KOTESOL Proceedings 2010

Advancing ELT in the Global Context

Proceedings of PAC 2010
The Pan-Asia Conference
The 18th Annual KOTESOL International Conference
Seoul, Korea; October 16-17, 2010

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

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Foreword

PAC 2010 - The Pan-Asia Conference and the 18th Annual Korea TESOL International Conference was held at Sookmyung Women's University on October 16-17, 2010. Approximately 1,500 international and Korea-based attendees gathered in Seoul, Korea, for a weekend of teacher development under the conference theme of ***Advancing ELT in the Global Context***. The two-day Conference offered plenary sessions by Paul Nation, Patricia Duff, and Thomas Farrell, as well as nine featured speaker sessions by Andy Curtis, Alan Maley, Andrew Kirkpatrick, Willy Renandya, JoAnn Crandall, Sunhye Hwang, Kumiko Torikai, Suchada Nimmannit, and Andrew Finch, as well as a plenary panel featuring David Nunan, Rod Ellis, Kathleen Bailey, Martha Cummings, and Ken Beatty, moderated by Alan Maley. In addition, the Conference included nearly 200 concurrent sessions of various formats including research paper presentations, workshops, and colloquia.

The thirty-one papers in this volume range from the practical workshop report to the theoretical, from a presentation of the latest theories to a review of what has come before. They show the English language teaching field in dynamic motion evolving, evaluating, innovating, and reflecting. The papers collected herein fall into fifteen categories: assessment and testing; classroom management; conversation, pronunciation, and listening; corpus linguistics; course and materials design; cross- and intercultural issues; English for Academic or Specific Purposes; grammar; identity, autonomy, and motivation; learning style preferences; multiple skills; pragmatics and discourse; teacher development; video; and writing.

The range and the depth of the papers presented in this volume of *KOTESOL Proceedings 2010* is testimony to the time and energy that EFL practitioners invest in advancing ELT in the local and global context. What appears in this collection is but a sampling of the presentations that were presented at the 2010 KOTESOL International Conference, but we feel that it is a strong sampling.

It is our pleasure to present this volume of *KOTESOL Proceedings 2010*. We would like to thank the authors of the papers collected here for their cooperation and patience with the editing process, and of course, for preparing their contributions to this volume. We hope that you will enjoy reading the papers in this publication in your own pursuit of professional excellence and the advancement of ELT.

Maria Pinto
David Shaffer
Editors-in-Chief
KOTESOL Proceedings 2010

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CONTENTS

Corpus Linguistics

Course / Materials Design

Cross-cultural / Intercultural Issues

EAP / ESP

Grammar

Identity / Autonomy / Motivation

Learning Style Preferences

Multiple Skills

Pragmatics / Discourse

Teacher Development

Video

Writing

Workshop Reports

Conference Overview

Assessment / Testing

The Validity of Consequences: High-Stakes Language Testing and the Potential Polarization of Young ELLs

John F. Haggerty
Carleton University, Ottawa, Canada

This paper presents the main findings of an exploratory study that probes the attitudinal differences of young ELLs based on completion of cognitively demanding high-stakes language testing. A pilot questionnaire was administered to 202 ELLs from three different education levels: middle school, high school, and university. An analysis of responses to 20 questionnaire items was conducted on the basis of (a) education level and (b) the completion of one of two high-stakes English tests: the TOEFL or the TEPS. There were significant correlations found for 15/20 responses from middle-school students, 4/20 from high school students, and 0/20 from university students. These preliminary results suggest that high-stakes English testing has a potentially polarizing effect on the attitudes, beliefs, and motivations of younger ELLs. Possible implications for modern notions of test validity, specifically consequential validity, will be explored, and some recommendations for improvements to the test validation process will be offered.

INTRODUCTION

In South Korea, the results of language tests can dramatically influence the opportunities available to students. As such, there is extreme pressure to perform on English tests even at quite young ages, and many students begin preparation for cognitively demanding language tests as early as elementary school (for a fuller discussion, see Nam, 2006; Choi, 2008). Despite the reality that young English language learners (ELLs) are taking high-stakes cognitively challenging language tests like TOEFL and TEPS, test designers have generally not explicitly investigated the effects of this in their analysis of test validity. However, if modern notions of test validity are to be taken seriously, much more investigation into the potential effects of cognitively demanding tests on younger ELLs is warranted. In attempting to address this issue, the following three research questions were posed:

1. What differences exist in the attitudes, beliefs, and motivation of young ELLs who have completed high-stakes language tests compared to those who have not?
2. Do these differ from ELLs at higher education levels?
3. Can high-stakes test results be considered valid for young ELLs?

A great deal of research has been conducted on the role of ELL attitudes, beliefs, and motivation, and its impact on the achievement of language proficiency. However, the role of high-stakes testing in helping or hindering this process has received scant attention in motivation studies. Given the pivotal role that high-stakes standardized testing plays in many meritocratic educational environments, especially in Asia (Ross, 2008), and its growing importance resulting from educational initiatives such as “No Child Left Behind” in the U.S., this is a consideration that has been overlooked for too long.

A MODERN CONCEPTION OF TEST VALIDITY

Nowadays, most language test theorists (e.g., Kane, 2002; Bachman, 2005) have acknowledged the need for a sophisticated test validity argument that explicitly connects a test to the social constructs it is purportedly designed to assess. However, some have taken the need to acknowledge the social context of language testing one critical step farther. Samuel Messick’s (1989; 1995) “validity matrix” challenges theorists to step outside the test itself and consider the value implications inherent in the decision-making process as well as the social consequences of test use. As a “unified” concept, validity in language testing for Messick involves value judgments from the very first decision made. These judgments have real-world social consequences which need to be properly understood in order for test validity to be properly satisfied. Unfortunately, “... through marrying itself to psychometrics, language testing has obscured, perhaps deliberately, its social dimension” (McNamara & Roever, 2006, p. 1). This study examines the social consequences of test use situated at the apex of Messick’s proposed test validity matrix.

INSTRUMENT AND METHOD

A list of 40 potential questions in two general categories (assessment and learning experiences) was developed to assess the attitudes, beliefs, and motivations of students towards English at three different education levels: middle school (MS), high school (HS), and university (UNI). All potential questionnaire items were “back-translated” (Brislin, as cited in Dornyei, 2002, p. 51) using two translators. Next, two Korean EFL teachers and two foreign EFL teachers (including myself) assessed the suitability of the items, a process that narrowed the list to 32. It was decided to use a four-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree) to avoid neutral answers. After pre-testing on two university classes (N = 62) and subsequent item analysis, the questionnaire was narrowed down to ten items per category (20 total) with Cronbach Alpha scores of .76 (assessment experiences) and .72 (learning experiences). The completed pilot questionnaire, including questions about the respondents’ age, education level, English proficiency level and TOEFL/TEPS completion, was then administered over a five-day period to 202 ELLs in two middle schools, two high schools, and two universities in Seoul, South Korea. The data were inputted into SPSS software (v. 16) and analyzed.

PARTICIPANTS

There were a total of 202 respondents. The youngest respondent was 12 and the oldest was 38 (the mean age was 17.5). Of these, 65 were in middle school, 83 in high school, and 54 in university. Although there were more than two times as many female respondents as male (143, 58), they were represented fairly equally (approx. 80%) in each education group. An overwhelming majority (75%) reported an intermediate English proficiency level. Table 1 below lists the number of students in each education level who had and had not taken at least one TOEFL or TEPS test.

TABLE 1. TOEFL/TEPS Completion by Education Level

Education Level	TOEFL / TEPS TAKEN NO	YES	TOTAL
Middle School	(44) 68%	(21) 32%	(65) 100%
High School	(59) 71%	(24) 29%	(83) 100
University	(28) 52%	(26) 48%	(54) 100%
Total	(131) 65%	(71) 35%	(202) 100%

RESULTS

The primary variables under consideration for this paper were education level, TOEFL/TEPS completion, and the 20 questionnaire items based on four categories. The data were split by education group, and point-biserial correlation coefficients were then calculated for each of the 20 questionnaire items and whether respondents had completed one of the two high-stakes English tests (Yes/No). For the middle school (MS) group, 15/20 significant correlations ($p < .05$) were found, 4/20 were found for high school (HS) students, and none were found for university (UNI) students. Table 2 below lists all the questionnaire items along with their respective correlation coefficients. The middle school group was clearly more polarized around the grouping variable (TOEFL/TEPS completion) than the other groups.

A post-hoc reliability analysis for the MS groups revealed strong internal consistency for both categories, achieving Alpha scores of .814 for “assessment experiences” (10 items) and .825 for “learning experiences” (10 items). The internal consistency for both categories was far weaker for the HS and UNI groups, failing to surpass the .70 threshold. Therefore, the following analysis will focus on the middle school group data only.

TABLE 2. Correlations for Questionnaire Items and TOEFL/TEPS Completion

Questions	TOEFL / TEPS TAKEN (No/Yes)		
Assessment Experiences	**MS**	**HS**	**UNI**
I value the results of my English tests.	.533**	-.023	.202
English tests have made me feel discouraged about learning.	.517**	.080	.103
My score on English tests reflects my English ability.	.501**	.158	.035
I think the English tests I have taken so far are fair.	.453**	.218*	-.165
English tests allow students to see how well they are doing in English.	.348**	.176	-.167
Students deserve the score they receive on English tests.	.294*	-.197	-.094
Students should trust English test scores.	.286*	.248*	-.161
English tests do not predict English language ability in the future.	.262*	-.004	-.174
I must study harder in order to do well on English tests.	.195	-.208	-.087
I am the best judge of my English ability.	-.042	.008	-.039
Learning Experiences	**MS**	HS	**UNI**
I learn English because I enjoy it.	.579**	.305**	.190
I feel stressed when using English.	.512**	.086	.066
Students should be required to learn English.	.411**	-.043	.090
Studying English has had a positive effect on my learning experience.	.387**	-.030	.075
Universities and companies should value English ability.	.363**	.371**	.022
English tests are an important reason I study English.	.302*	.034	.099
It is important for Korean students to use English well.	.299*	.136	.125
Students must study English if they want to be successful.	.217	.139	-.231
English is important in Korea.	.041	.079	.041
I worry about my English test scores.	.030	-.030	-.098

Note. Negatively worded items (in italics) were transformed before analysis *p < .05, **p < .01

Assessment Experiences

Results from this category indicated that MS students who had completed a TOEFL or TEPS (hereafter, indicated as MS+) had far more positive attitudes and beliefs about assessment than MS students who had not completed one of these tests (hereafter, MS-). MS+ students were more likely to be encouraged by English tests and value their English test scores. They also held a stronger belief that these scores reflected their ability and predicted future success in English. They also reported more trust in English testing and expressed a stronger belief that they were fair and could be relied on as a measurement of progress. The MS+ and MS- groups appeared to polarize significantly in their assessment experiences when the group was separated based on TOEFL/TEPS completion.

Learning Experience

Results from this category indicated that MS+ students also had a more positive learning experience. They were more likely to report that they were learning English because they enjoyed it and that it was having a positive effect on them. They also felt more comfortable using English and were more motivated to learn English because of testing. They also expressed a stronger belief that Korean students should use English well, that is should be required, and that universities and companies should value English test scores. As with English assessment, MS students appeared to polarize in their attitudes, beliefs, and motivations towards English learning.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study suggest that middle school students are more intensely influenced by their assessment and learning environment and may have more dramatic reactions to a high-stakes testing environment. Younger ELLs who for a variety of reasons are able and/or permitted to do a high-stakes test may actually benefit from the experience. It may motivate their learning and promote feelings of accomplishment. This may engender more positive perceptions of proficiency and improve the overall learning experience. The converse may be true for those who are not able and/or permitted. This strength of this relationship may weaken in high school and practically disappear in university. Much more study is needed in order to reveal the representativeness of these findings and their possible causes.

Messick has informed us that the social consequences of test use are an integral part of test validity. This imposes a responsibility on test designers to properly consider the extended social effects of their tests, particularly when they are used for purposes other than intended. This becomes especially appropriate when there are financial rewards involved in the extended use. The concept of "effect-driven testing" advanced by Fulcher (2009) holds considerable promise. This concept places accountability for test designs where it is needed most, at its source, by inspiring test designers to align "explicit statements of intended test-effect to test design decisions through explicit validity arguments and test architectures" (p. 13). In this way, tests that are used for purposes other than they are intended would be forced to "retrofit their validity argument" (p. 13). This carries great potential to minimize negative test impact.

To this end, more explicit statements should be made by test designers beyond the "why, what, and how" of a test and begin to consider the "who." These statements should include: (a) the appropriate age to administer a particular language test, (b) potential effects on young ELLs when a test is used other than intended, and (c) follow up strategies to investigate consequential effects and continually improve test design and deployment. If one of our goals as parents, educators, curriculum developers, and as test designers and administrators is to develop an environment conducive to learning, it is necessary to better understand not only what a test is getting from young learners, but also what a test might be doing to them.

THE AUTHOR

John Haggerty *has completed his BA in Sociology at the University of Toronto. He has just completed his MA in Applied Linguistics at Carleton University in Ottawa, Canada. His MA dissertation explores the L2 motivational factors influencing young ELLs in Korea with a focus on the potential effects of high-stakes language testing. He has taught EFL in South Korea at various educational levels for the last decade with over five years experience teaching young learners. His research interests include high-stakes test validity, sociocultural theory, and identity formation. Email: john2teach@gmail.com*

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Testing the Four Language Skills in a University-wide Program

Neil Heffernan
Ehime National University, Matsuyama, Japan

Testing languages is a vital part of any university language program. However, actually putting together a comprehensive testing program that encompasses the four language skills is a challenging prospect. This paper describes just such an effort and the results gained from the program, which, as of 2010, is in its second year of operation at a medium-sized university in the Shikoku region of Japan. The university uses textbooks created by the faculty members for the students at our university (but also available on the general textbook market). Tests for the four skills were written, pilot-tested, recorded (in the case of the listening test), and administered to students. All of this was done in-house by three faculty members. Results show that the program has been extremely successful, with learners demonstrating the types of results expected from a criterion-referenced testing system.

INTRODUCTION

Language testing is an indispensable element of language teaching. It gives teachers, administrators, and those involved in language teaching information about how students should be placed in a course of study, how they are performing in this course of study, and how an actual language program is performing. Further, language tests give the learners themselves insight into how they are learning and progressing in a language program, and should provide beneficial feedback to everyone involved in a language program (Brown, 2004; Cohen, 1994; Hughes, 2003). Testing is necessary for “evaluation of student performance for purposes of comparison or selection” (Heaton, 1998, p. 6) and also highlights “strengths and weaknesses in the learned abilities of the students” (Henning, 1987, p. 1). Further, language tests can be invaluable in providing “sources of information about the effectiveness of learning and teaching” (Bachman, 1990, p. 3). Any language program that endeavors to be successful must have a consistent system of testing in place for everyone involved in the program: from the administrators to the teachers and students, and finally, to the community at large.

This paper will discuss the ramifications of language testing and how the decisions made at one Japanese national university greatly affected, and improved, student learning and teacher evaluation in the language classroom.

BACKGROUND

Two fundamental aspects of the testing process are reliability and validity, which should be strictly adhered toin order to make language tests useful and meaningful. In fact, is it not only possible for tests to be both authentic and reliable, but essential for tests to be both in order for our tests to be beneficial to all involved in the testing process. Brown (2004) sums the argument up best when he states:

> If in your language teaching you can attend to the practicality, reliability, and validity of tests of language . . . you are well on your way to making accurate judgments about the competence of the learners with whom you are working. (p. 27)

Therefore, it is essential that teachers create tests that are authentic (and thus valid) and at the same time reliable (Brown, 2004; Cohen, 1994). Indeed, it is of paramount importance that teachers do; our learners deserve to be given tests that will be an accurate judgment of their abilities and achievements, and our language programs deserve to be evaluated and scrutinized in a fair and impartial manner. All of these constructs are fundamental elements of test creation and are worthy of deep consideration by language test developers. For if the test developers can create tests that are reliable, authentic, and valid, and can overcome any threats to reliability and validity, they will be successful in creating valuable and meaningful tests for the learners with whom they work.

Measurement, Evaluation, and Testing

Any university-wide testing program must consider the following aspects of testing and exactly how each item relates to the students in the program. That is, teachers and administrators must consider measurement, evaluation, and tests.

First, measurement is the process of quantifying characteristics of a person in a systematic manner. Measurement includes tests and other naturalistic observations over time, such as observing learners during class and class interaction. Second, evaluation is the systematic gathering of information for the purpose of decision making. Evaluation can be viewed from many perspectives: before starting a language program, during program-delivery, and after a program has finished (Henning, 1987). The purpose of evaluation may be to ascertain learning gains, instructional delivery, the quality of materials used, the motivation of students, and how the learners are achieving the learning aims of the program (Henning, 1987). Evaluation is mainly concerned with collecting data on the dynamics and efficiency of a program in order to facilitate decision making (Jarvis & Adams, 1979) and is a vital part of teaching and learning. The evaluation of any language program provides information about the direction of classroom practice, the planning of courses, and the management of learning in the classroom (Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1992). The main purpose of evaluation is to determine if a program is effective. Making correct decisions is a function of the ability of the decision maker and the quality of the information. Evaluation is not necessarily testing and tests by themselves are not evaluation. Tests usually serve a pedagogical purpose: to motivate students and to review the materials covered in class. It is only when a test is used for decision making that it involves evaluation.

Finally, tests are a measurement instrument: a procedure designed to elicit certain behavior from which we can make inferences about certain characteristics (Bachman, 1990). The elicited behavior from tests can be interpreted as evidence of the attributes or abilities which are of interest to the instructor, who has designed the test based on the program's needs and content. Tests must follow procedures in order to be reliable, meaningful, and useful. According to Griffin (1995), a language assessment scale is a scale which depicts progress in learning. A profile is designed "to assist teachers, schools and systems with the complex process of assessment recording and reporting on students' developing competencies and achievements" (p. 1).

The testing program being described here is based on a set of criterion-reference tests that were created with program and student needs in mind. Criterion-referenced tests allow us to actually learn something about what the learners can do in the language from the results of the test (Hughes, 2003). They determine if learners have developed the specific skills and proficiencies identified in the program objectives (Richards, 1990). The purpose of criterion-referenced tests is to determine whether our learners are capable of performing a set of tasks satisfactorily (Hughes, 2003).

The language program described in this paper undertook a systematic approach to measurement, evaluation, and testing. All three were considered not only beneficial to our programs' needs, but indeed, they were essential. Administrators and teachers that do not seriously reflect on their language program are doing so at their own peril: it is by undertaking these measures that we can better serve the needs of our learners in the classroom.

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

Ehime University is a national university on Shikoku, an island in the southwest part of Japan. There are approximately 12,000 students enrolled across seven faculties. The English Education Center (EEC, where the program outlined here was conducted) teaches English to all seven faculties and is thus not a faculty in itself. Most of the classes taught by the EEC are first-year communication courses utilizing two of the four skills in each semester: speaking and listeningin the first semester, and reading and writing in the second. There are approximately 2,000 first-year students who enter the university every year. The faculty consists of eight permanent teachers and seven lecturers on a three-year contract. The author is a permanent member of the faculty.

In the spring of 2008, the permanent faculty members were tasked with creating an original textbook for each skill area. These textbooks would be published by one of the major publishers in Japan and used for an initial three-year period before either being revised or rewritten altogether. As of October 2010, all four textbooks have been written, pilot tested for one semester with all first-year students, revised and published on the Japanese textbook market for general sale. The authors of the textbooks do not receive any royalties from texts sold within Ehime University itself.

The author of this paper was involved with the creation of two of these textbooks: speaking and reading. All of the principal authors of the books (there were up to four authors on each textbook) had previous experience with publishing textbooks for the Japanese market, which made the process much smoother. Having materials created in-house was an enormous help when it came time to making tests for each text.

The learners at the EEC were motivated by a set of standards, given to them at the start of the year in each class. These standards were drawn up after a thorough evaluation of Ehime University's language teaching and learning process in 2007. As a result of this evaluation and subsequent research with 1,800 first-year students who were asked what they wanted and needed to learn from the English language, a "can-do list" for students was created. Benchmarks were created for each language skill, and the aforementioned textbooks were created with these "can-do" lists in mind.

With this knowledge in hand, the author, and one other permanent faculty member with extensive experience in testing languages, set about creating achievement tests for all four language skills the tests were based on the English language curriculum at Ehime University and the textbooks being used in each 15-week semester. The tests for listening and reading were deemed as easier to create than the speaking and writing tests. The inherent nature of multiple-choice tests lend themselves to test-makers and test-takers much more easily than the subjective nature of speaking and writing.

Each test was created with the textbooks for each class in mind. Each textbook had at least twelve units, with each unit utilizing a theme and vocabulary suited to first-year Japanese university students (JACET, 2009). The textbooks were created with the "can-do" lists in mind and covered topics such as introducing yourself to others, daily life, likes and dislikes, talking on the telephone, events that left an impression (speaking), understanding conversations on the telephone, making plans for everyday arrangements, understanding weather reports, using everyday complaints and requests (listening), the environment, different cultures, technology, traveling abroad (reading), and hometowns, stating one's opinion, introducing Japanese culture, and studying abroad (writing).

TESTS AND RESULTS

The listening test consisted of two forms of fifty multiple-choice questions based on the theme and vocabulary of each unit. The author, plus one more faculty member, created the test with the textbook's learning aims in mind (see Blight, Tanaka & McCarthy, 2010). The listening test questions were written and piloted with 951 first-year students in the spring of the 2009-10 academic year and then revised based on the results of this pilot version. There were two types of scripts on the recording: (a) short conversations between two people and (b) one announcement or lecture. Two questions followed the conversations, while three followed the announcement/lecture. After reviewing the pilot version of the test, the creators revised some test questions, distracters, and even some of the scripts on the listening test. They then had the scripts professionally recorded in a recording studio in Tokyo, Japan, with three professional voice actors. The listening test was then used in the spring semester of the 2010-11 academic year with 1,811 students and yielded favorable results. Figure 1 represents the second version of Form A of the test (n = 850), and the results indicated that a vast majority of the students garnered a score of at least 60% on the test (considered to be a "pass"). Indeed, a majority of scores are grouped around the 73% mark, which is clearly in line with what a criterion-referenced type of test calls for. On the other hand, Figure 2 demonstrates the results of the first version of Form B (n = 961), used for the first time in the spring of 2010. The majority of the scores are grouped around the 60% range, meaning this form needs to be revised so that it better reflects the curriculum and standards set out for the listening classes at Ehime University.

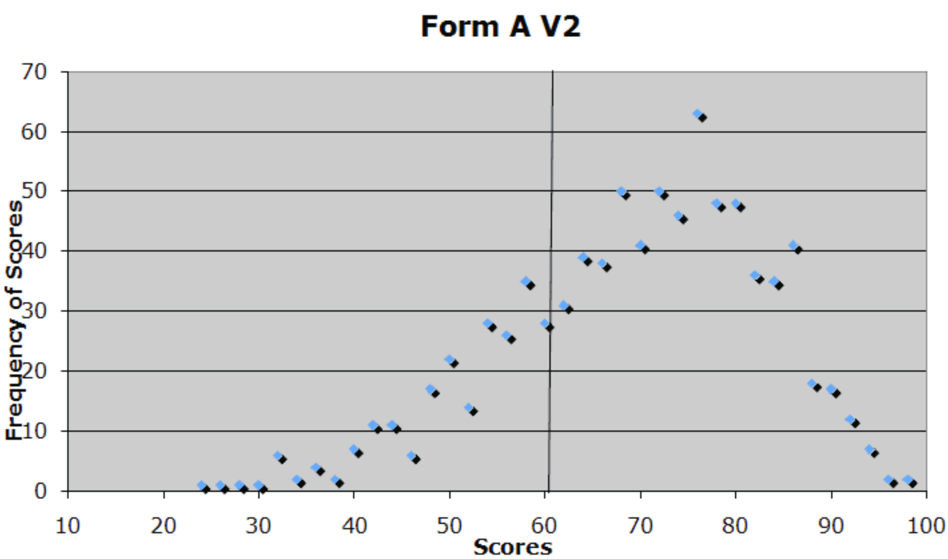

FIGURE 1. Version 2 of Form A of the listening test

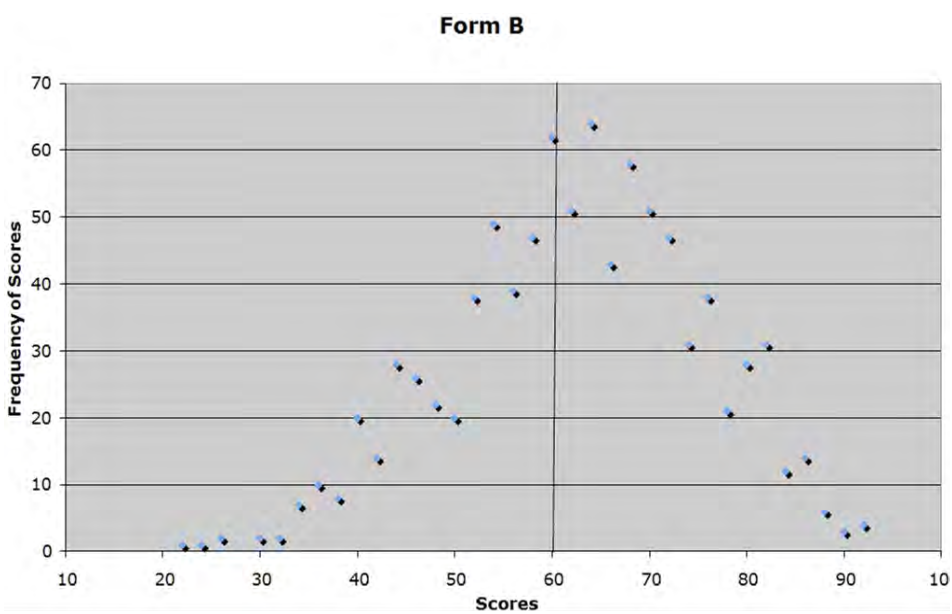

FIGURE 2. Version 1 of Form B of the listening test

The reading test consisted of three passages of 300-350 words followed by ten questions. The passages were based on similar themes to the ones used in the textbook (see Murphy, Heffernan & Hiromori, 2010). The test was administered to 1,251 students during the second semester of the 2009-10 academic year. On the pilot version of this test, 74% of the students recorded a score of 64% or higher. Seeing as this was a pilot test, it was deemed that the test needed some fairly substantial revisions for the 2010-11 academic year. These revisions have since been completed, and the test is ready for the upcoming academic year.

