 7th edition, as well as the entire contents of *Oxford Learner’s Wordfinder Dictionary* (1997) and the highly acclaimed *Oxford Guide to British and American Culture* (1999). Though ALDs do not include etymological information, 20,000 word origins can be found on the OALD-7 CD.

Available for US$25.94 (list price: $39.30) with CD-ROM at Amazon.com, OALD-7 is comparable to LDOCE-4 in price as well as size, but is slightly more expensive than the other major ALDs ($19.00 - $22.00). Nevertheless, OALD-7 is well worth its price; any high-intermediate to advanced English learner would benefit from having a copy at their fingertips. It is a dictionary that the user will find satisfying use after use.

THE REVIEWER

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Key to Abbreviations Used

ALD = Advanced learner's dictionary

CALD = *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*.

CCED-3 = *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (3rd ed.).

CCED-4 = *Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's English Dictionary* (4th ed.).

LAAD = *Longman Advanced American Dictionary*.

LDOCE-4 = *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (4th ed.).

MED = *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*.

OALD-6 = *Oxford's Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (6th ed.).

OALD-7 = *Oxford's Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (7th ed.).

OED = *Oxford English Dictionary*.

Reactions!

Clarity Language Consultants, Ltd., 2005.
[http://www.clarity.com.hk]

REVIEWED BY TIM WHITMAN

INTRODUCTION

One of the newest CD-ROM and online program offerings from Clarity Language Consultants, *Reactions!*, focuses on the development of English reading skills through integrated lessons for learners in a high school or university setting. *Reactions!* consists of listening, writing, dictionary skills, and online and classroom activities at five levels, from late beginner to advanced, each with ten engaging lessons on a variety of topics. The lessons usually have five or six different sections, beginning with clear targets of what the learners will accomplish and ending with activities for continued learning beyond the basic programs. It can be used as a stand-alone program or can be used with other Clarity programs to broaden opportunities for students while providing teachers with tracking and student-management options.

TECHNICAL ASPECTS

Reactions! is very easy software to operate and can be installed quickly. The program uses Macromedia Flash, which is provided if your computer doesn't already have it. The program's start page has a help link to Clarity's homepage with explanations of lesson activities, software features, and contacts for support. Each user of the program creates a separate log-on for tracking results, and they may also select from a number of languages for program controls and icons.

Learners may find it necessary to record their voice for certain activities using the voice recording option. This software is not included with the original program but is easily downloaded by selecting the link provided. *Reactions!* uses easy-to-read text and interesting graphics to stimulate the learners' interest.

Reactions! is also designed to work with other Clarity products such as *Author Plus* and *Results Manager*. This allows teachers an excellent opportunity to integrate this software into a website and track learner progress.

PEDAGOGICAL ASPECTS

Overview

The core of *Reactions!* is reading but it integrates understanding vocabulary, and listening together into the program. Learners are taught a range of ways to improve their reading and expand vocabulary, and with the wide range of activities available for them to use these skills, they can almost effortlessly become comfortable using them. The listening material complements the reading text, giving the learner exposure to native-speaker rhythm and intonation, and provides an alternative activity to the reading of the passage.

The broad range of interesting topics should also provide teachers with interesting materials that could easily be integrated into other learning environments and provide additional opportunities for learners to implement their newfound knowledge. This is an important goal of *Reactions!*: moving from the computer to the real world.

Reactions! also has two very useful components for tracking and scoring. Tracking allows learners to check the time required for them to complete each activity. This can help them to identify whether they are taking to long for scanning or skimming lesson activities. Learners can choose how they want to be scored during the lesson and whether they want the feedback to be immediate or at the end of each section. The scoring also provides immediate feedback to help them understand what they did wrong. The time and scoring can be printed out for either the student or the teacher.

Reading

Reactions! helps learners develop better reading skills to maximize the value of the written text. The lessons are designed to consider the purposes for reading, whether it's for scanning, skimming, looking for details, understanding elements of discourse or grammar, or inferring meaning. The program uses very natural-looking reading texts that look like what would be encountered in the real world. The program explains what the skills being learned are used for and when to use them. *Reactions!*

recycles practice in all of these skills and, by avoiding a routine format, remains engaging for the learners as they progress through the different levels of the program.

The pre- and post-reading questions and activities encourage the learners to think about the topic. The program uses a good mix of pre-reading questions and activities, sometimes unscored, to get readers to make predictions about the topic. For post-reading comprehension checking, *Reactions!* uses not only multiple choice, but also fill-in-the-blank and answer-sorting activities so that learners have to think about the answer or reread to find the correct answer. The drag and drop feature of a computer-based lesson makes it easier for learners to complete activities while increasing computer interactivity.

Vocabulary

There is a variety of useful vocabulary development activities used in *Reactions!*. The aim is to get learners to guess or infer meaning of unknown vocabulary items in the text, to move past unknown items, which may slow down the reading, and to improve dictionary skills. The program wants learners to work within the texts they read to create understanding of new lexical items – an important strategy for learners. It is also good to see a program that draws in dictionary skills, something that the reviewer feels is not covered enough in the language classroom.

Listening

All of the lessons in *Reactions*! include a listening component, reading sections, and follow-up activities. All lesson instructions are in spoken as well as written form. There are many reading texts that may also be listened to while reading. This allows learners to hear natural rhythm and intonation. There are some activities where the listening is independent of a written text. The listening activities use a range of speakers, at different speaking speeds, from across the English-speaking world, but British English is predominant. This may be more problematic for those learners who are more often exposed to American pronunciation models; however, exposure to a range of accents is beneficial in the context of world English.

CONCLUSION

Reactions! is very interesting software which will be of benefit to learners as well as teachers. Learners will be motivated to improve their reading and vocabulary skills while enjoying timely topics, colorful pictures, in a wide range of computer-based activities, which they can engage in independently. This program encourages students to explore other materials, both online and offline. It is one of the main goals of the program to motivate students to enjoy reading English. Teachers will be able to bring the good variety of materials from the program into their classrooms. The tracking features will help teachers to monitor their students' progress through the materials. While the base price of the software, US$225, may be a little pricey for many would-be users, those seeking a well-developed, integrated reading program to use for their high school or university program, self-access center, language institute, or web site should seriously consider *Reactions!*

MINIMUM OPERATING SYSTEM REQUIREMENTS

A Pentium-class computer running Win 98/NT/2000/ME/XP, with a CD-ROM drive, a 600x800 full-color screen, and network access. Macromedia Flash is also required.

THE REVIEWER

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