The speaking and writing tests provided more of a challenge to the test creation team. However, after a thorough examination of learner performance in the classroom, it was deemed necessary to create a test that best reflected the material in the textbooks for these classes. Thus, the creators of the tests set out to create rubrics that would reflect the goals of the textbooks and the writing and speaking skills the learners learned during the semester.

The speaking test was piloted in the spring of the 2010-11 academic year. A rubric was designed with the skills of the textbook in mind. The rubric for each was on a scale of 30-100 (30 being the lowest score for students who did the bare minimum and did not attempt to use the skills learned during the semester). For example, on the day of the speaking test, each instructor in the EEC provided students with a list of questions they should be prepared to discuss with a random partner (chosen by the instructor). The students would discuss the topic with their partners in front of the teacher for five minutes, all the while using the conventions outlined in the textbook for that class (see Stafford, Heffernan, Matsumoto & Nakayama, 2010). Students using these conventions (e.g., being able to introduce oneself, ask questions, give detailed answers, use listener expressions, take turns, and give opinions) would receive high marks on the test. The instructor would give each student a mark based on the rubric. Since this was a trial version of the speaking test, only four instructors chose to administer it to their classes. Thus, there were not enough students participants for the author to generalize about their results. However, from the 2011-12 academic year, it will be compulsory for all teachers in the EEC.

Similarly, the writing test employed a rubric on a scale of 30-100, and was piloted in the fall of the 2009-2010 academic year with 1,113 students. Students were asked to write one paragraph based on a theme covered in the textbook (see Stafford et al., 2009) and given to them on the test day. Students demonstrating a mastery of the skills in the textbook (e.g., writing a paragraph with an introduction, topic sentence, examples and support, and a conclusion) would receive a corresponding mark on the test. The results of this test demonstrated that the learners had a firm grasp of the material in the textbook (paragraph writing) as a vast majority of them (87%) received a grade of 60% or higher on the test.

While the writing and speaking tests were more problematic in grading and scrutinizing after the pilot tests, the creators feel they have made tests that reflect the needs of both the learners and the program for which they are designed. They have since made some revisions to the rubrics to reflect the results of the pilot test and are confident that these revisions will better serve the students when used in 2011-12.

DISCUSSION

Test results tell us what learners can do at any given time (Rea-Dickens & Germaine, 1992). However, what is more important to language teachers is how learners acquire the proficiency they demonstrated on tests. Language teachers are concerned with the process that leads up to successful, or unsuccessful, learning. What happens in the language classroom clearly affects the results on the tests learners take. Yet, what happens before teachers see their students in the classroom can just as easily affect the results seen at the end of a semester. That is, everything from the materials chosen to the way they are implemented in the classroom will have an effect on what learners can do in the classroom.

The program described in this paper took a grassroots approach to language teaching and learning: asking students what they needed and wanted from English language learning, implementing an initiative to create original materials for each of the four language skills based on these needs and wants, using these materials in the classroom, and then writing tests that were based on the textbooks. While such an approach may not work for every program, it works for the one described here precisely because of the thorough evaluation conducted on the students and the program itself.

CONCLUSION

The program outlined in this paper is still in its infancy: the test for each language skill has been piloted once, while only the listening test has been put into regular use at the university in question. However, each pilot study utilized large samples and yielded positive results. The results of these pilot studies indicate that the beta versions of the tests definitely tested what the students learned in the four skill classes they took during the 2009-10 and 2010-11 academic years. The tests were based on extensive research done at Ehime University, with Ehime University students and their specific needs in mind. A comprehensive needs analysis is necessary before starting any course of language testing (Bachman, 1990; Brown, 2004; Heaton, 1988; Hughes, 2003), and that is exactly what occurred at Ehime University.

While the process of assessing the needs of a language program, devising a plan of action, producing original textbooks, creating tests, piloting the tests, revising them, and finally putting them into action is by no means an easy task. It is, however, a venture that is incredibly rewarding for the teachers involved. Further, and perhaps most importantly, setting up this type of program is without doubt the best thing for those teachers' learners. The project described in this paper started in the spring of 2008 and is only now starting to show positive results: learners demonstrating the knowledge and skills they have learned in class with the textbooks created with their needs in mind, and later manifested through their test results at the end of each semester.

By the end of the 2010-11 academic year, this program will have reached the end of phase one. Namely, each of the four language skills will have an in-house produced textbook with a final test to accompany it. What will follow is a three-year trial period for each of the textbooks (from the date of their original usage). The authors of each textbook will then re-assess the needs of the university's learners in order to decide whether to create new textbooks or continue using the ones currently in use. If the latter option is chosen, the authors will renegotiate with the publishers of their textbook for another three-year period. If the former is chosen, the process described above will start all over again. While this may seem like an inordinate amount of work, it is certainly a worthwhile goal for both the teachers at Ehime University and the learners who will reap the rewards of this hard work.

THE AUTHOR

Neil Heffernan *is an Associate Professor at Ehime National University, Japan. He has taught in Japan since 1995. His research interests include CALL and language testing. Email: heffernan@eec.ehime-u.ac.jp*

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Embracing Product and Process in a Task-Based Approach to Teaching Writing

Grace H. Wang
Yonsei University, Seoul, Korea

Brian Rasmussen
Fukuoka Women's University, Fukuoka, Japan

Approaches to teaching writing have often been categorized as either product-oriented or process-oriented. Alternatively, they may be classified as: (a) text-focused, (b) writer-focused, or (c) reader-focused. Most commonly, teachers will employ a blend of these approaches in their practice of teaching writing, aiming for both product and process. The final assessment of students' work, however, will usually tend to focus on the product rather than the process. This tendency is understandable given the general nebulousness of the matter of assessing a student's work for the process by which the student has arrived at his/her final product. This paper describes a marriage of product and process in a task-based approach to teaching writing where both the teaching and assessment of writing are usefully accommodated. That is, the students are taught on all aspects of the writing process, from the analysis of the reader to the production of their final draft, and assessed on the same.

INTRODUCTION

Approaches to teaching writing are often viewed as either product-oriented or process-oriented. Most commonly, teachers will employ a blend of these orientations in their practice of teaching writing. The final assessment of students' work, however, will usually tend to focus on the product rather than the process, if for no other reason than the lack of neat rubrics by which to assess students for the process by which they arrived at their final product.

Ultimately, however, the ideal approach to teaching writing is one in which the students are taught and assessed on all aspects of the writing process, from the analysis of the reader to the production of their final draft, through a thorough "marriage" of the two orientations, product and process. A solid approach to teaching writing needs to be both product- and process-oriented. The purpose of this workshop is to explain how that may be accomplished within a task-based approach to writing instruction.

PRODUCT-ORIENTED WRITING INSTRUCTION

Theoretical Assumptions

The first theoretical assumption behind the product-oriented approach to writing instruction is that texts are autonomous objects. As objects, they may be examined, analyzed, and described independently of any particular context, writers, or readers. We may judge a text without concern for its purpose, producer, or consumer, based on the accepted definition of a text. However, it is our nature to judge objects further, yet still out of context. We apply this analysis to texts, recognizing their genre, and judging them by their “accuracy,” or how well they fit the definition of the genre. Even “bad” texts can be identified and judged to be ineffectual in their current state. The goal of writing under this assumption is to produce an “accurate” text.

The main problem with this assumption is that all writing in real contexts also takes into account the degree of background and knowledge that the writer can assume to be sharing with the reader. The writer produces the text in a context. In this context, the writer considers the needs of the reader. The writer then draws on his/her background knowledge and experience to produce a text that will meet the reader’s needs in that context. This means that texts are not autonomous, or objects, as they cannot stand alone, divorced from the considerations of context and audience. When we judge a text, even the appropriateness of the text organizational patterns chosen must be weighed against the dictates of the context and the needs of the reader. Thus, the goal of writing is for students to produce an "accurate" text in context, while satisfying the needs of the reader and the dictates of the genre.

This brings us to the second assumption of product-oriented writing instruction: texts are rhetorical. Under this assumption, texts fulfill a communicative purpose, especially within a particular discourse community. This has led to the genre approach to writing instruction, in which the goal of writing is to produce a text that is recognizable as belonging to a particular genre. The term “genre” is most commonly used to classify discourse and literary works. It is also used to distinguish between categories of composition, based on a loose set of criteria. Examples of genres using this secondary definition would be “newspaper article,” “instructions for doing something,” “romance novel,” and “comparison/contrast essay.” Each of these genres has its own set of standards of composition that sets it apart from others in meeting the needs of the reader.

In applied linguistics, genres are abstract, not defined in absolutes, as shown by “mixed” genres like “romantic comedy,” “detective thriller,” and “opinion editorial.” However, they are socially recognized ways of using language, in that consumers generally know what to expect in each, and the rhetorical methods used. A good example in research paper writing is Swales’ (1990, p. 141) CARS (Create A Research Space) model. Swales found that in the introductions of research papers there were three consistent, recognizable moves that established the genre.

TABLE 1. Swales' CARS Model

Move 1: Establishing a Territory		
Step 1	Claiming Centrality	*Recently, there has been wide interest in …*
Step 2	Making Topic Generalizations	*A standard procedure for assessing has been …*
Step 3	Reviewing Items of Previous Research	Verbs like *show, demonstrate, establish*
Move 2: Establishing a Niche		
Step 1a	Counter-claiming	Negative or quasi negative quantifiers *(no, little);* Lexical negation (verbs like *fail* or *lack*, adjectives like *misleading*); negation in the verb phrase, questions, expressed needs/desires/interests (*The differences need to be analysed*), logical conclusions, contrastive comments and problem-raising
Step 1b	Indicating a gap	
Step 1c	Question-raising	
Step 1d	Continuing a tradition	
Move 3: Occupying a Niche		
Step 1a	Outlining purposes	*This, the present, we, reported, here, now, I, herein*
Step 1b	Announcing present research	
Step 1c	Announcing principal findings	*The purpose of this investigation is to …*
Step 1d	Indicating RA structure	*The paper is structured as follows …*

Under this assumption, the goal of writing instruction is to ensure that students understand, and can produce, the features of genres. There are two problems with this approach. The first is that not all real-world writing can be neatly classified into genres. The second, more importantly, is that this approach is still text-oriented. The focus of the teaching is on the text features of genres, and the assessment is based on how well these features are shown in the final product.

PROCESS-ORIENTED WRITING INSTRUCTION

Theoretical Assumption

The main theoretical assumption is predicated on the idea that good writing involves understanding what good writers do. This includes everything from idea generation to writing the final draft. While good writers generally follow a predictable path, what happens along the way is not proscribed. Process-oriented approaches see writing as a "non-linear and exploratory process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas during the time that it takes to arrive at the final product" (Zamel, 1983, p. 165). Here, writing is seen in the same way as an artist who creates a drawing, first by selecting the subject, then the medium, the perspective, and then making some preliminary sketches. At any point, the artist may decide to change any of these, or none of them. As he/she fills in the details, the artist may erase this line, redraw that one, constantly evaluating and adjusting as necessary until the drawing is finished and fixed.

The most influential representation of this cognitive view in the writing process is the Flower and Hayes (1981) model (Figure 1).

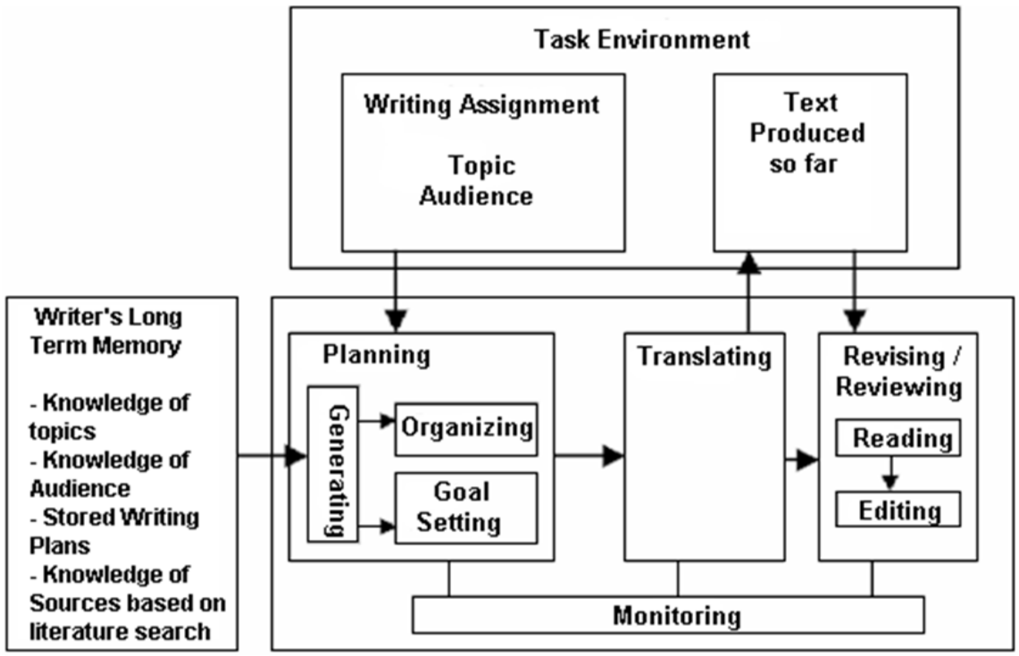

FIGURE 1. The Cognitive Process Model of the composing process

The flow of the diagram is as follows:

1. The writing process begins with a writing task that needs to be completed, focused upon a particular topic,and geared to a particular audience.
2. The planning stage begins, where the writer further defines the rhetorical problem and explores it. The proficient writer may also set the goals and purposes of his/her writing at this time.
3. Ideas relating to the problem are then translated on the page.
4. All work can be reviewed and revised before the final product is produced. The planning, drafting, and revising are seen as recursive, interactive, and potentially simultaneous acts.
5. The whole process is monitored within the mind of the writer, which remains in a constant and active state of thinking and decision making throughout the process.

It should be noted that this model explicitly situates the writing task within a particular task environment. This influences the process of writing, along with what the writer already knows about the topic and the audience, stored in long-term memory.

In a process-oriented writing model, the primary goal of writing is not as much about producing a text that adheres to certain formal features and constructions as it is about taking a writer through a thinking process that culminates in the communication of the results of that thinking process. Therefore, the goal of writing instruction becomes teaching the recursive thinking and writing process whereby good writers begin with the writing task at hand, progress through the planning stages, and arrive at a final product that ultimately fulfills the writing task. Unfortunately, that process is challenging to evaluate or assess, and although we may teach the process used by good writers, we often end up evaluating the product, as though it were produced in a product-oriented writing environment.

PRODUCT- PLUS PROCESS-ORIENTED WRITING INSTRUCTION

You Got Your Chocolate in My Peanut Butter!

Although these two approaches may seem dichotomous, there is no reason why they cannot be combined in a single approach. Most writing instructors already combine elements of both in instruction. We would, indeed, be remiss if we did not teach our students the ways of good writers if we are to demand good writing from them. We would also do them disservice if we did not teach them the technical aspects of the genres we require them to produce. The problem comes with assessment. As teachers, we are bound to systems that require us to evaluate our students' relative success or failure as measured against some standard. While it is relatively easy to assess student writing against the standards required for a particular genre, it can be inversely difficult to assess the "invisible" thinking process that goes into the finished product. We argue that both product and process can be assessed. We offer one method, a task-based method to accomplish this.

Task-Based Writing Instruction: iEnglish College

The *iEnglish College: Reading and Writing* course book by Wang and Wang (2010; hereafter, "W&W") brings together both the process-oriented and product-oriented approaches to writing instruction.

There are three meta-tasks in the textbook. The first is focused on sentence writing, the second on paragraphs, and the third on writing essays. Each meta-task contains a task sheet, which contains the task procedures, and the supplements for completing the task. Each meta-task builds sequentially on the previous one, with lots of recycling and reinforcement of what has been learned in the previous tasks. Each task is also sequential, with a pre-task, task, and post-task. The pre-task activates schema, and raises awareness of the topic. The writing part of the task is a series of activities that build on the writing process, and result in written products. The post-task is a reflective exercise in which students analyze what they have learned, and where they can improve. The first meta-task on sentence building is introductory, so we will look at the second meta-task, *Task 2: Biographies and Autobiographies*, to illustrate the principles of both product- and process-oriented writing instruction in operation.

Task 2 Pre-task

The topic for this task is biographies and autobiographies; therefore, the pre-task involves a game to activate the students' imaginations on why people are famous. This is followed by instruction in two very important skills for reading and writing, the KWL reading strategy, and mind mapping.

Task 2, Part 1: Reading

The readings for the W&W textbook are content-based. This means that the students are not only learning how to manage academic texts, they are also learning about academic writing. In this case, they apply the reading strategies learned from the KWL and mind mapping supplements (1 & 3; pp. 12, 14-15) to read and learn about the academic writing process and the logical division of paragraphs, both important skills when moving from sentence production to paragraphs. They then are asked to apply the reading strategies to read the supplement of Benjamin Franklin's biography. The students then use the Internet to research the biography of a person of interest to them, and apply the KWL and mind mapping strategies to their research. At this time, they have been made aware of biographies, learned and applied strategies to help them read and write well, and done research and organized the results of the research. They are now ready to write.

Task 2, Part 2: Writing

In this part of the main task, we will assess both the process and the product of writing. This begins with incorporating the material learned in the pre-task and Part 1 tasks: autobiographies and Supplement 4 (the writing process; W&W, pp. 16-17). The main task is to write an autobiographical paragraph in which the student's name does not appear anywhere. There are six steps in this task, all drawn from supplements to the task. We will look at these steps in turn.

Follow Step 1 of the academic writing process (Supplement 4), and analyze your audience and purpose for writing. Answer the questions:

- Who will be reading what I write and why? That is, who is/are my audience and what do they want to get from my writing?
- What thoughts, ideas or message do I want to share with the audience by my writing? That is, what is my purpose for writing?
- Based on this understanding of my audience and purpose, what and how I should write? (W&W, p. 16)

In this step, the students are asked to apply what they learned in Supplement 4 on the academic writing process.

> Using your answers to the questions in Step 1 to guide you, complete Step 2 of the academic writing process and brainstorm all of the information and ideas that you could include in your paragraph or essay. (W&W, p. 16)

Students continue to apply the academic writing process as explained in

Supplement 4 using the brainstorming technique they are most comfortable with, for example, listing, mind mapping, free writing, etc.

> Follow Step 4 of the academic writing process (Supplement 4) and write your first draft. Remember not to include your name in the writing. See the examples in Supplements 10 and 11 (pp. 23, 24). (W&W, p. 16)

While this step results in a product, it is not the final product for evaluation. There are process steps that come before the final draft, and these will be assessed rather than the product at this point.

> Follow Step 5 of the academic writing process (Supplement 4) and complete the *Self-Revision Checklist* (Supplement 8, p. 22). Then, based on your responses, write an *improved* second draft of the paragraph or essay. Hand in also a list of the changes that you made to the first draft; a part of the grade for this assignment will depend on the quality of improvements you have made. (W&W, p. 16)

This is the step in which the students are first held accountable for the process of writing. They must complete the checklist in Supplement 8, and critically analyze their work to this point. As a part of their grade for this paragraph is anchored to this step, they must apply all of their vocabulary, grammatical, and stylistic knowledge to assess their own work and make improvements. This is a step that is not normally stressed in ESL writing. It produces documented process evidence in the before-evaluation work, the evaluation sheet, and the after evaluation work.

> Follow Step 6 of the academic writing process (Supplement 4) and complete the *Peer-Revision Checklist* (Supplement 9, p. 23) for your partner's draft. Then, share your feedback with your partner, and receive feedback on your writing from your partner. (W&W, p. 17)

Now the students are asked to evaluate their partner's second draft with the same attention to detail that they applied to their own in Step 4. A major change is that the student must decide if the writing is interesting or not (relating to the KWL process). They then give this feedback to their partner. This is an important step because if students know the evaluation criteria they must apply, they realize it will also be applied to their own writing, and they therefore are more likely to produce a paragraph that will stand up to scrutiny. By honestly analyzing their peers' paragraphs, they help their peers and themselves become better writers. Again, we have process evidence in the second draft, peer review, and rewrite steps.

> Using your partner's feedback to help you, write an *improved* final draft. Before submitting it, follow Step 7 of the academic writing process (Supplement 4) and proofread your work for any last-minute corrections. Hand in also a list of the changes that you made to the second draft; a part of the grade for this assignment will depend on the quality of improvements you have made. (W&W, p. 17)

This is the final step, which results in the finished product, the final draft. While the final draft is the product that is assessed, the students must also show process evidence for assessment in the listing of changes made, based on peer feedback and their own final self-analysis.

Task 2 Post-task

The post-task activities involve, first, a critique or comment by each student on the writing of all other students. This takes place on an online discussion board created for the class. Second, the students must complete their Writing Progress Journal, a self-analysis of the errors and lessons learned in this writing process. By following up with these post-tasks, the students must take a critical look at both the product they produce, compare it to their main task Step 1 goals, and reflect on their experience with the writing process.

DISCUSSION

We have shown that in the specific context of our course, the marriage of product- and process-oriented writing instruction is not only possible but also successful. Starting with the pre-task to activate schema, and introduce the topic, plus giving the students tools to use for better academic reading and writing, we have set the stage for the main task. In Part 1 of the main task, the students start to apply the tools learned in the pre-task, and also learn about the process of writing well through content-based academic reading. These tools are also applied to reading an example of, and using the tools with, a reading that reflects the topic and serves as an example of what they will produce in the writing task. In the main task, Part 2: Writing, the students apply the process learned in Part 1 to produce a paragraph based on the topic. In Part 2, there are several steps in which the students are evaluated on their application of the process, both from self-review and peer-review. The final step in Part 2 yields the final product for assessment, in addition to the final pieces for process assessment. The post-task elicits peer commentary of the final product, and a self-review of the process.

We do not advocate that our approach is the only one. We offer the *iEnglish College: Reading and Writing* textbook as an example that others may use, adapt, or add to to fit their specific teaching situation and style. While student-centered, task-based teaching is not for everyone, we hope it inspires you to create your own marriage of process- and product-oriented writing instruction and assessment.

THE AUTHORS

Grace H. Wang *is a professor of College English at Yonsei University, Seoul. She holds an MA TEFL/TESL from the University of Birmingham, U.K. and has taught at the United Nations and top universities in Korea and Thailand. She is a designer of task-based curricula and textbooks, and the author of the iEnglish 200s grammar workbook series for English for Academic Purpose learners. She has also authored the task-based course book* iEnglish College: Reading and Writing, Level 3*, which is available as a free PDF*

download at http://ienglishR.org Email: ghwang97@gmail.com

***Brian Rasmussen** is currently a professor of College English at Yonsei University in Seoul and has been teaching English since 2001. He earned a Master's of Science in Education from Temple University. He has published journal articles in the* Temple University Japan Journal of Applied Linguistics. *Email: brianrr4305@gmail.com*

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Classroom Management

Team Teaching in Public Schools in Korea: Some Principles, Practices, and Ideas

Tim Dalby
Korea University, Seoul, Korea

The idea of team teaching is becoming more popular in many parts of the world, especially in the public school systems of Asia. Having a fluent English speaker working alongside a trained public school teacher should enable them to combine their strengths and so enhance the learning experience for students. In this paper, I focus on the issues faced by native and non-native teachers here in Korea. I begin by examining and defining different types of team teaching, and then discuss some of the problems teachers have encountered in their experiences so far. Some potential solutions, including some successful examples of team teaching in Korea and abroad, are also offered. Finally, I take a look at the cultural aspects of team teaching and how to make a better accommodation between all players on the team.

INTRODUCTION

Team teaching is a very common phenomenon in many parts of the world and especially in the public school systems of Asia. The logic of having a fluent English speaker working alongside a trained public school teacher is to combine the strengths of each individual and so enhance the learning experience for students. However, there are ideological issues, such as “linguistic imperialism” (Canagarajah, 1999; Phillipson, 1992), which is when a foreign language displaces the native language in a country, the furthering of “western” interests (Pennycook, 1998), and the myth of the superiority of the native speaker (Cook, 1999). These issues can distract from the well-intentioned ideals of programs such as EPIK (in Korea), JET (in Japan), and PNET (in Hong Kong) and won’t be discussed in great detail.

Instead, this paper will focus on everyday issues faced by teachers here in Korea. I will begin by examining and defining different types of team teaching. Then, I will discuss some of the problems teachers have encountered in their experiences so far and look for solutions including some successful examples of team teaching in Korea and abroad. Finally, I will take a look at the cultural aspects of team teaching and how to make a better accommodation between all players in the team. For ease of reading, I will use NEST (Native English-Speaking Teachers) to describe English Teachers from a western, English-speaking country and KET to describe Korean English Teachers.

Types of Team Teaching

Before any serious discussion can begin, it is first important to understand what is meant by “team teaching.” How many teachers make up a “team,” and how does that team then "teach"? Having spoken with many NESTs and KETs during team teaching workshops throughout Korea, the general view is of two teachers working together in the same classroom. However, there is a wider scope to team teaching than this, especially when using a broad definition, such as used by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Sports and Culture, (1994, p. 14):

> Any time two or more teachers work together to guide an individual learner or group of learners toward a set of aims or objectives, that type of teaching can be called team teaching.

When reviewing the literature, there are two broad types of team teaching. According to Goetz (2000). These are:

Type A: Where both instructors are teaching the same students in the same classroom.

Type B: Where both instructors work together, but not necessarily at the same time or with the same students.

Within the Type A category there are six different models that have been identified by Maroney (1995) and Robinson and Schaible (1995). These are:

- **Traditional Team Teaching**: Here teachers teach the content and skills of a lesson together in an active way. While one is presenting, the other might be drawing a diagram to explain the idea.
- **Collaborative Teaching**: In a more academic situation, this is where the instructors design the course together and then work together in the classroom by exchanging ideas and discussing issues in front of the learners.
- **Complimentary/Supportive Team Teaching**: In this case, there is a lead teacher that is responsible for the main content of the lesson, with the secondary teacher providing follow-up activities.
- **Parallel Instruction**: The class is divided into groups and each instructor delivers the same lesson to each group. This is great for small project work.
- **Differentiated Split Class**: Similar to Parallel Instruction, except that the groups are taught different materials according to level. For example, one group with higher-level English could work with a NEST on a conversation, while a lower-level group could work with the KET on simple phrases.
- **Monitoring Teacher**: Here one teacher is the lead teacher, while the other checks students’ understanding (Goetz, 2000).

In the Type B category of team teaching, Goetz identifies four main methods. They are summarized below:

- **Team members meet to share ideas and resources but function independently**: For example, teachers may meet to talk about the learning

goals for the week and which classes each will teach. At these meetings, teachers can share ideas, swap resources, and agree on the amount of progress that classes should/will make.
- **Teams of teachers sharing a common resource center**: Here teachers are fairly independent but share resources, coursebooks, and ideas.
- **Single Management Model**: One person plans the course of instruction, and the team members are expected to follow it. Unfortunately, the full benefits of team teaching are not realized as only one person's ideas are being used.
- **Specialized Skills Teaching**: This is the case when a team of teachers divides a course into specialized skill areas. Then each instructor takes a group of students and teaches one skill before rotating to the next group and starting again. An example of this would be for a NEST to teach the same set of vocabulary (and the corresponding activities) to different classes over the course of a week (Goetz, 2000),

PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH TEAM TEACHING

While many NESTs and KETs have voiced specific concerns during my workshop sessions held in several areas of Korea between 2008 and 2010, they usually fall into the following categories:

- **Cultural** - There is a lack of respect for or understanding of each other's culture leading to a "cultural breakdown" (Kwon, 2000).
- **Language** - There is a lack of competence in each other's languages leading to a "communication breakdown" (Moote, 2003).
- **Lack of administrative support** - There isn't enough time or there aren't enough resources available to plan lessons effectively.
- **Lack of training** - In terms of how to use a NEST effectively and the untrained nature of many NESTs who work in Korea.
- **Lack of choice** - In terms of who the co-teachers are and what teachers are able to teach.

Some Ideas and Some Successes

Nunan (1992) argues that for team teaching to be successful, three factors must be present. These are:

- Teachers possess or are supported to develop the skills they need
- Teachers have the time to implement team teaching
- Teachers receive appropriate administrative support

Both NESTs, and KETs have some influence over at least two of these factors. NESTs, who are relatively well-paid employees in this country, need to demonstrate professionalism. They have many professional development opportunities available to them, both on-line, through EPIK, and through KOTESOL (see www.koreatesol.org). It is also up to the NESTs to learn about the culture that they are in and be a good house guest by being respectful of local customs and traditions - even when they are frustrating and appear unfathomable. “Western” ways are just as strange when viewed from the outside - though it must be pointed out that “western” culture is far from homogenous.

KETs may see NESTs as over-paid and under-qualified, but many are very keen to try and do a good job. It is important to remember that they are many miles away from home - some for the first time in their lives - and they are struggling to adapt to the very different culture that exists here. They need support to do the best job they possibly can. Overcoming a bad experience with a previous NEST can be a struggle, but the next assignment may be much better - or certainly willing to learn. In addition, KETs need to ensure that they are aware of how to get the most out of a NEST. It is important that they are not treated merely as a human tape recorder. They are capable of so much more.

The second factor both sets of teachers have some control over is time. It is important to spend an appropriate amount of time on lesson planning so that during the lesson they are prepared and professional. Many Koreans hold a very dim view of NESTs because they are poorly trained and poorly prepared for class - yet they earn a very good wage. Good preparation by NESTs will earn respect and help to overcome these negative stereotypes that have managed to build up over many years. At the same time, many NESTs complain that they never see their co-teacher and never have an opportunity for discussion. It seems that these two things are connected.

It may not always be the case, but if teachers in a team can look after the first two factors, they may find that the third starts to happen, too. If NESTs and KETs can start to show some mutual respect, then trust will develop which leads to support and a better experience for both sides.

An example of successful team teaching in Korea (Carless, 2006) has the following characteristics:

- The teachers meet at least once a week
- They take turns to bring/prepare suitable materials
- They try to integrate the lessons into the regular curriculum
- They both share the teaching in class
- The KET uses English
- They agree on a “no Korean” rule
- The NEST uses teaching methods that fit the culture, although she doesn’t necessarily agree that they are always the most beneficial.
- The NEST successfully attempts to foster good social relations both at work and outside work.

This is a good example of how team teaching should work, and something to work towards if a situation is less than perfect. As teachers, we will always have difficult co-workers, whether in this country or another. Things may not improve quickly, but if teachers do not try, they will not improve at all.

ESSENTIAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN KOREAN AND "WESTERN" CULTURE

One of the biggest difficulties faced by both KETs and NESTs is the culture gap between Korea and the western, English-speaking countries from which NESTs originate. One writer has this to say about Korea:

> . . . few of the world's peoples live in a nation with no significant ethnic, racial, or linguistic difference; Korea is indeed one of the most homogenous nations on earth, where ethnicity and nationality coincide. (Cumings, 2005, p. 25)

On the other hand, western, English-speaking countries are multicultural, multiethnic nations with heterogeneous populations. These differences show up in a benchmark study undertaken by Hofstede in the 1970s. Although his study has been criticized, it is, according to Mead, the best and most comprehensive available (cited in Santos 2007, B16). In making a comparison though, it is important to understand that the character traits are not "facts" that describe every individual in a given society. For example, it is important to understand that not all Koreans subscribe to Confucian rules (Kim 2002, p. 3). Hofstede's results are summarized in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1. A Comparison of Scores Between Korea and Western, English-Speaking Countries (Hofstede, 2003)

Index / Country	PDI		IDV		MAS		UAI	
	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score
Korea	27/28	60	43	18	41	39	16/17	85
Australia	41	36	2	90	16	61	37	51
Canada	39	39	4/5	80	24	52	41/42	48
Great Britain	42/44	35	3	89	9/10	66	47/48	35
USA	38	40	1	91	15	62	43	46

Taking the study at face value, it shows major differences, and therefore potential areas of conflict, between Korean and western cultures. PDI represents the power-distance relationship; how much people will tolerate an inequality in power and the amount of dependence versus independence (Santos 2007, B8). In this case, Koreans tend to accept those in powerful positions with little question more than people from western countries do. IDV is the amount of individuality a person shows in a relationship with a group. Koreans tend towards a more collectivist approach favoring group achievements over individual ones. The opposite is true of western countries. MAS shows the level of differentiation between the roles of men and women in society. Koreans place a heavy emphasis on caring, conservation, and protection. According to the study, western countries can be said to make a clear, and probably traditional, distinction between male and female roles (Hofstede, 2003, pp. 82-85). Finally, UAI shows how much a person will deal with uncertainty. In this comparison, Koreans place high value in the rituals and routines developed to reduce uncertainty, whereas in the other countries, people are more inclined to deal with variation in individual encounters. In all measures, it can be seen that Korean culture, when compared to those of the westerners, is generally at the other end of each given scale. In Table 2 below, the distinction is made clearer.

TABLE 2. The "Essential" Elements of Korean and Inner-Circle Culture

Hofstede	Korea	Western
PDI	Little questioning of authority	Will not accept authority at face value
IDV	Collectivist	Individualistic
MAS	Feminine	Masculine
UAI	Avoid uncertainty	Relish uncertainty

Having a basic understanding, awareness, and respect of each other's culture is an essential step that both KETs and NESTs need to take if the issues swirling around current team teaching practices here in Korea are to be resolved. Mutual respect and understanding are the basis of a good working relationship, which is what many teachers desire most. Once this can be achieved, not only will KETs and NESTs be stronger by working together, but Korean public school students will benefit from the combined strengths of each teacher in the team, which is the idea of team teaching in the first place.

THE AUTHOR

Tim Dalby *holds an MA (with distinction) in English Language Teaching from The University of Reading in the UK. Originally from Portsmouth, England, Tim has been teaching English since the summer of 2000. He has taught in Korea, New Zealand, and the Czech Republic in a variety of contexts including business English, general English, EAP, FCE, CAE, IELTS, TOEIC, and TOEFL. He has been a head teacher and a teacher trainer, and was Korea TESOL's National 1st Vice-President in 2008-09. He teaches at Korea University in Seoul. Email: professor.tim.dalby@gmail.com*

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Hygiene Resources: Responding to Student Embarrassment in the EFL Classroom

Will Lingle
Tongmyong University, Busan, Korea

In EFL classrooms, a mismatched situation involving a class of low-level learners studying a too-difficult textbook is a common problem. When unable to change the required textbook, the teacher is left to find a way to respond to the inability of the students to perform at the assigned level. Typically, a teacher will employ various strategies to reduce the demands of the class to a level that the students can handle. Examples of these strategies are documented in Korean private school EFL classes. Negative effects of these strategies are discussed, and alternative responses to this type of mismatched situation are proposed.

INTRODUCTION

The situation of a teacher faced with students' uncertain pauses or blank looks of incomprehension is an undesirable one, but one all teachers must find a way to resolve. A foreign language teacher (in an L2-medium class) is under perhaps an extra burden to resolve the situation smoothly, as student understanding of the L2 is required for the class to function on even the most basic level. Whether the students are young children or adults, beginners or advanced, they are always vulnerable to embarrassment at failing to produce the desired language in an acceptable manner. Six behaviors leading to this embarrassment were identified by Mackay (1993), along with twelve "hygiene resources" used by teachers to mitigate that embarrassment. (Mackay, 1993, p. 35) This paper presents examples of Mackay's hygiene resources, as observed by the author, and examines the conditions leading to their use in the classroom.

At this point, a question is raised; namely, how relevant is the idea of hygiene resources to the English teacher, and how well does Mackay's description reflect teaching practices in other situations? The observations here were gathered from the author's experience teaching English to children ages 5-13 in English-medium private language schools in Korea. The embarrassment described by Mackay is caused by student error: basically, the inability or failure to produce correct and timely responses in the classroom. What potential negative effects of these hygiene resources are there, and what error correction techniques might offer better solutions to student embarrassment? A brief look at the literature on error correction shows that attitudes to error correction differ among students and teachers, different cultural groups, and even between professed desires and actual practice. Possible approaches to student embarrassment that avoid resort to hygiene resources are presented in the Appendix.

THE LITERATURE

Error Correction and Student Attitudes

When confronted with a class that cannot function at the assigned level, one solution is simply to require less of the students. This is done, Mackay suggests, by gradually replacing difficult tasks with less demanding ones, in a process he calls *reduction* (Mackay,1993). Hygiene resources are the methods used to bring about that reduction in the demands of the lesson. The term *hygiene* refers to the use of these techniques to "'clean up' classroom embarrassment" (Mackay, 1993, p. 35). The hygiene resources that Mackay lists are as follows:

1. Reasoning aloud for the students
2. Vicarious dialogue
3. Academic palliatives
4. Substitution
5. Expansion of minimal responses
6. Question reduction
7. Rapid reading
8. Fill-in-the-slot worksheets
9. Verbatim copying
10. Dictation of notes
11. Reading aloud
12. Oral composition with the whole class

(Mackay, 1993, p. 35)

These strategies aim at reducing student embarrassment by lowering the demands of the lesson. This is not a form of error correction, but of error avoidance. Faced with a mismatch between (low) student abilities and (high) class demands, the teacher limits the opportunity for error with lowered expectations. Various institutional factors (discussed below) can create situations that increase student error, and thus embarrassment and frustration, increasing the need to resort to Mackay's hygiene resources. Mackay describes these techniques as simply camouflaging substandard performance and as possible contributors to student failure (Mackay, 1993).

The effects of various error correction strategies on second language acquisition and student motivation are the subject of much debate. Considering the statements that "students seem to be generally opposed to the idea that they are 'allowed' to make mistakes" (Plonsky & Mills, 2006, p. 57) and that "teacher feedback is of vital importance in the learning process" (McGarry, 2004, p. 74), a teacher is led to approach the task of error correction with some urgency. Students' anxiety at making mistakes can contribute to their embarrassment, leading to teachers' increased use of hygiene resources to avoid student error. This leads to confusion, though, when considering the findings of Ferris and Roberts (2001). In a comparative study of writing errors, students preferred to receive more explicit error corrections in the teacher's markings (as with "sp" indicating a spelling error), though they self-corrected their errors nearly as well (75%) when given nonstandard error corrections, such as simple underlining with no indication of the nature of the error, as when given explicit error corrections

(77% Ferris & Roberts, 2001).

This seems to indicate an ability among students to recognize the nature of their errors when pointed out to them, even if indirectly. Students, however, can only correct errors they understand, which does not apply to genuine confusion when students are confronted with a text that is too far advanced for their level of comprehension. This is the problem of student-textbook level mismatch, discussed below. A teacher unable to change the text to an appropriate one for the class is left to make do by resorting to hygiene resources.

There may be other problems with error correction, however. Students' stated preference for explicit correction of all errors in a study of students in Hong Kong was described as being desirable simply "because this would make life easier" (Lee, 2004, p. 295). This preference for correction of all errors was also found in a survey of Korean university students (Barnes & Lock, 2010). Further, a self-reported desire for error correction may be contradicted by actual experience, as Plonsky and Mills (2006) point out. Students can experience great tension and fear of making mistakes, even to the point of fear of asking for help "because maybe the others all understand" (Garrett & Shortall, 2002, p. 42). This can exacerbate the problem of prolonged silences and delayed responses.

Self-Correction

Several studies recommend providing opportunities for students to self-correct errors (Chandler, 2003; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lyster, 1998; Mackey, 2006; Todd, 2001), though attitudes certainly differ. American teachers in McGarry (2004) were found to be much more hesitant to correct non-native speakers' English than Costa Ricans were, correcting only when specifically asked to, or in the face of a complete breakdown in communication. The same behavior was reported by native speakers of Japanese in Hosoda (2006). These results come from everyday conversation, though even in the classroom, language teachers don't feel the need to correct every error (Plonsky & Mills, 2006). With respect to the Korean learners considered in this paper, opportunities for self-correction meet with some success (as with grammar errors from students age 7-10) though reacting to a student who fails to answer is a larger problem (discussed below).

SELECTED HYGIENE RESOURCES (as given in Mackay, 1993)

Reasoning Aloud for the Students

This behavior was experienced by the author in asking grammar questions to a class of 7-year-old beginners. The students have had two years of English-medium instruction and are being asked, for example, the nature of the *'s* ending in "Adam's friends." When the response is given incorrectly indicating a contraction "Adam is," the teacher pauses and points out the impossibility of this being a contraction of "Adam is friends," and indicating the word *friends*, asks whose friends they are. By that point, however, the student in question has already rushed to give the correct answer, given as "Adam has something" to indicate the possessive (Adam has friends) as it is the only other option known to the students. Often, a teacher's pause followed by other students' eager raising of hands, prompts the student to change his/her answer to the other of two options, inferring that the previous answer was the wrong one of the two. It is interesting to note that when students are questioned ("Is that right?") or given a pause response by the teacher, students often change even a correct answer. It is only an alert student who avoids being taken in by this deliberate misdirection, motivated by a teacher's desire to see if a student understands the answer's correctness or is merely guessing.

Substitution of an Easy Task for a Difficult One

This hygiene resource found its way into a class of 9- and 10-year-old (Korean) intermediate students (3-4 years English-medium experience) given a textbook written for native speakers of similar age (Houghton-Mifflin Reading 3). For each story in this book, students are presented with 8-10 new vocabulary words, which are reviewed and tested. Student performance in short-term (1-3 months) recall of these tested words was very strong, with test scores often 100%. The major shortcoming here is the fact that each page of the text story is filled with unfamiliar words to a non-native speaker, featuring words like *dreary*, *terrain*, and *plodding*, as well as sections, even whole stories, told in dialect, using phrases like *bust a gusset*. In this instance, students are often quite capable of pronouncing all the words before them, only to often finish a paragraph, look up and ask, "Teacher, what is this?" Use of the hygiene resource here included having the teacher take a turn reading sections of text, very often summarizing long passages in simpler terms. In situations of student-text mismatch, textbook decisions made by other authorities are often the cause, and the teacher is simply left to adapt the policy to the situation at hand. Some of these situations in the EFL classroom will be temporary, but if prolonged, the problem of students not performing at grade level can lead to worse consequences.

In Korean children's private language schools, institutional factors (arbitrary class restructuring, administrators' or student parents' desire to see books completed quickly) often exacerbate the embarrassing response behaviors described by Mackay (1993). While still in a private school with teachers accustomed to using hygiene resources to bridge the gap between students and text, student motivation may not suffer much in the short term (as in the class of 9- to 10-year-olds mentioned earlier). However, this is another example of hygiene resources masking the lack of student performance at grade level. This can lead to greater problems: the great importance Koreans place on standardized tests (such as the Test of English as a Foreign Language TOEFL) and test scores means that students helped through difficult texts by use of hygiene resources could be placed in a high-pressure testing situation before they are sufficiently fluent to handle the challenges. Financial pressures for quick student advancement are placed on teachers whose employers want to please their customers (the students' parents) and on students, whose parents often make great sacrifices to pay for expensive schools to give their children an edge in a very competitive society. In a country where bad test scores sometimes lead to student suicide, this is a significant concern. Teachers placed in this situation have a professional responsibility to address student embarrassment, and an awareness of hygiene resources (and their possible consequences) can help them resist the pressure to just get the book finished.

Expansion of Minimal Student Responses

Expansion of minimal student responses is a behavior that has appeared quite commonly in the author's kindergarten class (5-year-old students with 2 years experience). The rules of grammar are not formally taught at this age, and while full-sentence responses are taught, practiced, and tested, student acquisition of basic structures proceeds at widely varying paces. Ungrammatical language is met with varying responses according to the varying expectations of the situation. For example, during a play break, a student's comment "My shoes is two" is met with a restatement "I have two shoes," though the correct sentence usually goes unrepeated unless the teacher requests it. During a busier time, when cleanup tasks are occupying the teacher's attention, the ungrammatical contribution "I'm see the book. Piano book" is accepted with a brief "Okay." During a science lesson, where the emphasis is on practicing a few vocabulary words and understanding and completing physical tasks, the question "When you mix colors, what happens?" is answered with the ungrammatical, but comprehensible, "'nother color make it." ("It makes another color," with verb placed last in a transference error from Korean, where the verb occurs last in a verb-object sentence.) This is met with an enthusiastic "Yes! Very good. I'll give you one point." Here, the goal of lesson comprehension completely supersedes the grammaticality of the answer.

The typical response here, fitting Mackay's (1993) description, involves the teacher expanding a one-word or incorrect answer into an acceptable one as in this case:

S: "Andy is bathroom go."
T: "Yes, he *went* to the bathroom." (emphasis on *went*)

The important aspect here, which makes this a use of hygiene resource, is the acceptance of the answer, and the teacher's expanding of the response, not the student. The student rarely repeats the teacher's correct restatement. Contrast this with a response to older students' (7-10 years) errors such as "Yesterday I go friend house." Often here the teacher responds with an exaggerated look of surprise and dismay or a comment such as "That's not English." This allows for student self-correction, which in nearly every case is completed correctly. A friendly or comic response to the error typically dissolves any tension that might be created by the mistake. It bears mentioning that this reaction is only given for simple errors like verb tense, which the students have long since learned and been tested on, structures they should be able to produce with no difficulty. The reasoning for giving the expansions is the belief on the teacher's part in the importance of students hearing the correct version of their sentences. The more-advanced learners in the class pick up on these structures earlier, and student errors are often met with correction from their peers.

Question Reduction

Mackay explains reduction as changing a complex question into a much simpler one, such as a yes/no answer (Mackay, 1993). When a very young, or beginning, learner gives a one-word response, the reaction of this teacher is to typically give a prompt, like “Make a sentence.” When this fails to elicit a correct response, a fill-in-the-blank model is presented (what Mackay describes as reduction) such as:

T: Where’s the sink?
S: Bathroom.
T: Make a sentence.
S: ...
T: It’s in the ...
S: It’s in the bathroom.

This type of sequence occurs quite often with the kindergarten students who are shy about responding in class to direct teacher questions. Interestingly, though, a 5-year-old boy in one such class, who almost never responds in full sentences - even after all the other students have done so to the same question - did so, without prompting, for several questions when given an individual speaking test. This indicates that in this case, the student’s one-word responses were not the result of a lack of comprehension, but more likely a lack of willingness or shyness in class.

The same class produced this series of question reductions: When a 5-year-old student was asked to match a picture to 1 of 3 sentences and read the sentence that matched the picture, the response was silence. The student was then asked to simply point to the correct sentence (in the teacher’s belief that reading was the source of the problem). When the student pointed to an incorrect sentence, the teacher pointed to the picture (of a man holding a cross), and covered the sentences except for the first two words: “The bride,” “The man,” and “The pipe.” The student was instructed to read each of the two-word sections. When that was met with silence, the teacher sounded out the words letter by letter. When the student had completed the three, she was asked to point to the correct sentence again. Having done so, the sounding-out process was repeated for the words the student had trouble reading. The correct response was thus created by reducing the question to the smallest possible tasks and leading the student through the answer step by step.

The reason for the reduction here was to insist that every student make some effort and contribute an answer, without simply handing all the questions over to the students who could answer with no help at all. This can only be carried out to a degree, as time limitations affect the speed of the lesson. There is also the question of fairness to the other students regarding teacher attention and time. In a class of students with widely ranging speaking and reading ability, attempting to help each student make progress within the class framework is a delicate balancing act.

Verbatim Copying

Verbatim copying appeared in the intermediate class of 9- to 10-year-olds, in the case of new vocabulary words. The students’ writing level, as well as the time allotment, is not adequate to allow for individual definitions of words produced through class discussion. Instead, the words are written on the board, discussed, and used in examples, and definitions are written on the board for the students to copy. These are the definitions used later in review and testing (which has led to perfect test scores and strong recall, as mentioned earlier). The task is reduced to simplify the definitions and shift the focus from writing to speaking. Here students are invited to make their own sentences using the vocabulary words, though in speaking, not writing.

Oral Composition with the Whole Class

One other method is used to reduce the demands of lessons, similar to the oral composition method mentioned in Mackay (1993). In a class of 7-year-old beginners (with some basic grammar comprehension), a book intended for homework is done together in class, both to ensure accuracy and prevent the students from copying the answers (the answers are printed at the back of the book). This book is a companion workbook to a storybook the children read in class. Each reading comprehension question is answered orally by just one student, with the answer written on the board for the others to copy. (This can be further reduced, in the case of time limits, by assigning questions to stronger students who are more likely to produce correct answers quickly). The simple errors that often occur here (spelling, lack of capitalization, punctuation errors) would provide a good opportunity to allow for self-correction if simply underlined or indirectly indicated as in Ferris and Roberts (2001).

DISCUSSION

How Helpful Is an Awareness of Hygiene Resources?

The hygiene resources cited here are examples of behaviors that appear very frequently in the author's classroom, suggesting that the classes described in Mackay's (1993) study were representative of a large number of EFL classes. In many cases, for example, reasoning aloud and oral composition with the class, their use is not prolonged enough to interrupt the flow of the lesson. Some behaviors (such as accepting incorrect sentences spoken out of spontaneous observation, as with a child telling a story about a new toy at playtime) are not properly hygiene resources, as they are not used to smooth the progress of the lesson and do not arise from embarrassment. Other behaviors appear less frequently, like oral composition for the whole class, and are easily amended. The example cited in the section immediately above is done in the interest of ensuring accuracy of student responses while working within strict time limits.

Others, however, are pervasive, such as substitution of easy tasks for difficult onesand question reduction. In these cases, hygiene resources allow for all students to participate when some students are incapable of performing at grade level. They may even permit a class to function that could not otherwise, as in a case of student-text mismatch.

How important is an awareness of hygiene resources to English teachers?

Teachers concerned about student failure, even if problems are not apparent in the short term, can at least recognize that the class that is presented as policy is not the class being taught in practice. It is evident that hygiene resources lower the standards of the class, and that this is a hindrance to student achievement. Experience with the (9- to 10-year) intermediate class shows a gap between grammar awareness in written exercises and grammar errors in conversational speech. In this case, addressing the problem involves the use of exercises to practice areas of common error (verb tenses, for example) and insistence on self-correction in casual speech in the classroom. This has shown positive results (in the case of one student given an additional hour of spoken grammar practice per week, a reduction in simple grammar errors was noticeable in a month's time).

Student Silence

In the classes described here, the problem of a student entirely failing to respond occurred in the kindergarten class of 5-year-olds. Causes of this error are likely both social (pressure from other students to respond quickly) and knowledge-based. Students who shout out answers in bids to help or take over the question only compound the problem. If the teacher accepts the others' answers, it removes the need for the shy student to answer. If the teacher does not accept, and asks a new question (as here) to the shy student, embarrassment can increase as the other students grow impatient.

There are many possible responses to this error. One solution is to offer prompts, allowing the student to repeat the correct sentence pattern (e.g., for the question "What food do you like?" the teacher suggests "I like apples"). For children, giving silly responses "I like eraser juice" allows for repetition and reduces embarrassment by relaxing the tension with a laugh. This playing with language can help reinforce grammar patterns in an engaging way, a strategy recommended in two studies (Bell, 2005; Cekaite & Aronsson, 2005). Asking simpler questions ("Do you like ice cream?") temporarily reduces the demand to a yes/no question, which can then be brought back to a restating of the original question "What food do you like?" without giving the student a fill-in-the-blank sentence to repeat. This is one possible response that avoids hygiene resources, and further investigation will likely turn up more.

CONCLUSION

The hygiene resources Mackay (1993) described in the Canadian Arctic appear in Korean classrooms as well. Where teachers are faced with a mismatch between the students' L2 knowledge and the demands of the class, two responses can lead to likely success: first, in the case of a few individual learners not performing at the level of the other students, moving the troubled students to a class of appropriate level is suggested. In cases of entire classes failing to perform at the level assigned, changing to an appropriate textbook is recommended. In many cases, however, as discussed above, institutional factors prevent such changes. In these situations, the author has resorted to hygiene resources to complete the tasks assigned. These actions have potential negative consequences in the long-term, and in a high-pressure society like Korea's, these effects are not to be taken lightly. The similarity of hygiene resources in the examples here to Mackay's (1993) descriptions indicates that use of hygiene resources is widespread. The pressure put on students to demonstrate progress quickly in Korea suggests that an awareness of hygiene resources is important to their English teachers, and likely to EFL teachers worldwide. This awareness can help teachers address causes of classroom embarrassment without simply lowering expectations. Further research is needed to provide more comprehensive alternatives to hygiene resources, though possible alternatives are listed in the Appendix.

THE AUTHOR

Will Lingle *teaches English conversation at Tongmyong Universityand is a tutor in the University of Birmingham MA TEFL/TESL and Applied Linguistics programs. His research interests include critical discourse analysis, corpus linguistics, and language teaching methodology. Email: will@tuenglish.com*

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APPENDIX

TABLE 1. Error Corrections with Possible Variations

Error	Correction	Hygiene Resource?	Result	Possible Correction Variation
Student misidentifies use of 's in "Adam's friends" (3.1).	Teacher explains incongruity of response (Adam is).	Yes (reasoning aloud).	Student quickly chooses secondof two responses.	Ask student to explain his answer (i.e., make another sentence like "Adam is friends," providing a chance for self-correction.
Students are confused by long passages of text (3.2).	Teacher summarizes, removing students' task of understanding original text.	Yes (substitution of easy task).	Students learn main points of text but make no progress in comprehension.	1. Replace with appropriate-level text. 2. Break text into several time-consuming vocabulary and grammar sections.
Student makes grammar errors composing sentences "My shoes is two" (3.3).	Teacher restates sentence correctly: "I have two shoes."	Yes (expansion of minimal responses).	Student does not repeat. Some students acquire correct forms, but many simply repeat mistakes.	Keep a log of common grammar errors and expand into activities designed to reinforce correct structures.
Student makes grammar error "Yesterday I go friend house" (3.3).	Teacher comments (i.e., "That's not English") but does not explain error.	No.	Student self-corrects.	Same as above (keep a log of common grammar errors).
Student gives one-word answer when full sentence is expected (3.4).	Teacher gives student a fill-in-the-blank repetition to create sentence.	Yes (question reduction).	Student acquires full sentence structure but often fails to produce it in class.	Practice full-sentence structures use a game/activity where only complete answers are rewarded.
Students lack grammar skill to compose definitions to new words (3.5).	Teacher writes definitions on the board for students to copy.	Yes (verbatim copying).	Students acquire new vocabulary but composition skills are not improved.	Activity to practice writing short definitions for simple objects (i.e., hat: something we wear on our head).

Error	Correction	Hygiene Resource?	Result	Possible Correction Variation
Students make grammar mistakes answering reading comprehension questions (3.6).	Teacher asks one student to answer each question, writing sentences on the board for copying.	Yes (oral composition with class / copying).	Students gain practice making correct sentences but are not required to work independently.	Assign exercises individually, marking errors (directly or indirectly) to allow for self-correction.
Student fails completely to respond to question e.g. "What food do you like?" (4.2).	1. Teacher prompts with examples "I like apples, I like spaghetti...."	Yes (question reduction).	Embarrassment is reduced by providing grammar pattern to repeat; student typically responds correctly.	See further corrections.
	2. Teacher prompts with counter-examples "I like crayon ice cream...."	Yes (question reduction).	Embarrassment is reduced by giving silly answers; young students typically respond correctly.	
	3. Teacher prompts with questions "Do you like apples?"	No (reduction is temporary).	Students have a chance to recognize pattern, some respond correctly.	*This provides a chance to respond without resorting to repetition but won't help if grammar is forgotten.

Note. Numbers in parentheses indicate error location in text.

Group Dynamics in Japanese University EFL/ESL Contexts

Paul Nadasdy
Tokyo Denki Daigaku, Tokyo, Japan

Six groups of first-grade students at a private university in the north-eastern region of Japan (124 participants in all) completed questionnaires at the start of the first of two twelve-week semesters, giving feedback as to what they considered important for creating and maintaining good group dynamics in their communicative English lessons. The majority of participants reported the most important aspect for good group dynamics was a sense of trust and empathy between learners and with the teacher. A shared sense of purpose and interesting and clearly explained activities were also considered important.

A second questionnaire was completed at the end of the course. Data from this questionnaire provided information on how students' classroom experiences had differed over the two semesters, what had been the most positive aspect of the course for individuals, how students' attitudes may have changed towards English, and what recommendations individuals would give for future courses.

Overall, students reported that they had had a more positive experience in the second semester, which could have been caused by several factors, including more interaction with classmates, more fun activities, and a different approach to completing tasks. Moreover, most students reported that they had become more motivated to study English through taking the course.

INTRODUCTION

Though the concept of group dynamics and how much it affects learning is an issue that concerns many language teachers, it still appears to be on the periphery of interest in research in the field of English as a foreign or second language (EFL/ESL). And even though it is a commonly held belief that positive group dynamics have a strong effect on the learning of foreign languages, it appears that there is still only a limited amount of information and training available to educate teachers in how good group dynamics are fostered and maintained. In addressing this issue, by considering studies highlighting the psychology of EFL groups in Japanese university contexts, this paper discusses why group dynamics is important for research and for the learning environment, and considers what changes can be made to improve classroom atmospheres.

The paper starts with a discussion relating to group dynamics in EFL/ESL contexts, which also queries why group dynamics is still on the periphery and why it is often not part of education training programs. This is followed by discussion relating to what can happen in "good" and "bad" groups of language learners, and a discussion about the role of the teacher and motivational phenomena. Results of a limited classroom-based research project analyzing classroom processes over a period of a year at a Japanese university are given, and a discussion on how the atmosphere of these classes changed through minor alterations to regular teaching practices concludes the paper.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Group Dynamics Research in EFL Contexts

Several researchers have studied the effect of group dynamics within various contexts. Arguably the most influential contemporary analyses originate from authors such as Dornyei and Murphey (2003), Ehrman and Dornyei (1998), Forsyth (2010), Hadfield (1992), Johnson and Johnson (2008), Schmuck and Schmuck (2001), and Stevick (1980).

Though it is understood that group dynamics can influence the learning process, and though there is growing interest in the subject in general, there still appears to be relatively little research concerning the subject in EFL/ESL contexts (Dornyei & Murphey, 2003). The importance ofthe study of groups in EFL/ESL is highlighted by Stevick (1980). He believes that group dynamics influence learning outcomes more than any other factor, linguistic analysis and choice of materials included. Dornyei and Murphey agree stating that “class groups are powerful social units and group characteristics considerably influence the rate of learning and the quality of time spent in class” (2003, p. 4). Moreover, Jones and Jones (1995) highlight the symbiotic relationship that exists between the social and academic dimensions of educational groups and how important positive dynamics are to reaching learning goals:

> It is important to realize that groups, like individuals, have needs that must be met before the group can function effectively. If the classroom group is to function in a supportive, goal-directive manner, teachers must initially set aside time for activities that enable students to know each other, develop a feeling of being included, and create diverse friendship patterns. Only after these feelings have been developed can a group of students proceed to respond to the learning goals of the classroom. (p. 101)

Why Group Dynamics Research Is Still Rare in EFL/ESL Contexts

As some of the reasons for a lack of research in group dynamics in the field of education and applied linguistics, Dornyei and Murphey (2003) state that there is difficulty in defining “primary groups” and that teaching education programs tend to focus more on subject-matter training than practical and psychological issues. They also point out that most high-profile experts in education and applied linguistics do not have a background in psychology, and therefore, group dynamics is often outside their scope of interest (p. 5-6). They go on to list important reasons for doing group dynamics research. They draw our attention to the “fundamental similarities” of groups, that groups act as a greater resource than any particular member, and that group dynamics is relevant to educational contexts because the class group can have a significant impact on the effectiveness of learning (p. 5-6).

Positive Force of "Good" Groups

When good group dynamics are dominant, we can observe the setting of language goals, higher motivation, heightened self-belief and self-efficacy, more inter-member support, enhanced integration, and cultural curiosity. Group dynamics can be affected by how students relate to each other and to the classroom environment, by how effectively students cooperate and communicate with each other, by the roles the teacher and the students play, and by a shared sense of purpose, empathy, and trust.

Negative Force of "Bad" Groups

When bad group dynamics occur, individuals may become reticent, remaining quiet at times even when they wish to be involved, and cliques may form. There is often a breakdown in the trust and empathy between members and the teacher, a loss of respect leading to a loss of cooperation, and the possibility of a complete rejection of what is being taught. These developments can have a long-term effect on individual attitudes towards the subject being learnt or even on the learning process in general.

Motivation

The motivation to learn a foreign language is split into two interdependent models: intrinsic and instrumental motivation. Intrinsic motivation can be seen in many positive students, with individuals inspired to gain deeper insights into, among other things, the culture of the language. Objectively influenced instrumental motivation often occurs in situations whether it is imperative to learn a second language, as it can be an important part of social mobilization and can also help in many ways by linking individuals with the international community. Japan is still a country that considers itself a self-sufficient independent power in the world and this can be observed to some degree in Japanese university students. Students often do not see the need for English, and this is a psychological element that can impact the whole class if it becomes dominant.

If there is little incentive to learn, then motivation will be sparse. Conversely, in classrooms of highly motivated students, positive group dynamics can flourish and the incentives will be strong. And even if there are a few individuals that do not have high motivation, the "spirit" of other, more positive, self-efficacious students can often help drive them along. In terms of the long-term ambitions of individuals, the experiences at this stage of learning will have a major impact on how they view the language, the country and culture of that language, and their own capabilities as learners of that language in the future. So group dynamics can be a highly influential part of goal-setting and life decisions of individuals as they pass through educational experiences.

CLASSROOM-BASED RESEARCH PROJECT

Two questionnaires were handed out over two semesters. The first (Appendix A) asked the students to rank in order, from a list of ten criteria, what they considered to be the most important elements for creating and maintaining good group dynamics in their regular classes. The second (Appendix B), completed at the end of the second semester, asked students what part of the course they had enjoyed the most, how each of the two semesters compared, how their attitude towards English may have changed, if they had become more motivated, and what would help create better classroom dynamics for future classes.

In the first semester, students spent most lessons in their chosen seats and would only integrate with other students if the tasks in their textbooks strictly required them to do so. Furthermore, tasks were taught rigidly, mainly following the teacher's notes which accompanied them. In the second semester, class members were encouraged to move around to sit in different seats so they could become more familiar with their classmates. Tasks were approached differently and were made more challenging by moving away from the rigidity of the teacher's notes and more towards talking about tasks. There were also more games introduced in order to create some friendly competition and to make lessons more enjoyable.

RESULTS

Out of 124 students, 57% reported that they have been left with a positive attitude towards English, compared to only 6% reporting a negative attitude. 16% reported that they had started the course with a negative attitude and that had changed to a positive attitude over the year, as opposed to 6% who said that their attitude had become negative from originally being positive. Of the 57% reported to have had a positive experience, 76% said that the most enjoyable experience for them was to communicate with many of their classmates during the second semester, including the opportunity to play communication games in class and do speaking test practice.

Asked which of the two semesters had been more enjoyable, most students reported via a Likert scale that they had enjoyed both semesters equally, though there was a slight decrease of 2% reported for the second semester. However, 51% of the students who said that their attitude toward English had improved during the course reported that they had a better experience in the second semester, compared to only 17% percent who chose the first semester. Of the students surveyed, 71% reported that the course has made them more motivated to study English.

Some students reported that the communication tasks set for them in the second semester were more enjoyable than those in the first, and several students highlighted that they had more opportunity to talk to many of their classmates and that this made the class atmosphere better. The one classroom activity that stood out in particular was the game that students played regularly at the end of each week of study. This communicative game called "Talkopoly" was intended to help students review what they had studied in the week and, at the same time, help members meet more of their classmates in an enjoyable context. Other common responses were that students enjoyed the chance to speak to native English teachers and enjoyed the speaking test practice sessions experienced every three-week cycle.

Asked what would help enhance the atmosphere in future classes, the students reported that clearer goal-setting would create a better atmosphere and that support from the teacher, more challenging tasks, and the possibility to sit with many of their classmates would also improve the classroom dynamic.

DISCUSSION

Although the study of English can be rewarding in many ways, including helping learners integrate within the international community, individuals often lack incentive to learn, displaying low instrumental and intrinsic motivation. This can be frustrating for teachers who struggle to promote the importance of their subject. At university level in Japan, one often finds that studying English is not pre-requisite for graduating; hence Japanese students often show low commitment in lessons, which can also have a strong influence on other members of the class.

Furthermore, Japanese students rarely take the initiative to integrate beyond their smaller chosen groups or dyads, and will very rarely mix heterogeneously. It is often up to the teacher to push students together to encourage them to communicate. These complex social barriers are influenced by parameters such as hierarchy and sex, as well as *sempai/koohai* (senior/junior) relationships. Naturally, cliques form early, and even when tasks require interaction, there is often a reticence to do so with unfamiliar others. This is particularly the case with heterogeneous classes. During tasks, males and females will separate and stand on opposite sides of the room rather than integrate with the other sex. In situations such as these, it is often the case that the teacher has to physically push students together to complete the task. However, once the teacher has initiated a connection between classmates, they tend to be able to communicate perfectly well. So it would seem that the main problem is the initial breaking of ice between classmates. Helping students in this area in particular could well lead to better empathy and a shared sense of purpose, as mentioned above. Feedback from the questionnaires confirmed that students tend to enjoy mixing with their classmates if it is in a fun context, and as this is something that the teacher can have some control over, it is definitely worth cultivating in future classes.

Moreover, as can be noted from questionnaire one (Appendix A), the students originally reported that a shared sense of purpose and empathy between class members and the teacher was important. The classroom activities most enjoyed were the Talkopoly game and a chance to practice communication with each other, so this element seems to have had a particularly positive effect. This positive effect also seems to have led to students becoming more motivated about English: 52% of those who said they had become more motivated cited games as one of the influencing factors for enjoying the classes, with 34% citing communication with new members in the class as being the most enjoyable factor.

It appears that the course has been generally positive for the students. As mentioned above, motivation is a very important factor in the learning process, and results suggest overwhelmingly that the course has motivated the students to continue with their studies. The key points mentioned above, of including challenging enough activities, a shared sense of purpose, and empathy between class members appear to have occurred, and overall, it seems that positive group dynamics have had a strong impact on the participants. It would be worth introducing more games and activities to try to integrate students further in future classes.

Positive group dynamics can have a strong influence on the learning environment. How much the positive dynamics affected the overall success of the students examined in the paper is debatable, but there is a strong sense that positive classroom feelings have led most of them to be more motivated about English studies. This is certainly something to be positive about.

CONCLUSION

This paper considered how students can develop intrinsic and instrumental motivation for learning English, and whether this kind of research can inform professional teachers more thoroughly about how to attend to their students' learning needs. It would be difficult to suggest that both of these had been realized and that students had suddenly become highly motivated in such a short space of time because of affective changes in lessons, but there is a lot of potential insight we can gather by asking students how best to create positive learning environments for them, which in turn can be beneficial for other students in EFL contexts.

THE AUTHOR

Paul Nadasdy*'s main research interests in educational psychology are group dynamics, motivation, and self-efficacy in language learning. He is also interested in sociocultural theory, media discourse analysis, and materials development. Paul completed his Masters in TEFL/TESL in 2008 and has been teaching in Japan since 2002. He is currently working at Tokyo Denki Daigaku. Email: pbnadasdy@hotmail.com*

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APPENDIX A

GROUP DYNAMICS QUESTIONNAIRE

What do you think helps create a good atmosphere in lessons?

What do you think helps maintain a good atmosphere in lessons?

Which of the following do you consider to be most important for group dynamics?

1. A shared sense of purpose
2. Challenging tasks that are clearly explained
3. Lots of communicative games
4. Teacher remembers names of students
5. Empathy and trust between students and with the teacher
6. The way the classroom furniture is arranged
7. Adherence to roles
8. Clear goals and expectations which are achieved throughout the course
9. Teacher helps individuals depending on their learning styles
10. Meaningful communication between students during tasks

APPENDIX B

Class ________ (CEP 1) Class ________ (CEP 2)

1. What was the most enjoyable part of the CEP course?
CEPコースで最も楽しかったのはどのようなところですか？

2. How was your experience in the 1st semester?
1学期での経験はどうでしたか？

|___|___|___|___|___|___|
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. How was your experience in the 2nd semester?
2学期での経験はどうでしたか？

|___|___|___|___|___|___|
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. How was your attitude towards English when you started CEP?
CEPを始めた時のあなたの英語に対する姿勢はどうでしたか？

positive	negative	not sure
積極的	消極的	わからない

5. How is your attitude towards English now?
今のあなたの英語に対する姿勢はどうですか？

positive	negative	no change
積極的	消極的	わからない

6. Has studying in CEP made you more motivated to study English?
CEPでの学習はあなたにもっと英語を勉強する気を起させましたか？

yes	no	not sure
はい	いいえ	わからない

7. Which of the following do you think would create a better atmosphere in future CEP classes?
今後のCEPクラスの雰囲気をより良くすると思うのは次のうちどれですか

Teacher remembering students' names
教師が生徒の名前を覚える
Students sitting with different classmates as much as possible
出来るだけ違うクラスメートと隣の席に着く
More challenging tasks

レベルを上げた課題に挑戦する
More competition between class members
クラスメートと競う
Reassurance from teacher when students make mistakes
生徒が間違えた時に教師が元気づける
Clearer goal-setting
明確な目標設定

Conversation / Pronunciation / Listening

How Teachers Teach Listening in Japan: Part 1

Andrew Blyth
University of Canberra, Canberra, Australia

A survey of the literature reveals scant information on how teachers actually teach listening at the moment, especially in Japan. Without knowing how teachers are teaching listening, it can be difficult for curriculum developers, textbook designers, and teacher educators to reflect on the teaching of listening and any changes to this. Seven teachers were interviewed in a preliminary study enquiring how they teach or would teach listening. Teachers state that listening is an important skill that is under-valued and under-represented in ELT programs. Data indicates that there appear to be four categories of approaches to teaching listening. It appears that six of the teachers prefer the comprehension approach for teaching listening, and four of the teachers use pronunciation as a vehicle for teaching listening.

BACKGROUND

With scant information in the literature regarding teaching listening, we must begin looking at the current teaching situation more broadly. In 2007, Bell conducted a small study of his MA students asking them what methodologies they used as teachers. Bell's intention was to confirm Block's 2001 belief (as cited in Bell, 2007) that methods are not "dead." Instead, Bell found that these teachers were using a pragmatic or an *eclectic* assortment of teaching practices that were thought to be most appropriate for a given moment inthe lesson. Bell, citing Larson-Freeman, suggested that methods provided teachers with a larger palette to paint their pedagogical practice from (Bell, 2007, p. 142). This explained why teachers occasionally included methods like the Audio-lingual Method. Similarly, Hayes (2009) found that his former teaching colleagues whom he interviewed in Thailand were also choosing teaching methodology based on what they believed to be effective.

Regarding listening in Japan, there are few accounts on how teachers have taught EFL listening. Palmer, of King's College London, attempted to introduce the Oral Method to Japan in 1921, which focused on the oral aspects of the English language including listening and pronunciation. However, this was not taken up by many Japanese English teachers and subsequently fell to the wayside (Yamamoto, 1978).

Field (2008a) claims that the teaching of listening is relatively new to language teaching. The first time listening was seriously taught in Europe was in the Audio-lingual Method era in the 1950s and 1960s, when primarily the teachers' voices were the medium for aural input. It was not until the late 1960s that listening as its own skill was taught, albeit, as reading passages and contrived dialogues re-presented in audio format (Field, 2008a). With few other references to go by, it is reported that teachers simply adapted reading pedagogy to listening, and this style of teaching remains prevalent today (Field, 2008a). According to Field, the early listening pedagogy used pre-listening, listening, and post-listening stages where the pre-listening stage saw the teaching of vocabulary. The listening stage included comprehension questions, and the post-listening stage included analyzing language or reflection on grammar used, and sometimes a line-by-line listen and repeat.

In Europe, Sheerin (1987) claimed that teachers were not *teaching* listening, but were *testing* it. That is to say, teachers would typically give students a list of comprehension questions, give the students a chance to review the questions, play the cassette, check students' answers, and then move on into the next part of the lesson. Many course books at that time reflected this pattern of behavior, and probably teacher training books, too. However, this is not exactly first-hand evidence, as one can only guess as to what actually went on in many classrooms at that time.

Currently, according to Field (2008a) teachers flow from pre-listening, to extensive listening, intensive listening, and then post listening. The pre-listening includes establishing context and developing student motivation. Extensive listening includes general questions about the audio text, whilst intensive listening seeks specific information. The last and optional phase, post listening, includes "functional language," specific language points that are difficult to teach without the use of context. Field calls this teaching sequence the Comprehension Approach.

In Hong Kong, Flowerdew, and Miller (2005) described how listening was taught. There is some focus on strategy training, and much on top-down approaches. The weekly Songbirds radio serial, which was made for EFL students, provides extensive listening and perhaps represents the first attempt at listening for pleasure for L2 students. The serial included supplements published in a local newspaper for self-study and for classroom use. However, from personal experience, there is no such analogue in Japan.

From sociolinguistics, Meacham (2007) reported on the "soundscape" of two classroom experiences she observed in Japan. Of the first observation, she described the sympathy the teacher had for the apparent difficulty of listening to English and the near-defeatist attitude both the class and the teacher shared. The second class she observed was much more positive and enthusiastic, and more successful. The first class was situated in an audio-lingual laboratory and seemed to follow the textbook slavishly. In contrast, the second class was in a regular classroom, had two teachers, one foreign and one Japanese, who presented not listening text via CD, but spoken text live. The salient differences appear to be motivation of both teachers and students. Whilst motivation is perhaps important, more specific details on the methodologies in current use in Japan remain elusive in the literature.

Before continuing, it is pertinent to define terms that could be confused or otherwise be too subtle in variation. For the purposes of this article, *listening* is the process of attempting to understand someone's verbalized communicative act, which can include sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic processes. *Hearing* is the simple perception of sounds, usually environmental monitoring. *Speech perception* is the psycholinguistic study of phonemic and phonological processing. *Listening text* refers to the material that provides only one-way communication like a textbook CD, which requires eavesdropping skills. In contrast, *spoken text* is where the listener has the ability to interact with the speaker whereby the speaker's message can often be tailored for the specific listener or listeners. Field (2008a) defines top-down and bottom-up listening as directions of processing. *Top-down* implies the use of context and co-text to help identify words; *bottom-up* is where phonemes and phonology is used to build words, and from words into text.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Since the pedagogical landscape has been little surveyed, the *sequential exploratory strategy* was used, where qualitative interviews are done first to establish some knowledge of the topography and are followed by a more detailed quantitative stage (Creswell, 2009). Without knowing what teachers *are* doing, a survey would be an inappropriate tool to begin with (Creswell, 2009). Furthermore, a mixed-methods approach was most suitable as, "Words can be used to add meaning to numbers and numbers can be used to add precision to words" (Dornyei, 2007, p. 45). This particular article refers to the first step in a series of related studies. It is intended that the results of this project will inform the design of a survey for wider sampling in the future. Furthermore, for this first step, semi-structured interviews were done to allow a greater breadth of exploration (Fontana & Frey, 2005).

An application for ethics approval was applied for and granted by the University of Canberra Committee for Ethics in Human Research. Seven teachers were approached and they all agreed to be interviewed. Unfortunately, these interviews were done at a time when the student population in Japan is shrinking (McCrostie, 2010), and many education institutions are beginning to lay off staff. Additionally, some university administrations are becoming fickle with respect to their employment decisions, and so confidentiality is seen to be paramount at this point in time. Consequently, teachers were given pseudonyms of T1 to T7, and the names of their institutions will not be published.

The participant teachers came from a variety of teaching contexts, but they do not reflect all of the teaching contexts in Japan. Teachers were recruited based on their accessibility to the researcher. Five of the teachers taught ordinarily in the tertiary sector (including universities and adult vocation colleges). One was a part-time EFL and French as a Foreign Language (FFL) teacher in junior and senior high schools. One teacher worked for what is locally known as a dispatch company (see Note 1), as an assistant language teacher (ALT), in an elementary and a junior high school. One of the teachers worked in both a university and a franchise private language school (PLS). Two of the teachers were non-Japanese, and one of the non-Japanese teachers is bilingual: English and another European language. The five Japanese teachers all learnt English as students in the Japanese education system. In addition to this, two of the Japanese teachers indicated that they studied in overseas universities.

All teachers were provided with the interview questions to preview, and the interview questions were used as a guide but not strictly followed. The interview tool included three steps that were adhered to. The first attempted to learn something about the teachers' backgrounds. The second attempted to learn how teachers currently taught or would teach listening. The third considered other issues affecting the teaching of listening, and sought any further relevant information.

Data analysis was based on the Grounded Approach (Corbin & Strauss, as cited in Creswell, 2009; Dornyei, 2007), and influenced by Miles and Huberman's approach (1994). The seven teachers were interviewed just once, five audio files were transcribed and where possible the teachers were offered the opportunity to make corrections to their statements or ideas (none were needed). As suggested by Dornyei (2007), a research journal was kept, which was begun at the start of the transcription stage, and this was used to record thoughts and ideas to assist analysis; some of these ideas amounted to nothing, whilst some bore fruit. The five transcribed interviews were imported into QSR NVivo8 for coding. After the transcribed-interview coding was complete, the two untranscribed interviews were imported into NVivo8, and the raw audio files were coded. Coding raw audio files allowed for a more gestalt analysis and internal-triangulation of analysis already performed. This allowed a greater focus on the verbal message as audio files contain far more nuances than the word on a computer screen. NVivo8's modeling and chart options were used though these did not contribute significantly to the analysis.

In NVivo8, open coding was initially done, where all coding was done as "free nodes" (codes not grouped or organized), but by halfway through the second interview many codes were begun to be moved into "tree nodes" (groupings), whilst a few remained as free nodes. Major code categories that emerged were issues about Equipment, Listening, Pronunciation, and Teaching. Major subgroups were Equipment-CD/Tape, Equipment-Textbook, Pronunciation for Teaching Listening, Listening Bottom-up, Listening Top-down, Teaching-Grammar, Teaching-Methodology, and Teaching-Pronunciation.

RESULTS

It was noted, almost unsurprisingly, that some of the interviewed teachers felt before the interviews that they had little to offer on the topic of teaching listening. It seemed that T4 felt that teaching listening was relatively straightforward, and some of the teachers (T6 and T7) were not in a position to teach listening. For instance T7, who worked for a dispatch company stated in the interview that he did not teach listening at all, though he did in his previous job. His current role was to teach a portion of a lesson that the state-employed Japanese English teacher had prepared. These lessons mostly focused on grammar with some focus on speaking. He was also used as a live-pronunciation model and pronunciation teacher. However, T7 had studied psychology and was an active reader of linguistic theory. Though he had only a few years of ELT experience, T7 had much to offer as to how he *would* teach listening, and his interview still proved quite valuable.

MACRO LEVELS OF ANALYSIS

Types of Approaches

From triangulating a broader perspective (both transcriptions and audio files), the research journal, and the codes, it emerged that there initially seemed to be two main types of approaches: the top-down and bottom-up (see Figure 1). After tabulating the teaching techniques teachers claimed to use (see Appendix), there also seemed to be the *borrower* type of approach, in which a top-down oriented teacher may borrow a little from the bottom-up repertoire, and vice-versa, hinting at some *eclectica* (adapting this term from Bell, 2007). Miles and Huberman (1994) suggested that metaphors could help interpret data. Subsequently, on reflecting on the types of approaches (or types of teachers) a metaphor emerged: that top-down listening represents the sky to sea surface space, whilst bottom-up can represent the sea floor to sea surface space. Teachers could be viewed as specialized tour guides, as either hot-air balloon pilots or scuba-diving instructors. This allowed for more reflection. Hot-air balloon tour guides often are not comfortable with giving underwater tours whilst scuba-diving instructors may dislike some above-water activities. Furthermore, the equipment they used dictated the type of tours that can be given. Taking this metaphor further, it can be hypothesized that some teachers may be much more synergistic in their approach to teaching listening, where all aspects, from the top-down and bottom-up would be taught more equally, and as needed. None of the seven teachers seemed to reflect this "synergist teacher," though T1 comes close (see Appendix), so too do T3 and T6. However, T3 taught herself pronunciation via self-study approaches, but taught her class mainly using the top-down approach. In contrast, T6 claimed to use bottom-up approaches, though if given the freedom, she would use top-down.

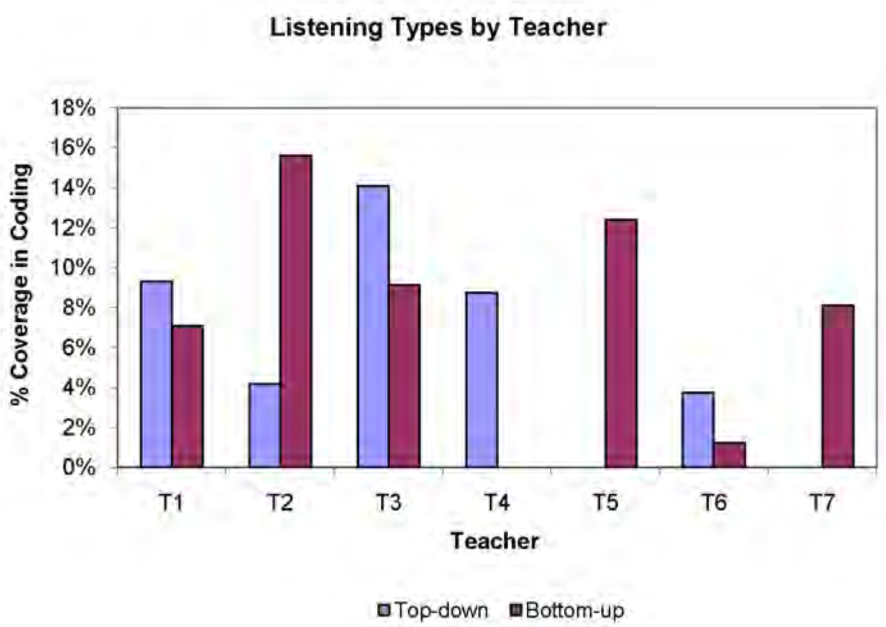

FIGURE 1. Percent of coding coverage of top-down and bottom-up listening codes

Returning to the sky-sea tour guide metaphor for a moment, the equipment given to tour guides affects the kinds of tours they can give (compare hot-air balloons to scuba-diving gear). The same is true with teachers, as these influence the kind of listening lessons they could give, thus creating an implicit curriculum. For instance, if teachers were required to prepare students for the TOEIC test, and the TOEIC-test textbook focused on comprehension questions with no other skills included, then a less synergistic approach can be afforded. T1, T2, T5, and T6 talked of expectations placed on them by either management or students. Further T3, T4, and T7, in the private language schools (PLS) they had worked for, were required to follow the textbook and the exercises it contained though T7 resisted this. It seems often that there is an expectation to teach according to the textbook and not just in PLS but also in universities (T1, T3, T4, and T7), and so in some cases, students' learned only what was provided in their textbooks. Some teachers created their own lesson supplements (T1, T2, T3, and T5), probably in recognition that the textbook did not provide all that was needed for their students. T3 reported that some teachers were constrained by how they were permitted to teach.

> I: *... you said that you had worked on pronunciation for yourself* [T6 teaching herself English pronunciation], *then that you had done that in the past especially with erm* [the song] *Last Christmas, but you didn't do that with [PLS]?*
>
> T3: *No, I, it was, I think, at [PLS] there's so many wonderful teachers, but I don't know what percentage is, but many teachers didn't have any training of teaching and they had strict manual, and I had to follow the manual, so I didn't really use any original idea, there.*
>
> I: *... And how do you feel about coming to university?*
>
> T3: *I'm so happy. [laughter] I was not really good at following the manual all the time, so I can use my original idea in my classroom right now, I'm pretty happy.*

Most teachers said that listening often was last on the list of priorities, yet they claimed it to be higher on their own personal priority list. For instance, T7 says about the importance that should be afforded to listening practice and teaching listening:

> T7: *... listening is a skill, ... it's like skiing. Of course, I could teach you the theory of skiing, and the meaning of the different movements of it, and what they do until I'm blue in the face and you understand it. But you can't actually do it. It has to be rehearsed; it has to be practiced. So, what I think it comes down to with listening is time, a lot of time.*

MICRO LEVELS OF ANALYSIS

This section covers more specific points drawn not from the seven interviews as a whole, but from specific instances from a few or specific interviews.

The Role of Pronunciation

A major theme that saw much coverage was pronunciation. Four of the seven teachers viewed pronunciation as a vehicle for teaching listening (see Figure 2). T2 stated that *robot*, in English pronunciation is /'rəʊbɒt/. However, since Japanese students pronounce it as /ɾɒ.bɒ.tɒ/, which is the Japanese pronunciation (note the equal weight on each syllable), students expect to hear it pronounced in that way. Consequently, students miss the word entirely when embedded in a listening text. Therefore, T2 believed that the role of pronunciation in listening instruction was central. In contrast, T3 used bottom-up approaches for her own listening development though she did not employ this approach with her students. Interestingly, T6 saw that listening text could be used as the medium for teaching pronunciation, presumably as a model for phonemic exemplars. T6 saw that teaching prosody was important, specifically for students to recognize intended meaning in a spoken message to which she referred to Brazil's intonation grammar (1997).

Though pronunciation seemed important to some teachers the role of comprehension questions still appeared to be central as shown in the QSR produced in Figure 2.

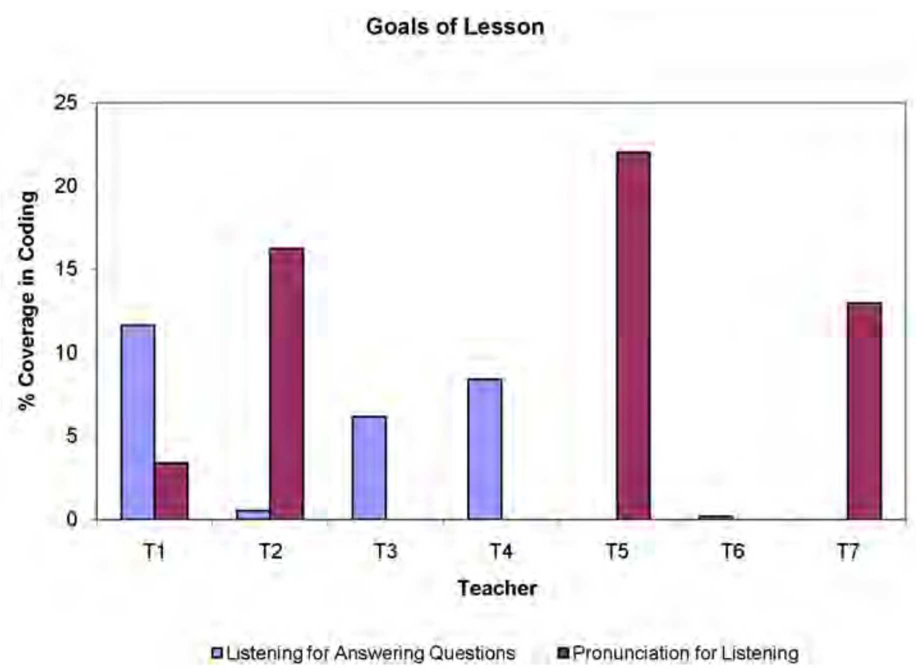

FIGURE 2. Showing the goal of listening for answering questions to using pronunciation to teach listening

Top-Down Methodologies

T3 said that she used YouTube videos, news, movie excerpts, and some songs in class, as these were interesting for students. These were often accompanied with comprehension questions and cloze activities. T2 also used the news, though mainly for shadowing (a bottom-up listening activity; see Note 2). Also cloze, textbook activities, gist, prediction, and elicitation of content (after listening) were also mentioned by T1, T3, T4, and T6, though briefly.

Goal of Listening

T1, T2, T3, T4, and T6 claimed that the ultimate goal of listening in the classroom was to answer comprehension questions, regardless of whether teachers preferred top-down or bottom-up approaches. In addition to this, T3, T4, T6, and T7 indicated that the goal of listening was for comprehension. Retrospectively, the goal of listening should have expected to be for comprehension for social interaction, but this was not mentioned.

Other Issues of Teaching Listening

Of the participants, only T1 has listening classes. The other teachers have reading, writing, interpretation, exam, or general English classes, so it appears that listening classes may be rare. The researcher is currently employed to teach writing and communication classes ("communication" being speaking and writing; no listening). Except for T1, it appears that the institutions the teachers work in place little importance on the teaching of listening. T7 is not able to teach it at all, and T5 does not have time to include it as much as he would like. What does take precedence is grammar. However, it can be argued that the teaching of grammar without the means to access it impedes social interaction opportunities. To juxtapose this, there was some mention of the L2 being used as the primary means of communication in the classroom, being an indirect means of providing spoken text; though, the commonality of this is still unknown. As it is, most of the teaching contexts included in this study were somehow influenced by grammar-oriented examinations. Though many exams now include a listening component, the listening component is still considered of little importance (Field, 2008a). T5's and T7's students will eventually need to pass university entrance examinations, which mainly focus on grammar and little or nothing on communicative abilities (Ford, 2009). Even T4's adult students, who work for a major automotive company, receive promotions and pay rises partly based upon TOEIC results.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

It appears that teachers are not so eclectic in their choices of teaching approaches for listening, as they appear to prefer the dichotomy of top-down or bottom-up. There appears to be three kinds of approaches and a possible fourth, top-down, bottom-up, and the borrowing (an approach utilizing either top-down or bottom-up, but *borrows* a little from the other teaching repertoire). A fourth approach may exist - the "synergistic." The synergistic approach would teach listening more holistically, whilst considering the possible interactions between top-down and bottom-up information and processing to allow a more thorough comprehension of communication.

The synergistic teacher would be sensitive to pertinent theories and hypothesis and be teaching accordingly. For instance, the McGurk Effect is where the "listener" confuses two phonemes because of conflicting information presented in both visual and auditory forms. If a "listener" has /ba/ presented through headphones, simultaneous to a video image of a person mouthing /ga/, the listener-viewer reports having "heard" /da/ (McGurk and McDonald, as cited in Bernstein 2008, p. 87). This highlights the notion that listening involves more than the speech signal itself and that top-down information like video presentations and person-to-person interactions may also play an important role in listening instruction.

In retrospect, classifying teaching approaches in a broad sense is useful for the intentions of projects like this and future related projects. It also gives education managers, materials designers, and planners a tool to understand the repertoire of pedagogical approaches. Nunan (1998) described a pendulum effect in the teaching industry, where ELT swung heavily towards one method, only to swing the other way with near equal proportion. Such a classification system may make it easier to monitor trends and changes in the EFL teaching profession.

Conspicuous in its absence was reference to the use of strategies. Despite the myriad of research on strategies in the last three decades (Renandya & Farrell, 2011), it appears that strategies may not have taken hold at the grassroots level. Also, absent is reference to a more comprehensive and integrated listening program like that in Hong Kong described by Flowerdew and Miller (2005), where students listen for pleasure and as an integral part of their language development. Bell (2007) found that some teachers used the Audio-lingual Method. However, there was no suggestion that specific methods like ALM were being used by any of the seven participant teachers in this study. T7 only just briefly mentioned a recent concept filtering from speech perception research: teaching *lexical segmentation* (word boundary recognition in listening; see Field, 2003, 2008b), though T7's context did not allow him to teach it.

HOW TEACHERS TEACH LISTENING IN JAPAN: THE SURVEY

The point of this project was not to provide conclusive answers, but to properly inform the design of a questionnaire to numerically survey a wider population of English language teachers. The results of such a survey may prompt follow-up studies including more interviews and classroom observations. Questions in the survey should include:

- The frequency of listening instruction
- Testing the four teaching approaches (top-down, bottom-up, borrowing, and synergistic)
- Surveying the current repertoire of techniques and methodologies used by teachers
- What outside influences affect listening instruction (including the role of expectations)
- The role that textbook and curricula has in listening instruction
- What teacher-made activities are created for listening instruction

- The role of teacher-made activities in listening instruction

LIMITATIONS

A mountain of data quickly accumulates from such a research project as this. Needless to say, any paper can only focus on the most salient themes (Fontana & Frey, 2005). There are other pertinent themes already noted or yet to be discovered in the data, but unfortunately could not be reported though these will be of assistance in the design of the final quantitative survey.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I must thank Dr. Elke Stracke for the idea for this project and for her kind support. Also, I must extend the deepest gratitude to the seven participant teachers for their important contributions.

NOTES

1. Dispatch companies are a source of cheap labor for local boards of education for elementary, junior high, and senior high schools. These teachers' salaries are typically very low, with few benefits or no tangible long-term benefits. Each year dispatch companies must compete to renew or attain contracts with local boards of education, and these "dispatch teachers" live with uncertainty as to their employment situation in the next academic year, sometimes even up to the first day of each academic year. The dispatch company system has all but replaced the JET (Japan Exchange Teacher) program in most regions in Japan. Dispatch companies are also beginning to enter the Japanese university system as well.

2. An activity where, as students hear a listening text, they speak it following at about 1.5 syllables behind. This focuses attention on pronunciation of the speaker in the listening text, and the students' own pronunciation.

THE AUTHOR

Andrew Blyth *is a doctoral candidate at the University of Canberra. He also teaches part-time at various universities in the Nagoya region of Japan. His research interests are in ELT listening theory, and teaching listening and pronunciation. Email: u3030115@uni.canberra.edu.au*

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APPENDIX

The Inventory of Teaching Tools Mentioned by Teachers

Teacher	Top-Down	Bottom-Up	Listening Goals
T1	❑ Video ❑ Comprehension questions ❑ Cloze ❑ Textbook activities ❑ Textbook questions	❑ Used own-voice ❑ Some pronunciation ❑ Script ❑ Phonetics	To answer comprehension questions and examinations.
T2	❑ Prediction	❑ Script ❑ Teacher's own voice ❑ CD ❑ Pronunciation ❑ Dictation ❑ Shadowing ❑ Phonetics ❑ Phonics ❑ Prosody	To answer comprehension questions and examinations.

T3	❑ Cloze ❑ Answer questions ❑ Gist ❑ Videos ❑ Explanations in L2 ❑ News ❑ Songs ❑ Video ❑ Comprehension questions ❑ Teacher used L2	❑ Script ❑ Pronunciation ❑ Expectation of pronunciation ❑ Listen and repeat ❑ Used own voice ❑ Singing	To answer questions, and general comprehension.
T4	❑ Comprehension questions ❑ Cloze activities ❑ Visual aids ❑ Eliciting content of listening text ❑ Prediction	❑ Textbook dialogue	To answer questions and general comprehension.
T5	❑ NA	❑ Teacher's own voice ❑ CD used ❑ Gating task ❑ Listen and repeat ❑ Phonics ❑ Pronunciation ❑ Prosody	Taught pronunciation for listening.
T6	❑ Expectations ❑ Visual aids ❑ Explanations given in L2 ❑ Videos ❑ Comprehension questions ❑ Elicitation ❑ Prediction ❑ Reading out loud ❑ Used L2	❑ Script ❑ Pronunciation ❑ Prosody ❑ Prosody and meaning ❑ Shadowing ❑ Phonetics ❑ Phonics. ❑ Textbook conversation	To answer questions, understanding contents of listening text; to learn pronunciation; lesson filler.
T7	❑ Interaction	❑ Pronunciation ❑ Word boundaries ❑ Dictation, teacher's own voice ❑ Listen and repeat ❑ Phonetics ❑ Prosody	Comprehension

Incorporation and Evaluation of Jazz Chants Instruction in Japanese University English Classes

Junko Chujo
Kanazawa University, Toyama, Japan

Japanese university English learners have difficulty acquiring English pronunciation. Initial difficulties seem to occur because of the difference in the language structure between the native language (Japanese) and English. However, insufficient focus on English pronunciation and actual practice further make acquiring even a comfortably intelligible level difficult. One of the largest difficulties that Japanese adult English learners encounter in English oral acquisition is acquiring suprasegmental features of English pronunciation: stress, rhythm, and intonation. To overcome this point and to help learners be comfortably understood orally, effective pronunciation instruction, including methods which motivate and engage the target group of students, is necessary. This paper begins with a teaching report from basic English classes in a Japanese university that incorporated Carolyn Graham's *Jazz Chants* as warm-up activities. It then shows how the instruction affected the learners' phonetic performance, by evaluating pre- and post-instruction performances. The evaluation was conducted using two methodologies: native English speakers' ears and the acoustic analytical software Praat. A wh-question was selected for the examination. Native English speakers were used to evaluate the overall naturalness of the sentence and Praat software was used to evaluate intonation.

INTRODUCTION

In spite of many students' desire to be able to speak with native-like English pronunciation, the lack of phonetic education, including even raising awareness toward pronunciation, often makes it difficult for students to acquire a comfortably intelligible level. Ohtaka (1996) states that in current Japanese English education, the necessity of English pronunciation instruction is widely recognized however, it is not actually practiced in the classrooms for the following four reasons: (a) Grammar translation instruction is emphasized for entrance examinations. (b) Japanese English educators have low confidence in their own English pronunciation. (c) Actual opportunities to speak English are not on the rise. (d) English instructional theory is underdeveloped. In addition to these reasons, further difficulty comes from the wide difference in the phonetic language structure between the native language (Japanese) and the target language (English). Among features of pronunciation, students not only have difficulty acquiring segments that do not exist in their native language, but also have difficulty acquiring suprasegmental features of English pronunciation: stress, rhythm, and intonation, which convey more of the overall meaning. It is especially difficult to switch from a syllable-timed language such as Japanese to a stress-timed language such as English. In addition, most speakers find it difficult to appropriately apply a wider range of intonation pitch compared to Japanese in order to convey their intended message.

In the field of SLA, Carolyn Graham's *Jazz Chants* have been incorporated into English classrooms all over the world since their appearance in 1978. The book (Graham, 1978) has been evaluated to be especially effective for teaching the suprasegmental features of English with which Japanese English learners have difficulties. The incorporation of jazz chants, and chants in general, in Japan has increased in elementary school English classes due to English becoming a required subject for fifth- and sixth-graders in Japanese elementary schools in 2011. According to Arima and Sato (2008), English instruction had been already introduced to 95.8% (in fiscal year of 2006) of Japanese elementary schools. A description of the utilization of the chants was included in the first course curriculum guidelines in 2001, which was published by the Japanese Ministry of Education. Chants have been incorporated as one important approach to familiarizing students with English sounds and rhythm, and also for acquiring English expressions. In spite of their worldwide use, and use at Japanese elementary-level English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms, empirical analysis of their effectiveness or of their incorporation at the adult level in Japan has not been conducted (Kawai, 2009).

The purpose of this paper is to first give an overview of the *Jazz Chants* warm-up instructions held in a Japanese university English class and examine their suitability for use with the presented instructional procedures in Japanese university classrooms. The second purpose is to evaluate the effect of the jazz chants instruction on students' oral performance. For this purpose, students' pre- and two post-instructional phonetic performances were evaluated with two methodologies: an overall analysis by American English native speakers and a more detailed analysis of intonation with the acoustic analysis software Praat.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROCEDURES

The research was conducted in a Japanese university mandatory freshman English class for 24 female and 2 male students majoring in early childhood education. The students' level of English in terms of grammar and vocabulary level was somewhere between the Breakthrough and the Waystage levels on the Common European Framework of Reference (i.e., between beginner and elementary levels). To fit into the once-a-week, 90-minutes-per-class, 15-week university course curriculum, jazz chants instruction was held for the first 20-30 minutes of class as a warm up. The instructed chants were selected from the Jazz Chants series, *Jazz Chants* (1978), *Small Talk* (1986), and *Grammarchants* (1993). The materials and the order of introduction were selected and arranged by the instructor, who took into account the difficulty of the vocabulary level, rhythm, and speed. All the instruction was mimic-based, and no explicit instruction was given. All the chants were initially introduced to the students through listening practice for the purpose of raising the number of opportunities to listen to and get used to the rhythm and intonation of the chants. To prevent the listening from becoming tedious and to focus more on the English sounds, blanks were made on the worksheets and choices were offered as a reference. The overall oral practice procedure was designed to allow repetition with small changes. This ensured students' comfort level and allowed for gradual advancement to independent performance. These small changes included (a) repeating with the instructor, (b) repeating without the instructor, (c) chanting in chorus, (d) chanting individually, and (e) gradually increasing the speed.

All the introduced chants in the classes were practiced during two class periods with a one-week interval between classes. In the first class, the chants were introduced and practiced until the students were able to perform without instructors' assistance. Then, these chants were reviewed in the following class. Practice outside of the classroom was left for students to do on an individual basis.

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

The students' oral performances were evaluated by two methodologies at three different times: American English speakers' ears and the acoustic analysis software Praat each for pre-instruction, post-instruction 1 and post-instruction 2. Among a number of instructed chants, "What Should I Do?" from *Grammarchants* was selected for recording and evaluation for this research. The entire length of the chant is short: 20 seconds, including the introduction of the instruments. It has a fast beat and is difficult because of the rhythmic phase. The wh-question sentence type was selected for sentence-level intonation evaluation with the acoustic analysis software Praat. The reason is that even after at least six years of English learning, Japanese learners frequently misplace the terminal intonation of this type of question. Their tendency whenever they see question marks, either in yes-no questions or wh-questions, is to read it with terminal pitch raised. Wells (2006) states that "the default tone for the wh-question is a fall" (p. 42). Regarding the wh-question intonation pattern, Ladefoged (2006) states that "there are many possible ways of saying this sentence, but probably the most neutral is a falling contour starting on the final stressed syllable" (p. 120), thus reinforcing Wells' view of the wh-question pattern. Ladefoged adds that American English chooses to say this sentence type with two rising phrases with the second one with a considerable pitch increase, which makes a much more argumentative question. The chant context was a default terminal tone and not an argumentative question; therefore, the model recording chants' terminal was a falling intonation. This wh-question pattern has a high frequency of usage in real life communication. Thus, this point is one of the distinguished and prioritized features to be instructed and practiced.

For evaluations, students' pre-instructional performances for the targeted wh-question instructional sentence "What should I do?" were first recorded in the second week of the instruction followed by the orientation for the course. Only for the pre-instructional recording, two other sentences which have the same intonation pattern of wh-question as the target sentence were recorded to confirm that the students were not using the particular pitch pattern at random but as consistent phonetic habits. After the screening, 19 female students' performances were further evaluated. For all of the recordings, students were asked to be seated on a chair in front of the desk in a quiet room individually with the recorder attached to a tripod on top of the desk. TASCAM, DR-100 was used for recording equipment and the data was saved as a 16 bit, 44 KHz Windows WAVE file.

In the third week, the chant "What Should I Do?" was instructed in the manner described in Figure 1. Figure 2 presents the dictation worksheet used for the first instructional procedure, also described in Figure 1.

<Instructional Procedure>

1. Listening and partial chants dictation. (14)
2. Answer check by students' chorus reading. (1)
3. Pronunciation check slowly read by the instructor. (2)
4. Chorus chanting presented with very slow tempo. (2)
5. Chorus chanting with instructor. (3)
6. Chorus chanting only by the students. (4)
7. Chant with the chants recording. (5)
8. Chorus pair practices. (approx. 5)
9. Role play pair practices. (approx. 4)
10. Role play chanting only by the students. (2)

[( ) refers to the number of times]

FIGURE 1. Instructional procedure for "What Should I Do?"

< What Should I Do? >

What ( ) I do?
You ought to ( ) Sue.
What should we ( )?
( ) ought ( ) ask Cher.
( ) should he ( )?
He ought to ask ( ).
Who ( ) she ( )?
She ( ) ( ) ask Nell.

< what, should(2), ought, to(2), ask, you, say, wear, Ray, tell >

FIGURE 2. Worksheet "What Should I Do?"

After the instruction, the students' post-instruction 1 was recorded on the same day, right after the instruction of the chant, to evaluate the immediate effect of the chants instruction. Later, the recording of post-instruction 2 was held in the tenth week of the instruction. During post-instruction 2, the wh-question sentence "What should I do?" was embedded into a short story, "The Bear's Lesson," from Chujo (2010; see Figure 3). After recording the whole story, only the sentence "What should I do?" was cut and saved for evaluation. The purpose was to evaluate how much of the improved pronunciation in the instruction held seven weeks earlier was retained in a less conscious situation following a seven-week interval from the instruction.

<The Bear's Lesson>

One day, Peter and Allen were walking in the forest. Then, they saw a big black bear. "Look! There is a bear!" Allen screamed and quickly climbed up a tree. But Peter fell down on the ground and could not climb up the tree. "Oh no……" Peter was very scared. The bear was coming closer and closer. "Oh, no! **What should I do?"** Peter thought. "Please, please don't come near me. I don't want to die." he whispered. He decided to pretend he was dead, lie down on the ground and not move. The bear finally came very close to Peter. Then, the bear opened his mouth and said something. "..." Then, the bear walked away and disappeared. "I was saved!" Peter shouted. Allen came down from the tree and asked Peter. "What did the bear say to you?" Peter answered, "He told me not to travel with a friend who runs away when you need help."

FIGURE 3. Recorded story for post-instruction 2 (For students' recording scripts, the section "What should I do?" was not bolded.)

American English Speakers' Evaluation

Pre- and post-instructional performances were compared and evaluated in terms of the naturalness by three American native speakers (two female, one male) who are not phonetically trained. Prior to the evaluation, evaluators were not notified of the research purpose for conducting the evaluations. The data was played through the computer's inner microphone for evaluations. First, they were asked to compare between pre- and post-instruction sentence 1 and then pre- and post-instruction sentence 2 again, the sentences were "What should I do?" For both evaluations, they were asked to choose the one which sounded most like natural English to their ears. If they evaluated that there was no difference, they were asked to choose N (No change).

Acoustic Analysis Software Evaluation

Each student's performance on intonation was numerically valued in Hz and visualized with the acoustic analysis software Praat. To analyze the intonation change of the target sentence for three recordings, overall pitch and terminal pitch of the sentence were selected as the focus to measure and compare.

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

American English Speakers' Evaluation

Table 1 shows the results of the comparative evaluation of pre-instruction and post-instruction 1 by American English speakers for the target sentence "What should I do?" The mark "x" indicates each evaluator's selection of the more natural sounding sentence. Table 2 presents the percentile results of the comparative evaluation of pre-instruction and post-instruction 1 evaluated by American English speakers for "What should I do?"

TABLE 1. Comparative evaluation of pre-instruction and post-instruction 1 by American English speakers for the target sentence "What should I do?" (n=19)

Subject Number	Evaluator 1			Evaluator 2			Evaluator 3		
	Pr	Po 1	No	Pr	Po 1	No	Pr	Po 1	No
1		×			×			×	
2		×			×			×	
3		×			×			×	
4		×			×		×		
5			×		×		×		
6			×		×			×	
7		×			×		×		
8		×			×			×	
9			×		×		×		
10		×			×			×	

11		×			×			×	
12		×				×		×	
13			×			×			×
14		×			×			×	
15			×			×			×
16		×			×			×	
17			×			×			×
18		×			×			×	
19		×				×		×	
Total	0	13	6	0	14	5	4	12	3

Note. Pr: pre-instruction, Po1: post-instruction 1, No: no difference

TABLE 2. Percentile results of the comparative evaluation of pre-instruction and post-instructions evaluated by American English speakers for the target sentence "What should I do?" (n=19)

	Pre-Instruction	Post-Instruction 1	No Differences
Evaluator 1	0	13	6
Evaluator 2	0	14	5
Evaluator 3	4	12	3
Percentile Results	9% (4)	88% (39)	3% (14)

From the comparison of pre-instruction and post-instruction 1 evaluation, 88% of the subjects' performance was evaluated by three American native English speakers as sounding more like natural English after the instruction.

Table 3 presents the results of the comparative evaluation of pre- and post-instruction 2 by American English speakers. The recording for post instruction 2 was conducted seven weeks after pre- and post-instruction 1. The sentence was again "What should I do?" but it was embedded in a story. Table 4 presents the percentile result of the comparative evaluation of pre-instruction and post-instruction 2 evaluated by American English speakers for the target sentence "What should I do?"

TABLE 3. Comparative evaluation of pre-instruction and post-instruction 2 (embedded in a story) by American English speakers for the target sentence "What should I do?" (n=19)

Subject	Evaluator 1			Evaluator 2			Evaluator 3		
Number	Pr	Po 2	No	Pr	Po 2	No	Pr	Po 2	No
1		×			×			×	
2			×	×			×		
3			×		×			×	
4		×				×			×

5		×			×			×	
6		×		×			×		
7		×			×			×	
8		×			×			×	
9			×			×		×	
10		×			×			×	
11	×					×			×
12		×			×			×	
13		×				×			×
14		×			×			×	
15		×			×			×	
16		×			×			×	
17			×			×			×
18			×		×			×	
19			×			×			×
Total	1	12	6	2	11	6	2	12	5

Note. Pr: pre-instruction, Po2: post-instruction 2, No: no difference

TABLE 4. Percentile results of the comparative evaluation of pre-instruction and post-instruction 2 evaluated by American English speakers for the target sentence "What should I do?" (n=19)

	Pre-Instruction	Post-Instruction 2	No Differences
Evaluator 1	1	12	6
Evaluator 2	2	11	6
Evaluator 3	2	12	5
Percentile Results	9% (5)	61% (35)	30% (17)

For the comparison of pre-instruction and post-instruction 2, 61% of the subjects' performance was evaluated by three American native English speakers as sounding more like natural English after the instruction. The percentage decreased compared with the post-instruction 1 (88%) and post-instruction 2 (61%) evaluations; however, over half of the subjects' performances were still evaluated as more natural after the instruction than before.

Acoustic Analysis Software Evaluation

Table 5 presents a comparative evaluation of the sentence-level pitch (Hz) on mean pitch, minimum pitch, maximum pitch, pitch range, and pitch difference of both the pre- and post-instruction 1 sentences.

TABLE 5. Comparative evaluation of the sentence level pitch (Hz) change of pre-instruction and post-instruction 1 for the target sentence "What should I do?" (n=19)

Subject Number	Pre-Instruction				Post-Instruction 1				Pitch Difference
	Mean	Min.	Max.	Range	Mean	Min.	Max.	Range	
1	206	192	243	51	234	171	312	141	+90
2	199	172	217	45	208	167	248	81	+36
3	199	186	239	53	209	171	251	80	+27
4	252	213	304	90	241	195	312	117	+27
5	241	208	279	71	241	205	273	68	-3
6	252	192	289	97	243	130	308	178	+81
7	259	228	313	85	257	192	321	129	+44
8	218	179	266	87	211	127	256	129	+42
9	273	190	325	135	251	202	308	106	-29
10	220	185	243	58	250	219	298	79	+21
11	248	214	289	75	232	196	283	87	+12
12	211	197	242	45	236	206	283	77	+32
13	211	177	256	79	233	181	336	155	+76
14	204	168	260	92	233	158	277	119	+17
15	211	185	244	59	238	190	288	98	+39
16	217	200	350	150	225	166	299	133	-17
17	216	185	258	73	224	193	276	83	+10
18	211	177	272	95	235	188	295	107	+12
19	213	203	250	47	229	201	278	77	+30
Mean	224.2	192.2	270.4	78.2	233.1	182	289.5	107.5	+28.7

Note. Mean: pitch mean, Min.: minimum pitch, Max.: maximum pitch, Range: pitch range

For the investigated overall sentence pitch, it was found that the majority of the students' pitch ranges became broader, showing improvements both in maximum pitch and minimum pitch. It became closer to the native American English model values listed in Table 6. Higher and lower pitch ranges were being used by this group of students immediately after instruction.

TABLE 6. Sentence level pitch for the average of two female American English speakers' results from the model reading for the target sentence "What should I do?"

Pitch Mean	Minimum Pitch	Maximum Pitch	Pitch Range
169Hz	139Hz	201Hz	102Hz

Table 7 displays the results of pitch values and pitch pattern change in the sentence terminal for pre-instruction and post-instruction 1. This time, it focuses on the word "do" in the sentence "What should I do?"

TABLE 7. Comparative evaluation of the terminal pitch change "do" (Hz) and pitch pattern change of the target sentence "What should I do?" for pre and post instruction 1

Subject Number	Pre-Instruction					Post-Instruction 1				
	Pitch Mean	Min. Pitch	Max. Pitch	Pitch Range	Pitch Pattern	Pitch Mean	Min. Pitch	Max. Pitch	Pitch Range	Pitch Pattern
1	199	190	204	+14	Falling	226	199	239	+40	Falling
2	203	173	217	+44	Falling	200	160	225	+65	Falling
3	192	186	203	+17	Rising	194	172	208	+36	Falling
4	245	222	290	+77	Rising	227	195	247	+52	Falling
5	242	226	273	+47	Rising	237	222	258	+36	Rising
6	247	208	268	+60	Falling	248	178	273	+95	Falling
7	245	229	280	+51	Rising	230	193	249	+56	Falling
8	198	179	260	+81	Rising	201	187	211	+24	Falling
9	242	185	276	+91	Falling	237	202	255	+53	Falling
10	216	202	233	+31	Rising	233	222	260	+40	Rising
11	261	243	281	+38	Rising	231	199	247	+48	Falling
12	213	209	217	+8	Falling	242	211	282	+71	Rising
13	201	193	212	+19	Rising	228	196	260	+64	Rising
14	194	187	200	+13	Rising	200	153	218	+65	Falling
15	203	198	206	+8	Rising	240	216	269	+53	Rising
16	231	204	350	+146	Rising	216	166	232	+66	Falling
17	212	204	234	+30	Rising	209	202	227	+25	Rising
18	214	201	227	+26	Rising	209	187	219	+32	Falling
19	210	188	259	+71	Rising	229	209	237	+28	Falling
Mean	219.3	201.4	246.8	+45.8		223	193.1	242.9	+49.9	

Out of a total of 19 students, 14 students' showed a rising pre-instruction terminal pitch pattern. Immediately after instruction, nine of these 14 students' terminal intonation was reformed to the correct intonation pattern.

Table 8 presents the results of post-instruction 2, which was held seven weeks after the instruction. Since the question was now embedded in the story in Figure 3, the target sentence was influenced phonetically by the surrounding context; therefore, a simple comparison cannot be made with data. Data is presented only as reference. For the purpose of this research discussion, the focus is on the pitch pattern. Prior to instruction, it was confirmed with native English American female recordings that the sentence in this context, this wh-question, was read in the default tone pattern, with falling terminal pitch.

TABLE 8. The results of the terminal pitch (Hz) of "do" from post-instruction-2, "What should I do?"

Subject Number	Post Instruction 2 (in seven weeks)				
	Pitch Mean	Minimum Pitch	Maximum Pitch	Pitch Range	Pitch Pattern
1	242	219	290	71	Falling
2	217	186	229	43	Falling
3	197	184	234	50	Rising
4	250	214	320	106	Rising
5	226	214	233	19	Falling
6	230	212	236	24	Falling
7	244	223	280	57	Falling
8	221	178	238	60	Falling
9	248	236	258	22	Falling
10	225	188	236	48	Falling
11	227	204	242	38	Falling
12	235	222	257	35	Rising
13	235	198	299	101	Rising
14	235	189	254	65	Falling
15	225	206	251	45	Rising
16	238	210	298	88	Rising
17	212	198	249	51	Rising
18	231	216	238	22	Rising
19	223	190	300	110	Rising
Mean	229.5	204.5	260.1	55.5	

In post-instruction 2, 10 students showed a falling terminal pitch and nine students showed a rising terminal pitch.

Table 9 presents the results of terminal pitch pattern change in pre-instruction, post-instruction 1, and post-instruction 2.

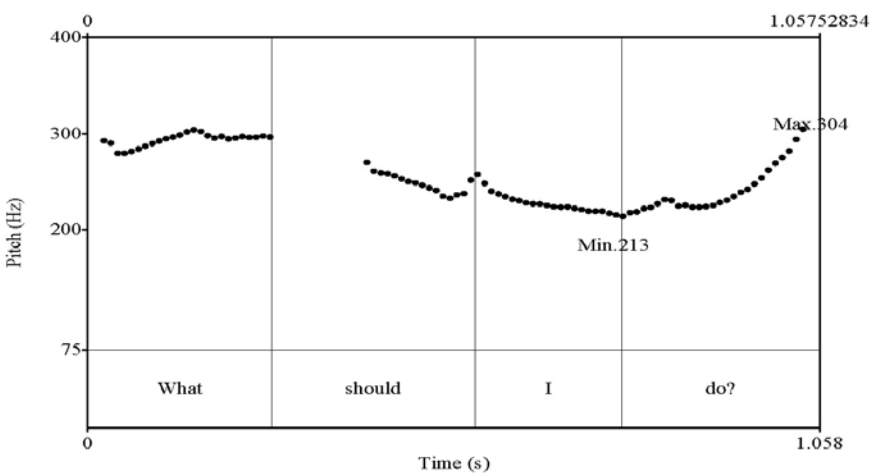
TABLE 9. Terminal pitch pattern change in pre-instruction, post-instruction 1, and post-instruction 2 of "What should I do?" (n=19)

Subject Number	Pre-Instruction Terminal Pitch Pattern	Post-Instruction 1 Terminal Pitch Pattern	Post-Instruction 2 Terminal Pitch Pattern
1	Falling	Falling	Falling
2	Falling	Falling	Falling
3	Rising	Falling	Rising
4	Rising	Falling	Rising

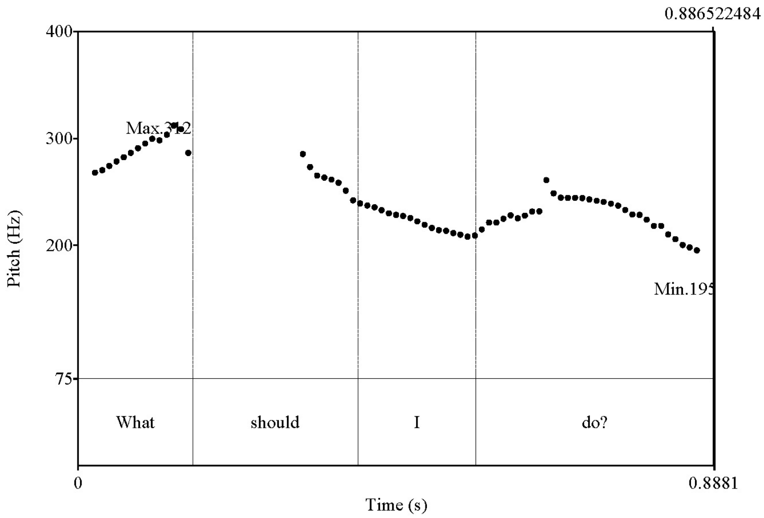
5	Rising	Rising	Falling
6	Falling	Falling	Falling
7	Rising	Falling	Falling
8	Rising	Falling	Falling
9	Falling	Falling	Falling
10	Rising	Rising	Falling
11	Rising	Falling	Falling
12	Falling	Rising	Rising
13	Rising	Rising	Rising
14	Rising	Falling	Falling
15	Rising	Rising	Rising
16	Rising	Falling	Rising
17	Rising	Rising	Rising
18	Rising	Falling	Rising
19	Rising	Falling	Rising

Out of 19 students, 14 students used the incorrect rising pitch as their terminal pitch in the pre- instruction recording. After the post-instruction 1 recording, nine students' terminal pitch patterns improved. However, of these nine, only four retained the correct falling pitch seven weeks after instruction took place.

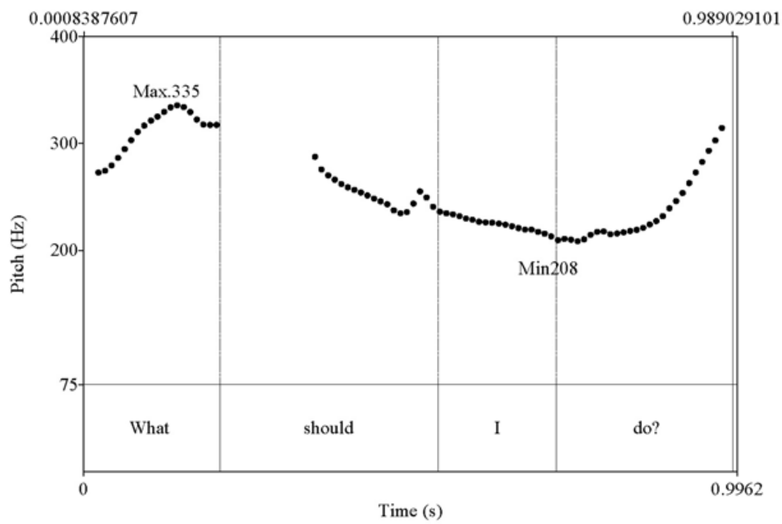
One of the subjects' pitch pattern change for pre- and post-instructions as analyzed by Praat is presented as intonation contours below in Figure 4. It shows the overall sentence pitch contour for "What should I do?" This subject's performance is representative of the most typical terminal intonation pattern change among the subjects. The typical terminal intonation pattern during the research period resulted in rising pitch—falling pitch—rising pitch.



Pre-Instruction. (Min. 213Hz, Max.304Hz, Pitch Range 91Hz)



Post-Instruction 1. Immediately following instruction (Min.205Hz, Max.312Hz, Pitch Range 107Hz)



Post-Instruction 2. Seven weeks following instruction (Min.208Hz, Max.335Hz, Pitch Range 127Hz)

FIGURE 4. The result of one student's sentence-level pitch contours of pre- and post-instructions by Praat for "What should I do?"

Students' Feedback on Jazz Chants Instructions

Open-ended comments for the class were collected from the students. Despite the fact that the chants instruction was held only as a warm-up, most of the learners commented on the warm-up chants instruction. Comments included: "It was very interesting way of learning English (pronunciations)." / "I was worried about the university English classes but I enjoyed chanting with classmate and learn English." / "Chants were going around and around in my head after classes." / "Want to practice more with this way next year."

One interesting comment that was shared by a few students during the instruction stated that the students found the voice used for the chants to be "scary." Indeed, one of the most distinguishable characteristics of the way jazz chants are created and modeled is the emotion in the chants' lyrical contexts. However, the recorded chants, which had a low and accelerating voice quality, with emotion, gave some Japanese female students the impression that it was a scary voice. These students commented that for future improvements, they would prefer the modeling with the instructor's voice and speed.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

By the time the particular presented chants were completed, the students had listened and chanted a total of over 40 times. When students were notified of the number, they showed surprise. Without noticing, they were engaged in the activities and did not feel like the activities were tedious at all. It was common to observe that even after classes some of the students could be heard practicing the learned chants with friends in the classrooms and hallways. They were captivated by the sounds.

Though not the main focus of this research, it was observed that jazz chants helped increase both students' positive perception of English, and their enjoyment of their English class. Given that the target students were actively involved and motivated in repetitive pronunciation practice in the academic university classroom, without showing boredom and without much hesitation, it was found that jazz chants are also a suitable method of classroom instruction for poorly motivated and low English ability Japanese university students.

The research indicates that the majority of the learners' acquired targeted intonation patterns were positively affected immediately after instruction; however, most of the acquired terminal intonation patterns were lost after a period of seven weeks. It is important to note, however, that the overall naturalness of the targeted sentence, as evaluated by American English native speakers, was retained after only a very short time of instruction in the following class as a review and with no maintenance or review activities afterwards. Given the data, one may make the assumption that certain fossilized pronunciation habits which had been built over the previous six years of English instruction were not easily reformed and were kept on a permanent basis even after this single, short mimic-based instruction. Modification of the instructional methods might lead to even improved results. Modification could include additional months of chant instruction, increasing the number of times the target expressions in the materials are presented, increasing the repetition in and outside of the classroom and utilizing other instructional strategies such as giving periodical recitation tests and explicit instruction.

CONCLUSION

Pronunciation that is not comfortably understood results not only from negative transfer from the learners' mother-tongue influence, but also results from the fact that pronunciation instruction in English classrooms in Japan is very limited. This not only creates a negative effect on students' intelligibility but also negatively affects their attitude toward English oral communication, resulting in lowered confidence. After the mimic-based chants warm-up instruction, the dual evaluation of the instructed and evaluated wh-question sentence showed that instruction led to improvements for this group of Japanese students. As for the pitch results, while jazz chants helped to improve the intonation for both creating further overall pitch range and forming the terminal pitch for the short term, longer-term retention with the presented warm-up instruction was not observed.

More research is required to determine whether the previous suggestions for continuing instruction with jazz chants throughout the remainder of the semester, and for modifying instruction, will help students to retain the terminal pitch adjustment in the longer term. Conducted with the described procedures, this approach is not only suitable for students in a Japanese university non-English major class, but also lends itself toward increasing learners' enjoyable engagement. Based on the positive attitude created in the students and based on the data showing overall pronunciation improvement with simple mimic-based instruction for warm-up, this methodology is one that can be recommended for further use in university English classes in Japan.

THE AUTHOR

***Junko Chujo**, MA TESOL, is presently a part-time faculty member at Kanazawa University, Toyama Prefectural University, and Panasonic in Japan. She specializes in syllabus and material design focusing on the development of English educational materials for Japanese college students that can be effectively implemented in Japanese university classes. Her material designs are based on over ten years of experience in instruction including American elementary schools, Japanese junior high schools, universities, and companies. Email: chujo21@aol.com*

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Using Video Messaging as a Tool to Develop Students' Speaking Ability: A Preliminary Study

Emilie Masson
Kyushu Sangyo University, Fukuoka, Japan

Using Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in the classroom environment has not only continued to increase in popularity in the last 20 years, but become a reality for a growing number of teachers. Despite the growing popularity of CALL, literature that provides us with conclusive evidence on its positive effects on second language acquisition is relatively recent (Lyth, 2008). And while CALL has often been used to promote listening strategies and vocabulary acquisition, little has been done to work on students' speaking ability. To answer this need, a CALL-based activity using web-based video messages sent to the teacher as weekly online journals was developed. Initially, a literature review on the popularity and effectiveness of CALL and foreign language study is outlined. Secondly, the setting for the development of this activity, the need out of which it arose, and its implementation are introduced. Issues such as technical difficulties, required materials, and knowledge to implement this activity are examined, as well as a survey administered to students at the end of the semester. Finally, the article concludes with a discussion on other uses for this tool and a call for future research.

INTRODUCTION

Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in the classroom environment has become a reality for a growing number of teachers. While CALL has often been used to promote listening strategies and vocabulary acquisition, little has been done in using CALL to develop students' speaking ability. What kind of CALL resources are available to language teachers who want to develop their students' speaking skills? In this case, web-based video messages sent to the teacher as weekly online journals were used. This preliminary study will attempt to answer two questions: What kind of tool using CALL is available to teachers to help develop students' speaking skills and what are students' perceptions of the use of CALL in the English language classroom?

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the development of language acquisition, CALL has seen increasing popularity over the last 20 years. There are a growing number of professionals and organizations within the education field who support the incorporation of CALL in foreign language teaching and study. This is evident in the significant increase in research, conferences, book publications, websites, and message boards that focus specifically on CALL, such as CALICO (Computer Assisted Language Instruction Consortium), IALLT (International Association for Language Learning Technology), and EuroCALL (European Association for Computer Assisted Language Learning), which are important resources, providing extensive information on the subject through their research, publications, and conferences. Nina Garrett (2009) explains that information on CALL tools, software, websites, and research is also available in the publications of virtually every organization that serves language education at any level, and nowadays every language education conference includes presentations about the use of technology.

Despite this growing popularity of CALL, literature that provides us with conclusive, quantitative evidence on the positive effects of CALL on second language acquisition is scarce. Graham Davies (2008) states:

> The question of the effectiveness of ICT (information and communications technology) in learning and teaching foreign languages keeps coming up. It has been raised at regular intervals since I first became interested in computers back in 1976, and in my experience no one has come up with solid evidence that using ICT has measurable beneficial effects on the language learner. (para. 1)

In 2004, the British Educational Communications and Technology Agency (BECTA) concluded that there is no extensive research looking specifically into ICT usage in relation to MFL (Modern Foreign Languages) in comparison to other subjects.

Recently, however, there is research that concludes that technology has a positive effect on student achievement, and teacher and student satisfaction with CALL. Researchers at Durham University have found a significant improvement in performance between students using computer technology and those using traditional methods (Lyth, 2008). One-thousand primary school students were observed learning French lessons with the aid of a variety of ICT resources, including whiteboard activities, worksheets, audio clips, etc. Results of the study showed student performance increased up to 80% when using the new computer technology for their language studies (Lyth, 2008). In addition, Davies (2008) did a small-scale investigation on the Internet into the effectiveness of ICT in learning and teaching foreign languages. Although all of the evidence was anecdotal, there were very few negative responses. Teachers claimed that ICT enhances language learning, engages and motivates students in the lessons, and offers authentic materials and opportunities for authentic communication (Davies, 2008). As CALL presence and support is increasing amongst teachers of foreign languages, there is a definite need for researchers to take a closer look at the measurable effects of CALL on language acquisition.

Communicative competency is an integral part of the language learning process. Ehsani and Knodt (1998) explain that students' ability to engage in meaningful conversational interaction in the target language is considered an important, if not the most important, goal of second language education. However, with the advancement of modern technology, namely the Internet, we are seeing an increase in programs and websites that aid in the development in students' speaking abilities. Warschauer (1996) states:

> Using multimedia may involve an integration of skills (e.g., listening with reading), but it too seldom involves a more important type of integration - integrating meaningful and authentic communication into all aspects of the language learning curriculum. Fortunately, though, another technological breakthrough is helping make that possible - electronic communication and the Internet. (p. 6)

A software application like Skype is an example of how technology has progressed in the last 10 years. Skype is a free video-conferencing program that is easy to use, well known, and even available for download on cellular phones. Through Skype, the user has real-time, authentic communication experience with anyone in the world.

Tokbox, like Skype, is a video-conferencing program which allows the user to speak with up to 20 people at once. Teachers can lead a class online, record lessons, and provide feedback to students. With this free program, the only thing students need, in addition to a computer, is a webcam and a microphone to engage in face-to-face conversations or record video messages. Another program, Eyejot, offers students the possibility of recording a video message, which is saved for the teacher to review at their convenience. This method was used in this study and will be outlined below. Video-messaging programs offer teachers an invaluable resource and provide second language learners with the opportunity to practice speaking and one-on-one, personalized interaction with their instructor.

The effectiveness of CALL in relation to second language speech acquisition and the Internet is difficult to determine. The problem lies in the fact that educators are not using the computer as an audio-visual communicative tool as part of their curriculum. A study on the use of multimedia language learning in higher education (Toner, Barr, Martins, & Wright, 2008) found that 80.5% of respondents claimed they have never used a webcam in teaching, and that 77% had never used video-conferencing. Teachers need to have confidence in the technology so that it can be used efficiently and effectively in the classroom. Further research needs to be done to determine how this new speaking technology can be empowering and benefit teachers, instead of discouraging and intimidating them.

METHODOLOGY

This preliminary study consists of having five classes of 20 to 35 students submit weekly online journals through www.eyejot.com. The students in question are non-English majors attending a private Japanese university. Students can be characterized as having a low English level as most of their TOEIC Bridge scores are below 140 (395 on the TOEIC test).

During the first class of the semester, students were taken to the computer lab and asked to log in to their university email accounts. They were given the login access page, and told to remember their passwords and check their accounts regularly (for that purpose, the teacher also had the students connect their school email account to their cell phones to make sure they would be alerted when a new email from the teacher came to their school email account).

They were then taken to www.eyejot.com and instructed on how to create a free account with this service provider. Students were guided step by step on how to log in to their account, record a video, double check the quality, and send it to the teacher. Each class was instructed to send the video to a particular Gmail account (which is a web-based email provider, see www.gmail.com) the teacher had created. For example, the teacher used ksueigo@gmail.com as the main email address. Each class used the "+" option to have their emails directly streamlined into a labeled folder in that main email account. The Tuesday second-period class was told to send their videos to ksueigo+tue2@gmail.com, the Wednesday first-period class used the suffix "+wed1," the Wednesday second-period class used the suffix "+wed2," etc. Students were also asked to include their name, student number, and class day and period in the message they sent. The teacher created labels and filters in the Gmail account to have the students' emails coming to those addresses go directly into the folders (labeled according to class day and period, in this case: Tue2, Wed1, Wed2, etc.) This enabled the teacher to sort incoming video emails from the students more easily.

Students were asked to send weekly videos of at least 30 seconds in length by 9 am the day before class to allow the teacher sufficient time to review the videos. Students were also instructed to make sure they used a camera when sending the videos so the teacher could ensure the actual student was sending the video, but most importantly, to ensure that the students weren't reading their online journals. In this particular case, the teacher wanted students to work on their speaking skills. The weekly assignments were intended to work as a dialogue between the teacher and the students with the teacher responding to videos periodically. Points were deducted for students who read or didn't send a message with a video image. Students were told to purchase their own camera to use at home, or to use the school's computer labs, equipped with both microphones and cameras (for free). Students were free to choose their own topics for the weekly journals, but were also given suggestions to choose from on the teacher's website.

Reviewing all the online journals for one class took the teacher about one hour. The teacher made comments about the students' personal interests and hobbies in a notebook to try to incorporate them in lesson content in the future. The teacher also kept a record of technical problems that occurred, students who submitted their work late, and general grammatical and pronunciation mistakes made by the students. The notes taken were listed on a PowerPoint slide and shown to students in the following class as group feedback regarding grammar points they had trouble with or words they didn't pronounce correctly. Students were encouraged to take notes of all these difficult points and to avoid repeating them in the future.

During the first few weeks of class, some problems arose that teachers should be prepared for. Some students were absent from the first class and needed to be briefed again on how to access www.eyejot.com and how to use it. For this purpose, a handout was made with directions on how to create the account, and students were given one-on-one counseling on how to create the accounts. Some students did not complete the homework. The students were reminded every week that the homework was compulsory and the teacher approached students who didn't do the work to ask if they had understood how to do it. Some students did not use a camera. In that case, students were reminded in class and through a private video message from the teacher that they were losing points for not using a camera and that there were computers available at the school with cameras which could be used for free. Some students' video messages had no sound, or poor sound quality. In this case, students were reminded in class to check the message by hitting the "play back" button before sending it to the teacher.

At the end of the semester, students were administered a survey to assess their opinion on this type of activity. Due to tapering attendance, the number of students who answered the questionnaire (n = 107) was lower than the initial number of registered in the classes (N = 142). Of all the students who answered the survey, they were divided between those who answered the survey but never completed the online journals and those who had completed them fully (by submitting their homework in every week) or partially (by submitting their homework at least once) [see Table 1].

TABLE 1. Participants Who Answered the Survey

Participants who never completed homework	Participants who completed homework fully or partially	Total number of participants who answered the survey
34	73	107
32%	68%	100%

The students who never completed the homework (n = 34) were asked why they never took the time to complete it. The responses, from most common to least common given, are listed below:

- *no time*
- *too much work*
- *didn't understand*
- *didn't want to*
- *too shy*
- *didn't have a computer/mike/camera at home*
- *forgot*

This group was also asked if they thought the online journals were useful homework for an English conversation class. Interestingly enough, despite having never completed the homework, over half of the respondents felt it was useful (see Table 2).

TABLE 2. Perception of Utility of the Homework in an English Conversation Class from Participants Who Never Submitted Homework

Did you feel this homework was useful for an English conversation class?			
Yes	No	N/A	Total
20	12	2	34
59%	35%	6%	100%

Students who had completed the homework fully or partially (n = 73) were asked how their feelings towards the homework evolved over the semester. The responses given, from most common to least common, are listed below (Table 3).

TABLE 3. Feelings About the Homework over the Semester from Participants Who Completed the Homework

What did you think about online journals at the beginning of the semester?	What do you think about online journals now?
- too difficult *- I'm too shy to do it*	*- it's difficult* *- it's fun* *- I still feel shy about it*

This group was also asked what they liked best about the online journals and what they liked least about them. The responses given, from most common to least common given, are listed below (Table 4).

TABLE 4. Reasons for Which Students Who Completed the Homework Fully or Partially Enjoyed or Disliked the Assignments

What did you like best about the online journals?	What did you like least about the online journals?
- getting a reply from the teacher *- I can practice my English* *- using a camera to send a message* *- I can do what I like*	*- I'm shy* *- having to choose a topic* *- takes time* *- having to make English sentences* *- having few places to do it at*

It is interesting to note that some of the reasons some students liked the online journals are the same reasons some students didn't like the online diaries. For instance, while some students enjoyed the freedom of being able to choose their own topics, others would have preferred more guidance. This is something the teacher can remedy by suggesting topics for every assignment while encouraging those who prefer more variety to create their own topics. Also, while some students enjoyed using the technology to communicate in English, others felt intimidated by it. It is once again important to stress that teachers endeavoring to do this type of homework activity offer lots of support to students with regards to the technology to avoid the students being put off by the activity.

Other possible uses for Eyejot include having the students communicate with each other through video-messaging or having the teacher give out homework or class comments to the class as a whole. This enables students to practice their listening skills, but also to review the video as many times as they want.

Finally students who completed the homework fully or partially were asked for their subjective opinion as to whether or not they felt their English had improved over the semester (see Table 5).

TABLE 5. Subjective Opinion Towards the Improvement of Speaking Skills for Students Who Completed the Homework Fully or Partially

Do you feel your English has improved from doing online journals?				
Very	A little	Not really	No	Total
22	24	26	2	74
30%	32%	35%	3%	100%

It is interesting to note that two thirds of the students felt there was some sort of improvement in their English. Future research may want to focus on whether or not there is an actual improvement and how the students have improved. However, because this survey cannot be an indication of whether or not students' English skills actually improved over the course of the semester, they were also asked to indicate how they felt the homework had benefitted them.

How do you feel the online journals have helped you?

- *I feel I can speak better.*
- *I can make English sentences.*
- *I improved my grammar.*
- *I can use English more often.*
- *It makes me aware of my pronunciation.*

This list of comments is meant as a guide for teachers who would like to pursue research in this area, not as a comprehensive list of what is sure to occur if online journals are used in the classroom.

Lastly, these students were also asked whether or not they felt this homework was useful in an English conversation classroom (see Table 6).

TABLE 6. Perception of Utility of the Homework in an English Conversation Class from Participants Who Submitted Homework

Did you feel this homework was useful for an English conversation class?				
Very	A little	Not really	No	Total
27	29	16	2	74
36%	39%	22%	3%	100%

In this table, despite only two thirds of the students feeling an improvement in their English, three quarters felt that the homework was useful. It might be interesting to enquire as to why students feel this is useful and whether their perceived improvement of skills matches their actual improvement.

CONCLUSION

Communicative competency is an integral part of the language learning process. With the increasing support of many professionals in the education field and the advancement of the Internet and its programs, CALL is a powerful tool when integrated into the foreign language curriculum. Computer-assisted language learning offers students access to programs, software, and websites that integrate all aspects of language acquisition (reading, writing, listening, speaking) but there is a lack of research on how this technology specifically benefits students' speaking abilities. Anxiety and distrust of new audio-video technology by novice users creates a hole in the research of its efficacy. With further research and training of novice teachers, this technology could be used to empower teachers and improve the focus of students.

In conclusion, further issues need to be addressed in order to complete this study. Firstly, teacher training needs to be provided to familiarize teachers with the available software and Internet programs. Not only that, the training should be geared towards ensuring that the software can be used as an effective tool for second language acquisition. It would benefit teachers in the long run to increase their confidence in WEB2 (second generation web) programs. Secondly, a long-term study on video-messaging and improved speaking skills would need to be undertaken. Is video-messaging really effective? If so, in what ways? Thirdly, the students' feelings towards this new technology in the classroom should not be neglected. How do students feel about this new technology? How does their reaction change over time?

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THE AUTHOR

Emilie Masson *completed her master's degree in Foreign Language Acquisition at the Universite de Bourgogne in 2008. She is currently teaching English as a foreign language at Kyushu Sangyo University in Fukuoka, Japan. Email: emilie.english@gmail.com*

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Corpus Linguistics

Adding a Piece to the Puzzle: Three Dimensional Jigsaw Reading

Matthew Coomber
Ritsumeikan University, Kyoto, Japan

In the L1 context in which it was developed, jigsaw reading focuses on efficient understanding and sharing of information. In L2 learning, however, transfer of content is not in itself the primary goal; rather, it is a vehicle to create conditions conducive to language acquisition. As such, jigsaw tasks designed to maximize opportunities for collaborative dialogue and negotiation of meaning are more pedagogically appropriate than those transferred wholesale from L1 methodology. Despite this, most jigsaw reading activities in ELT textbooks require learners only to discover and disseminate information, failing to provide a reason to interpret this information. Thus, the potential of jigsaw reading in ELT has yet to be fully realized. This paper introduces jigsaw tasks incorporating the need to understand, unravel, and interpret the connections between the disparate pieces of information each student brings to the learning situation.

INTRODUCTION

Jigsaw reading is a technique which has been borrowed from L1 education and was in fact developed in very specific circumstances. In 1971, Eliot Aronson, a social psychologist, was brought into schools in Austin, Texas as a consultant tasked with finding ways to overcome issues which had arisen due to the recent racial desegregation of the education system (Aronson & Patnoe, 1997). Aronson's solution was to introduce jigsaw learning in order to transform the classroom from a competitive to a cooperative learning environment. Eight weeks into the experiment, students in the jigsaw classrooms were found to be not only exhibiting less prejudice, but also academically outperforming those in the competitive classrooms.

Jigsaw Reading and ELT

While many ESL or EFL classes may be ethnically mixed, it seems unlikely that the rationale for using jigsaw reading is the same as that which motivated Aronson to design the technique. Nevertheless, there are features of jigsaw reading which make it particularly well suited for teachers following a communicative, task-based, or cooperative learning approach. However, despite the fact that, in principle, jigsaw reading dovetails nicely with philosophies currently prevalent within the field, the majority of jigsaw activities found in ELT textbooks fail to make the best use of the potential of the technique in generating communication, facilitating negotiation of meaning, and promoting language acquisition.

A typical jigsaw task entails two or more different but complementary passages. After reading, each student explains the key points of their passage to the others, and as a group, they answer questions about the readings. *Language Leader Intermediate* (Cotton, Falvey, & Kent, 2008) provides an example: learners read texts about three different explorers, before answering questions such as “Which explorer became interested in the sea at an early age?” (p. 18). In order to answer all questions, the contribution of every participant is required. However, for the group to answer any individual question, input from just one member is necessary, thus providing only limited scope for meaningful communication.

While this type of simple information gap may allow students to practice specific language forms, it seems unlikely to require or encourage them to utilize the full range of their existing linguistic resources and fails to provide sufficient reason to engage fully with either text or classmate. Pica and Doughty (1985) claim that “decision making tasks ... do not compel participants to negotiate for message meaning” (p. 215); this is equally true of jigsaw tasks as commonly found in ELT textbooks. Not only do they not compel negotiation of meaning, they tend to focus on transfer of factual information. This is, of course, an appropriate goal in L1 education and a useful putative goal in the L2 classroom however, by itself, it does not seem to be particularly effective in promoting language acquisition.

THREE DIMENSIONAL (3D) JIGSAW READING

Principles

Jacobs (1988) explains the concept of goal structure and summarizes the advantages of adopting a cooperative, rather than competitive or individual, goal structure to enhance the effectiveness of group activities. The different goal structures are explained with the aid of sporting analogies thus, a cooperative goal structure is likened to what occurs in a game of basketball when, by helping a teammate to score a basket, you also help your team, and thus yourself, to win.

Useful as this analogy is, it can be extended to more clearly differentiate the goal structures of different group activities in the classroom. A traditional jigsaw reading activity is, in fact, better compared to the goal structure of a cricket or baseball game than a basketball game. In cricket, a player’s performance, while of course helping the team achieve its goals, does not *directly* impact upon the performance of his teammates; in turn, neither is that particular player’s performance directly affected by that of others. While the result depends on the team as a whole, any discrete episode of play is completed by one player individually. If we return to our jigsaw example, a clear parallel can be seen: one student knowing that Jacques Cousteau was the explorer interested in the sea at an early age helps the group by correctly answering one question however, the same student is not able to directly assist her group mates in answering the other questions. In both cricket and jigsaw reading, all participants must do their bit for the team, but they must do it separately, not through direct cooperation with their peers.

In basketball, on the other hand, the actions of every individual player have a direct influence on how each other player performs. No player, however great, can score baskets if the ball is permanently in opposition hands, or if teammates refuse to pass to him. While cricketers can win a match by performing well individually, basketball players must play well as a team to ensure success.

Three dimensional jigsaw reading attempts to mirror the goal structure of team sports such as basketball or football through the use of tasks that not only require students to contribute information, but also compel each participant to engage in "cooperative dialogue." The key difference is in the question design: in 3D jigsaw reading no question can be answered by one person alone without a contribution from each participant, the group cannot find the answer. Moreover, in Prabhu's (1987) terms, 3D jigsaw reading can be defined not as an information gap, but as a reasoning gap activity. Rather than simply sharing information, the questions require that students use inference, deduction, and reasoning in order to interpret the information each individual has provided and make the requisite connections—a process which is both linguistically and cognitively more challenging than a simple transfer of information.

An Example of a 3D Jigsaw Task

The following section looks at how three dimensional jigsaw reading works in practice. Appendices A through E show a 3D jigsaw reading activity about religion in India. Students work in groups of four, with members reading about Buddhism, Hinduism, Islam, and Sikhism, respectively, before sharing what they have learned and answering questions on the texts. The following discussion focuses on how students might go about answering question d) in Appendix E.

Of the four readings, only the first provides a direct numerical answer to the question (seventeen million). Hence, rather than simply finding and ordering four numbers, students must work somewhat harder to extract the relevant information from the text.

Without giving a specific figure, the reading in Appendix B tells us that most Indians are Hindu, which, following simple logic, is sufficient information to place Hinduism in the number one position. The reading in Appendix C gives a percentage, but to make sense of this in terms of the exercise, it must be combined with information found in the reading in Appendix A (the total population of India). From this, students can work out that Islam must be above Buddhism in the table. Finally, the reading in Appendix D offers a comparison: there are more Sikhs than Buddhists, thus it can be deduced that Buddhism has the fewest followers. The problem remains of whether Islam or Sikhism is the second largest religion, and regarding this question, the readings provide no direct information. However, by applying some logical thinking to the text, it is possible to infer the most likely answer. When read in context, the phrase, "there are more Sikhs than Buddhists" is clearly intended to emphasize the fact that Sikhism is not a minor religion. In this light, if there were more Sikhs than Muslims, it seems likely the writer would have chosen this, the more forceful comparison. Thus, through careful reading and clear reasoning (and hopefully plenty of discussion), it is possible, albeit difficult, for groups to solve the problem.

It is apparent from this example that in 3D jigsaw reading, simply finding and conveying information is insufficient. To complete the task, learners must comprehend each relevant piece of information, and in some cases, transform it and relate it to each other piece of information in order to extract meaning from the text and make sense of the overall picture. The cognitive and linguistic input necessary to achieve this is manifestly greater than that required to locate and pass on discrete answers.

3D Jigsaw Reading in the Classroom

The 3D jigsaw reading tasks designed by this author typically provide sufficient material for a ninety minute lesson, comprising a warm-up, an expert groups stage, a jigsaw groups stage, and follow-up activities. The two key stages are described in detail below.

Expert Groups

During the expert group stage, the class is divided into four groups of equal size. Each group is assigned one of the four texts and allowed a fixed amount of time to read it through. The exact conditions of this stage can be manipulated by the teacher to suit the level of the class. For example, in a higher level class, each expert group may be permitted only one copy of an English-English dictionary between them, thus encouraging students to utilize their fellow group members' language knowledge as a learning resource. In order to maximize their understanding of the text in a limited time and with limited knowledge, students must pool their resources. This reading and discussion stage usually takes 15 to 20 minutes after which time the teacher takes back the texts. Expert group members then work together to note down as much as they can remember about what they read.

Jigsaw Groups

The class is now reorganized into groups of four students, with one member drawn from each of the expert groups from the previous stage. If the total number of students is not divisible by four, five-person groups may also be formed. In this case, groups will have two experts on one reading, providing an opportunity to support weaker students by assigning them to work with a partner. Each member of the jigsaw group is now responsible for teaching the other group members about the contents of their text. When the peer teaching and note taking session is complete, the teacher can then distribute the questions. As noted above, no individual student has read sufficient information to be able to answer any question alone; as a group, however, the four students have read all they need to answer the questions, and thus by pooling their knowledge can complete the task. Invariably, this stage results in extensive negotiation and collaborative dialogue. However, even after exhaustive discussion, it is often the case that groups are missing a crucial piece of information. In the final step of the jigsaw group stage, the teacher can allow students to look again at the four readings. One effective way to organise this is to pin a single copy of each text in a corner of the room, and only allow students to re-read their original text. In this way, the need for co-operation is maintained.

CONCLUSION

In summary, three-dimensional jigsaw reading is a technique utilizing complex problem-solving tasks rather than simple information gaps. As in regular jigsaw reading, tasks cannot be completed without the input of all participants. Unlike regular jigsaw reading, these tasks require interpretation and negotiation, rather than just exchange of information, thus more fully engaging the learners and providing greater opportunity for truly cooperative learning.

THE AUTHOR

Matthew Coomber *has been an EFL teacher in Japan for the past ten years, and is currently teaching at Ritsumeikan University in Kyoto. He holds an MLitt from the University of St. Andrews and is at present studying for a further graduate degree at the University of Leicester. His professional interests include academic writing and materials development. Email: mcoomber@hotmail.com*

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APPENDIX A

Reading 1: Buddhism

Although it is estimated to have over a billion followers in the world, and is the dominant religion in much of East and South-east Asia, Buddhism has been less successful in India, the land of its birth. The religion was founded by Siddhartha Gautama (the Buddha), who lived in the fifth century BC, and spread widely and rapidly across Ancient India in the first thousand years after its establishment. However, a resurgence in Hinduism and the converts made by new religions forced Buddhism into a long decline, and it was only in the late nineteenth century that the number of Buddhists in India started to rise again. Despite this, even today, out of a total population of over one billion, only around seventeen million people identify themselves as Buddhists. Like Christianity, Buddhism can be divided into many different sects, and it is therefore difficult to make generalizations about Buddhist beliefs. For example, although all branches of Buddhism believe in rebirth, there are wide differences amongst different schools of thought as to how this actually takes place. Similarly, while some Buddhist traditions practice strict vegetarianism, others maintain that eating meat is acceptable.

APPENDIX B

Reading 2: Hinduism

Unlike many other major world religions, the origins of Hinduism are somewhat unclear - as one of the world's oldest existing religions, it has its roots in prehistoric times. What is certain is that Hinduism originated in India and today is the majority religion of the modern Indian state. Furthermore, although India is a secular nation, Hinduism and India are to many people indistinguishable. After all, not only are most Indians Hindu, but also around 90% of Hindus worldwide are Indian. Hinduism currently enjoys a very positive image in the west, with our dominant images being colourful festivals, the Kama Sutra, and the jovial elephan-headed Ganesha - one of the most popular of the many Hindu gods. However, the best known fact about Hinduism is the taboo against eating beef. More central to the Hindu belief system is the concept of reincarnation - the belief that the soul is repeatedly reborn in a continuous cycle until the person stops desiring worldly pleasures. How you are reborn depends on your actions in your previous life. Whereas good conduct may lead to rebirth into a better situation, bad behaviour can result in reincarnation as an animal.

APPENDIX C

Reading 3: Islam

In spite of being home to more Muslims than any country except Indonesia or Pakistan, in India Islam is nonetheless very much a minority religion, with only around 13% of the population following the faith. Islam began to arrive in India in the thirteenth century AD, six hundred years after it was founded in Mecca by the prophet Mohammed. From 1526 until the arrival of the British in the mid-eighteenth century, much of India was ruled by the Islamic Mughal dynasty, which was responsible for further spreading the religion. To non-Muslims, probably the best known symbol of the Mughal period is the magnificent Taj Mahal. Islamic beliefs derive from the teachings of the Qur'an, the holy book of the religion. Muslims believe that there is only one god, and that Mohammed was his last and greatest messenger. Islamic law, known as *Sharia,* is based on the Qur'an, and covers many aspects of daily life, such as politics, banking, sexuality, and hygiene. Islam also has strict laws regarding food, which is divided into two categories - *halal,* which means "permitted" and *haraam,* which means "forbidden." Alcohol, pork, and meat from carnivorous animals are all considered to be *haraam.*

APPENDIX D

Reading 4: Sikhism

Over 90% of the world's Sikhs live in the northern Indian state of Punjab, which may account for the fact that Sikhism is not well known outside India. Inside India, however, there are more Sikhs than Buddhists, and Sikhs have long played an important role in the politics and economy of the nation. Indeed, the current Prime Minister, Manmohan Singh, is a Sikh. Sikhism was founded in the Punjab by Guru Nanak Dev, who was born a Hindu in a Muslim area. Nanak attempted to combine what he saw to be the best points of Hinduism and Islam to develop a new religion, and Sikhism therefore has similarities to both: like Hindus, Sikhs believe that the soul is reincarnated many times before finally breaking free of this cycle; like Muslims, Sikhs believe in a single god. Although Sikhs have their own rituals and ceremonies, these are given less importance than in many other religions, and personal conduct is considered to be of greater importance. For this reason, alcohol is prohibited; on the other hand, the Sikh holy book states that only "fools argue over flesh and meat." Outside India, many Sikhs now live in Britain and Canada, where the men are easily recognized by their distinctive beards and turbans.

APPENDIX E

Religion in India: Questions

As a group you have now read about four religions in India. Use your combined knowledge to answer the following questions.

Which religion is **not** native to India?

Which religion does **not** have any restrictions on the food its followers can eat?

Which religion does **not** believe in reincarnation?

Order the religions from 1-4 according to which has the most followers in India.

1. ____________
2. ____________
3. ____________
4. ____________

Order the religions from oldest (1) to newest (4).

1. ____________
2. ____________
3. ____________
4. ____________

Course / Materials Design

Exploring the Influence of Corpus Data in Course Books

Tyler Barrett
University of Calgary, Alberta, Canada

Language based upon corpus research data can be found in many course books today because corpus data ensures that students learn pragmatic, up-to-date language as a result of corpus being an expanding database where current language is added regularly. The benefits of corpus data are evident particularly when compared to traditional course book language implementation methods that consist of invented language designed to emphasize particular language such as grammar patterns. Unfortunately, although such invented language is indeed beneficial for teaching students about particular language patterns, invented language often promotes awkward language and does not ensure that students are learning pragmatic language applicable for daily conversation purposes.

INTRODUCTION

This paper is intended to discuss ways in which corpus can influence course books for language teaching. I will discuss how corpus research shows what language is like as it relates to language in "chunks" and the "idiom principle." I will discuss how corpus can influence (and potentially be exploited) in course booksin relation to grammar patterns, frequencies, and wordlists. I will also discuss the influence and potential exploitation of corpus within course books related to pedagogic corpora. Finally, I will discuss how corpus can be used to support native speaker "intuition" with regard to improving language in course books.

"CHUNKS" AND "THE IDIOM PRINCIPLE"

Corpus research data allows us to see what language is like because it reflects the nature of language in the way it is learned and stored, which is in the form of lexical "chunks" and patterns. Language is learned and mentally stored in chunks in the form of general phrases, idioms, and expressions where meaning is understood as a result of phraseology from words forming a phrase, and not as a result of its individual lexical items or grammatical structures (Hunston, 2002; Lee, 2004; Nation, 2001; Sinclair, 1991). As language is processed, these chunks often link together with other chunks to result in language. The "idiom principle" is based on these chunks in the form of collocations and idioms. Sinclair defines collocations as "the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text" (Sinclair, 1991, pp. 170). The short space is recognized as four words on each side of the node word (Anderson, 2006). Idioms are structurally similar to collocations although different:

> In principle, we call co-occurrences idioms if we interpret the co-occurrence as giving a single unit of meaning. If we interpret the occurrence as the selection of tworelated words, each of which keeps some meaning of its own, we call it a collocation. (Sinclair, 1991, p. 172)

Together, both collocations and idioms function to form the so called "idiom principle." The idiom principle states:

> ... that a language user has available to him or her a large number of semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices, even though they might appear to be analyzable into segments. To some extent, this may reflect the recurrence of similar situations in human affairs; it may illustrate a natural tendency to economy of effort; or it may be motivated in part by the exigencies of real-time conversation. (Sinclair 1991, p. 110)

Chunks or phrases that do not conform to the typicality of phraseology within the idiom principle can be understood in terms of the "open choice principle," which indicates less predictable patterns. In sum, chunks, phraseology, the idiom principle, and the open choice principle indicate the patterns of language and the way that language is learned and processed. Corpus data supports these indications by presenting data in chunks and demonstrating various patterns of typicality and phraseology such as frequency data (among other things).

Corpus research is especially helpful for improving various aspects of grammar learning in course books, particularly as it relates to choosing vocabulary for grammar patterns and teaching appropriate grammar. The following examples demonstrate how corpus research can influence course books.

CHOOSING VOCABULARY FOR GRAMMAR PATTERNS

Corpus research can influence grammar patterns used in course books, especially with regard to authentic language, since course books have been known to reflect language that is not ideal for communication with native speakers. Often times, as a result of over-emphasizing grammar structures, rational approach-based invented language examples are implemented. These examples of invented language are created as a result of theoretical principals designed to predict language patterns (McEnery & Wilson,1996). An example of an invented language pattern designed to demonstrate a progressive grammar pattern can be seen in the following dialogue taken from an EFL introductory course book.

Dialogue Between Mr. and Mrs. Snow (Romer, 2004, p. 153)

Mr. Snow: Hello, Wendy.
Mrs. Snow: Hello, Ron.
Mr. Snow: Where are the girls? Are they packing?
Mrs. Snow: Yes, they are.

Mr. Snow: Or are they playing?
Mrs. Snow: No, they aren't, Ron. They are packing.

In the preceding dialogue the focus was aimed at introducing the use of present tense progressive grammar. While this dialogue does indeed indicate a progressive example, it would be beneficial to students to learn grammar that uses authentic language in its context. According to corpus research, the problem with this example is that the verbs *playing* and *packing* are less frequent than *happening*, *talking*, *listening*, and *staying* (as indicated by the British National Corpus data). Also, according to Romer, (2004, p. 153), "the phrase 'are they packing' does not occur in the BNC (spoken)," while, "'are they playing' occurs only once." Overall, when teaching grammar such as in presenting a dialogue within course books, corpus would indicate that implementing real-life authentic language improves course books and prepares students for real-life communication purposes.

IMPROVING COURSE BOOKS WITH THE PRESENT PERFECT

Another way in which corpus research influences grammar structures in course books is by identifying verb tense frequencies such as the present perfect tense. According to Mindt's (2000) corpus research, "There are four meanings of the present perfect (the indefinite past, past continuing into present, the recent past, and a use indicating that an action is completed, though unspecified at the time" (as cited in Hunston, 2002, p. 99). Considering these four meanings, the *indefinite past* is the most frequently used form at 80% whereas the next in line is the *past continuing into present* which is much less frequent at only 15%. The other two meanings of the present perfect, known as the *recent past* and the *completed action*, have a collective frequency of only 5%. The issue here is that course books do not comply with these corpus data findings about "present perfect" grammar. Typically, course books have been found to "teach uses such as *I have lived here for 12 years* (past-into-present) or *they have recently had their child* (recent past) as prototypical, when in fact they are less common than the indefinite past use" (Hunston, 2002, p. 99).

FREQUENCIES AND WORDLISTS

Corpus-based frequencies and wordlists are very helpful for teachers and students and can be very influential to course books "in raising student's awareness, and also in teaching learning strategies. Lists can also help teachers make decisions about priorities in teaching and creating teaching materials" (Szirmai 2001, pp. 89-90). Frequencies and wordlists allow for differences in the language of a culture and cultural tendencies to be recognized and ultimately exploited in course books.

Frequency-Based Orthographical and Morphological Indications

Wordlists organized in parallel corpora, (such as with the LOB of British English and the American Brown Corpus) have revealed differences between British and American English such as in spelling with words like *colour* and *color*, and in regard to morphology, with words like *got* and *gotten* (McEnery & Wilson, 2004 Hofland & Johansson, 1982). Understanding orthographical and morphological differences can influence the way a language and culture is exploited in course books since certain orthographical and morphological features can indicate differences in language between countries. Thus, corpus research can be exploited in course books according to the particulars of a country's language such as in British and American English course books.

Forming a Consensus

One of the challenges of frequency data is that all frequency data collections are unique although similarities are often indicated to form a consensus. Comparing corpora with other corpora is one way that linguistic similarities and differences are revealed. Linguistic similarities such as high-frequency lexical items indicate typicality, which indicates a consensus as to what is regarded as "authentic language." Native speakers often say they have intuition which can recognize "authentic language" although corpus data is typically used to confirm this intuition. Language learners also rely on the data of corpus-based frequencies to understand the consensus, which can provide them with confidence in their language abilities. Thus knowing that a course book is corpus-based is in itself a source of confidence for the learner.

Table 1 demonstrates similarities between several different frequency data collections in corpora. As a result of the similarities, a consensus can be formed which reveals word frequency-based tendencies helpful in determining frequently used (English) language. According to the table, the corpus data indicates that the word *the* is the only word by which a complete consensus can be established. The words *of*, *and*, and *to* indicate a consensus between all corpora except the London-Lund Corpus. Corpora comparisons that reveal consensuses as shown in Table 3 influence the language implemented in course books since the goal of many course books is to utilize consensus-based authentic and frequent language patterns.

TABLE 1. Frequency Differences in Corpora (Kennedy 1998, p. 98)

	Birmingham Corpus	*Brown Corpus*	*LOB Corpus*	*Wellington Corpus*	*American Heritage Corpus*	*London-Lund Corpus*
the	1	1	1	1	1	1
of	2	2	2	2	2	5
and	3	3	3	3	3	3
to	4	4	4	4	5	4
a	5	5	5	5	4	6
in	6	6	6	6	6	9

that	7	7	7	10	9	8
I	8	20	17	12	24	2
it	9	12	10	9	10	10
was	10	9	9	8	13	13
is	11	8	8	7	7	11
he	12	10	12	16	11	18
for	13	11	11	11	12	20
you	14	33	32	31	8	7
on	15	16	16	13	14	16
with	16	13	14	14	17	32
as	17	14	13	15	16	29
be	18	17	15	17	21	21
had	19	22	21	23	29	55
but	20	25	24	26	31	15
they	21	30	33	27	19	24
at	22	18	19	18	20	26
his	23	15	18	24	18	85
have	24	28	26	29	25	19
not	25	23	23	25	30	35
this	26	21	22	22	22	14
are	27	24	27	20	15	42
or	28	27	31	32	26	44
by	29	19	20	19	27	65
we	30	41	40	36	36	23
she	31	37	30	28	54	72
from	32	26	25	21	23	53
one	33	32	38	40	28	36
all	34	36	39	41	33	33
there	35	38	36	35	37	38
her	36	35	29	33	64	96
were	37	34	35	30	34	64
which	38	31	28	39	41	43
an	39	29	34	34	39	81
so	40	52	46	48	57	30
what	41	54	58	58	32	34
their	42	40	41	38	42	112
if	43	50	45	56	44	48
would	44	39	43	44	59	51
about	45	57	54	54	48	37
no	46	49	47	51	71	25
said	47	53	48	49	43	76
up	48	55	52	46	50	61
when	49	45	44	45	35	67
been	50	43	37	43	75	68

USING A PEDAGOGIC CORPUS TO IMPROVE COURSE BOOKS

Corpus research influences course books by being a means to compare language data found in a pedagogic corpus (based on course books) with authentic, real-life language data. Ute Romer is concerned with English course books in Germany. Her corpus-driven approach of creating a pedagogic corpus is based on course books used for English learners in Germany and enables her to compare the language being taught with authentic, real-life language data. The pedagogic corpus she created is called "The German English as a Foreign Language Textbook Corpus" (or GEFL TC) and was designed to "represent the type of language used in German secondary school-level EFL course materials" (Romer, 2005, p. 175). The corpus was composed of full texts (spoken language: dialogues, speech bubbles, and dialogue-based narratives) for students aged 10 to 16 from the two best-selling series across 15 German states, *Learning English Green Line New* and *English G 2000 A*, created by the "two leading publishing companies on the German EFL market" (Romer 2005, p. 174). Overall the corpus was about 100,000 words and composed of two sub-corpora of relatively equal length. Each sub-corpora represented one of the course book's series from which the data was collected, thus each course book had a relative corpus. "Their similarity in composition enables direct comparisons between two textbook sub-corpora" (p. 176). The corpus data from GEFL TC was then strenuously compared to data from the largest existing corpora of spoken British English, which included the BNC, BoE, and the British Native Speaker English spoken corpora. Comparing these pedagogic corpora of English course books for German students to the largest corpora of spoken British English enabled differences to be seen between real-life language data and course book language particular to various progressives and lexical-grammatical patterns. As a result of these direct comparisons, German course-books could be improved in the future.

CORPUS SUPPORT FOR NATIVE SPEAKER INTUITION AND CONSENSUS

With regard to EFL course books in Japan, language corpora can be used to indicate issues often associated with language choices. For example, the question "What do you have for breakfast?" followed by the reply "I have..." appears in at least two course books such as *New Horizons, Book 1* and *Bridge Work Eigo Noto, Book 1*. The strangeness of this question and reply occurred to me as a result of my native speaker intuition since, if I were to ask this question, I would say, "What do you *usually* have for breakfast?" The key word is *usually*, which acknowledges potential variation since people don't always eat the same food for breakfast. Reasons for this awkward language presented in course books could be as a result of the course books having been written by a non-native speaker. However, sometimes even native speakers write funny things when they produce teaching materials and do not use empirical corpus data.

Using the Collins COBUILD Corpus Concordance Sampler, I typed "have+breakfast" in the query box, where "the plus may be modified with a preceding number to indicate the *maximum* number of intervening words" (COBUILD Concordance, 2009). I selected American English and British English corpus samples and found that my native speaker intuition was indeed supported by corpus data. “What do you have for breakfast?” did not appear in the American corpus samples. Interestingly enough, the British corpora samples gave only one example of “What do you have for breakfast?” with the award reply, “Erm, frostees” and not “I have ...” as indicated by the course books in question. Most importantly, “What do you usually have for breakfast?” was present in the British corpus samples.

Overall, as mentioned in regard to frequencies, corpus data can be used to support native speaker intuition, which can result in course book improvement if the course book is being used or written by a native speaker. Additionally, corpus data can confirm language patterns for non-native speakers who often times need reassurance of a standard, a norm, or a consensus such as with the example, “What do you *usually* have for breakfast?” A native speaker might be able to indicate that this is a poor example of authentic language; however, corpus would be able to confirm that notion.

CONCLUSION

Corpus is able to tell what language is like because it supports the way language is learned and stored, which is in “chunks” and according to “the idiom principle.” Frequencies and wordlists reveal authentic vocabulary through patterns of consistency and typicality which, when exploited in course books, are useful as a source of confirmation and consensus for native speaker intuition and an encouragement for language learners. The frequency of words appearing in the corpus indicates orthographical and morphological differences, which help to insure that course books are culturally consistent with the language they are choosing to exploit. Additionally, corpus data frequencies indicate cultural language tendencies, which insure that course books are written using geographically appropriate language while also being useful for teaching students about cultural differences. Romer’s pedagogic corpus, which compares pre-existing course books with native speaker corpora, is a model for future texts. Finally, corpus has supported my native speaker intuition in regard to awkward-appearing language used in English course books for Japanese students and can be used to improve future course books if the intention is to use authentic and up-to-date language.

THE AUTHOR

Tyler Barrett *is a doctoral student of Second Language Education in the Faculty of Education at the University of Calgary, Alberta, Canada. He previously taught English in primary and secondary schools in Hiroshima, Japan. His academic interests include language policy, globalization, and corpus linguistics. Email: tydrums@hotmail.com*

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A Study of Cultural Factors in Junior High School English Textbooks Approved in Korea and Japan

Maiko Kimura
Mukogawa Women's University, Hyogo, Japan

Hiroko Arao
Mie University, Mie, Japan

This paper studies junior high school English textbooks approved in Korea and Japan with respect to cultural information. The inherent relationships between teaching foreign language and cultural dimensions are addressed and emphasized, along with the inseparable nature of language and culture. This study adopts a categorical approach to culture in the framework advocated by the National Standard (1999) by breaking culture into three parts: cultural perspectives, cultural products, and cultural practices. These three parts are compared and analyzed with respect to their coverage in English textbooks of both countries in order to find the underlying beliefs and the attitudes toward ELT in Korea and Japan. These findings will provide valuable insight and implications for future material development in ELT.

INTRODUCTION

Approved English textbooks in each country significantly reflect the attitudes and the way of thinking toward ELT in school education. Cultural instruction in ELT is widely acknowledged in its importance and has been integrated as a core curricular component. The incorporation of the teaching of culture needs to be carefully adjusted in accordance with the goals of ELT. Junior high school English education in both Korea and Japan emphasizes cultural learning as one of the objectives clarified in the official guidelines. In Korea, the English Education Curriculum by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST) places a focus on learning the English language along with viewing and understanding the various cultures of both English-speaking and non-English speaking countries. In addition, they also emphasize rediscovering and further transmitting their own culture. On the other hand, in a course of study officially published by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) of Japan, one of the goals in junior high school English education is deepening the students' understanding of cultures and languages. As seen in the goals of these two countries, slight differences exist in the description of teaching about other cultures and the emphasis on the native culture. Therefore, the way these goals are reflected and how culture is dealt with in English textbooks approved in the two countries is worth investigating.

The backgrounds of English learners importantly influence ELT in terms of language and culture. Both Korea and Japan are located in Asia and both mother tongues are sometimes said to be categorized in the same Ural-Altaic language family. This means it is highly likely that Korean and Japanese learners of English go through similar experiences in their acquisition and improvement of English language skills. Furthermore, English learners in these two countries with Asian cultural backgrounds inevitably face cultural gaps reflected in the use of the English language and the contexts in which English is used. Thus, ELT in the two countries has much in common in terms of general background. At the same time, these two different countries, Korea and Japan, expect junior high school students to learn culture through English language in a subtly different way due to the characteristic differences in their goals and orientation in ELT.

RESEARCH PROCEDURE

This research is mainly based on the qualitative analysis of approved junior high school English textbooks from Korea and Japan, focusing on the way they deal with cultures in English education. The analysis follows these steps.

First, the two English textbooks (for first- to third-year junior high school students) most popularly adopted in each country are examined by extracting the cultural information appearing in the texts, photos, and pictures. The textbooks analyzed in this study are *New Horizon* and *New Crown* for Japan, and *Middle School English by* Chunjae Education and Doosandonga for Korea (see Appendix).

Second, the extracted items are placed into one of three categories: cultural perspectives, cultural products, or cultural practices, as advocated by the National Standard (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language, ACTFL, 1999 see Figure 1).

FIGURE 1. Categorical approach to culture

Cultural perspectives are, for example, the popular beliefs, common values, shared attitudes, and assumptions of the members of a culture. The keyword eliciting the details of this category is “why.” Cultural products include tangible and intangible ones. Tangible products include material artifacts such as paintings, designs, literature, and local souvenirs. Intangible products include rituals, oral tales, children’s play, systems of education, etc. The question “what?” can be used to draw out the details of this category. Cultural practices consist of socially accepted behavioral patterns, rites of passage, discourse patterns, etc. “How?” is an appropriate question for this category. In line with the categorization, the ways in which these three parts interact and compose a culture to teach in the textbooks is analyzed.

Finally, the overall similarities and differences are studied in the comparison of the textbooks with the prospect that there are underlying educational concepts and implications in these. Room for improvement in the cultural teaching approach is also sought.

THE SIMILARITIES

As a result of cultural categorization, the number of categorized subjects is in the same order for both countries. The numbers decrease in the following order: cultural products, cultural perspectives, and cultural practices. In both countries, cultural products are the most frequent, occupying more than 60% of the whole textbook. That the percentages are so similar between the two countries is the biggest similarity (see Figure 2). Among cultural products, food most commonly appears among items of their own culture and the other cultures. However, I would like to draw attention to one point regarding differences in how these are handled. In these texts, the respective stereotypical figures that appear are expressing views matching their nationalities; thus in the Korean textbooks, Korean people discuss Korean cuisine, and similarly the Americans talk about hamburgers. In the Japanese textbooks, Westerners describe their impressions of eating stereotypical Japanese food (such as *miso* soup and rice.)

The greatest similarity between the two is, however, mostly found in the area of cultural perspectives. In particular, many subjects are given global perspectives free of the influence of any specific culture. English is treated as lingua franca, and at the same time, perfectionism in the use of English is discouraged. The cultural introductions are not limited to the ones of English-speaking countries: those of non-English-speaking countries are introduced as well.

Equality in society in areas such as gender roles and opportunity for the disabled is a common topic in the textbooks. The following examples illustrate the handling of gender roles: In the Korean textbooks, when a mother who works as a reporter returns home, her husband and son have prepared the evening meal and are waiting for her. In the Japanese textbooks, the man is the main preparer of the meal, with the woman assisting. In both countries, a fixed stereotype that men work outside the home and women do housework is lessening as the years pass, and terms such as “gender-equality project” are now heard quite often. These attempts at “gender-free” scenarios can be considered to reflect this social situation. It appears to be a non-cultural subject. It can be said, however, that it belongs to a global culture, not biased to conventional ways of thinking. Environmental issues in the textbooks are also a commonality and possibly fall into the category of global culture in an international society. In the Japanese textbook, “green roof,” one of the eco-friendly approaches for reducing global warming, is treated as a specific example. In Korean textbooks, “eco-consciousness” or “environmental awareness” is highly recommended, including recycling.

Some famous people appearing in the textbooks are also shared, including Mother Teresa, Thomas Edison, Alexander Graham Bell, Albert Einstein, and the Beatles. In particular, of the 12 types of textbooks, Mother Teresa appears in 11 of them.

As already mentioned, global culture is really emphasized in English textbooks at the same time, there is always compatibility between global culture and native culture. The importance of native culture is never neglected in either country's textbooks. In describing the items of the native culture, the native language term is often used instead of English. For instance, "New Year's Day" is shown as *Osyogatsu* in Japanese and "mask dance" is rendered as *tarucyum*, which is a romanization of the Korean term. Through the use of these native language words, the uniqueness of the native culture is emphasized. It is also interesting to see how well foreign citizens assimilate into each culture in both textbooks. In Korean textbooks, an Indian national performs exercises wearing the uniform for taekwondo, which is a Korean martial art. In Japanese textbooks, a Westerner practices calligraphy, writing the Japanese word, *tomodachi* (friend) in Japanese.

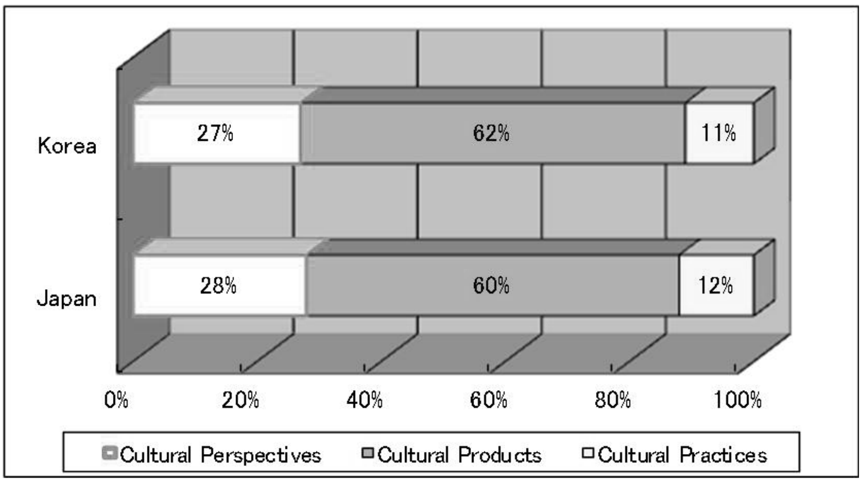

FIGURE 2. Cultural categories in textbooks

THE DIFFERENCES

There are not as many differences as there are similarities, but the differences that do exist significantly characterize the textbooks of each country. The number of countries and the cultures dealt with is larger in Korean textbooks than in Japanese textbooks. In Korean textbooks, about 40 countries appeared, while in the Japanese textbooks, around 20 are mentioned (see Figure 3).

This might be related to the different composition of the textbooks. In Japanese textbooks, there are central characters with different national backgrounds that appear frequently throughout the lessons. Therefore, the countries, and the cultures the characters belong to, are likely to be highlighted in Japanese textbooks. On the other hand, Korean textbooks have a wider variety of countries and cultures as topics. As for minor differences, many famous Japanese people are referred to in Japanese textbooks, in addition to the non-Japanese individuals mentioned in the previous section. However, not as many counterparts appear in Korean textbooks. Regarding the various topics, mathematics is frequently dealt with in Korean textbooks but not in Japanese textbooks.

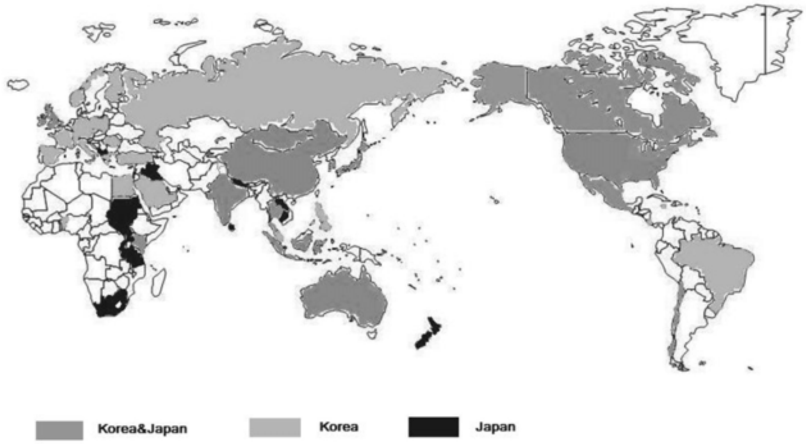

FIGURE 3. Countries featured in Korean and in Japanese English textbooks

Korean textbooks explicitly list moral character formation as one of the goals in each chapter, while Japanese texts do not state any goals, let alone moral ones. For example, a handkerchief can be seen under the shoes which are on the table in an illustration of items lined up on a table and explained using English words. The aspects that focus on the character formation transcending the English learning, which allow the students reaffirm at the subconscious level the breach of etiquette of putting the shoes, which are for outside use, on the table (see Figure 4).

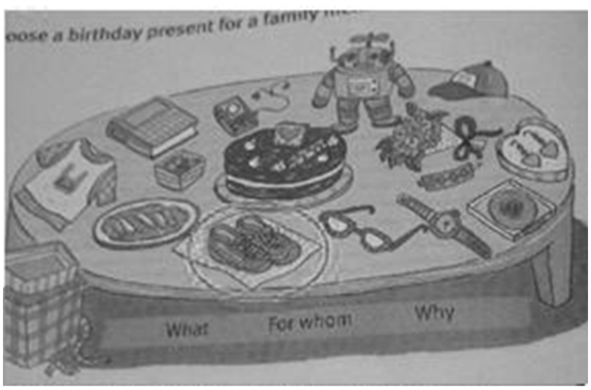

FIGURE 4. A picture from a Korean textbook

DISCUSSION

In both countries, cultural products are often introduced as being part of a certain culture and useful in highlighting different cultures. English textbooks, specifically for beginning students in junior high school, can easily make use of cultural products to attract students through the use of exotic illustrations and photos. This is why cultural products are dealt with as a method of raising awareness about different cultures.

In the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, one of the most well-known traditional theories, language is addressed as to how it reflects culture (Sapir, 1949). Porter and Samovar (1982) say that "language thus reflects culture, and language and culture are inseparable" (p. 174). Cultural perspectives are considered to be most important in understanding different cultures, but it does not have to be an English-speaking cultural perspective today. Global perspectives are essential features in junior high school English textbooks in the midst of globalization. This means that English taught in junior high school is now less limited to English-speaking culture, as seen in the global cultural perspectives presented in the textbooks of these two Asian countries. Today more emphasis is placed on understanding globally accepted perspectives than the perspectives of a specific culture. In Figure 5, the circles, meaning "country," overlap in the center. The overlapping parts indicate the "culture" which can be seen in common regardless of countries. This can be referred as "global culture." Many subjects are provided with "global culture" free of influence from specific culture. This is due to the fact that English is a tool for global communication, and not for friendship with a limited number of countries where English is spoken as a native language. Although language and culture are supposed to be inseparable, as was previously mentioned, English as a lingua franca is culture-free and is reflected by an emphasis on global culture in English textbooks.

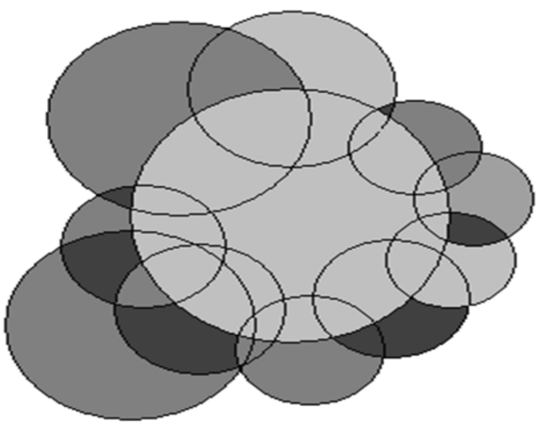

FIGURE 5. Explanation of "global culture"

CONCLUSION

This study found that cultural products are the most common topics dealt with in the English textbooks of both Korea and Japan, with the next most frequent topic being cultural perspectives. Textbooks, especially for the beginning students in junior high school, can easily make use of cultural products to attract students with exotic illustrations and photos. This is the main reason cultural products are dealt with: in order to raise awareness toward different cultures.

It is intriguing to see how global cultural perspectives are included in junior high school textbooks. Global perspectives are essential features in junior high school English textbooks in the midst of globalization. This means that English taughtin junior high school is being do less so from the perspective of English-speaking culture, as attested to by the global cultural perspectives presented in the textbooks of these two Asian countries. Today, more emphasis is placed on understanding globally accepted perspectives than the perspectives of a specific culture. These perspectives are completely independent of English-speaking countries and their cultures, and reflect modern society with global issues and morals shared by many people of different cultural backgrounds. Cultural practices is an infrequently used category because it does not generally apply in a global context. As a result, this category has a relatively low priority in English textbooks.

Both countries encourage junior high school students to realize the uniqueness of their own culture and communicate it to people of different cultures in their mother tongue. It is clear that understanding culture includes understanding one's own culture, and these ideas are expressed in the textbooks of both countries. Although the English Education Curriculum of MEST in Korea places more emphasis on native culture than does its Japanese counterpart, the level of the emphasis is slight. That is, ELT in junior high school is expected to foster an understanding of one's own culture in order to deepen the understanding of other cultures, while at the same time learning how to clearly convey it to the world.

THE AUTHORS

Maiko Kimura *teaches English and presentation strategies in Japanese at Mukogawa Women's University, Japan. Her academic papers have mainly concentrated on teaching English as a foreign language. Email: maiko290@mukogawa-u.ac.jp*

Hiroko Arao *is an associate professor at Mie University, Japan. Her field is English education in Japan; her special academic interest is affective factors in learning English. Email: arao@edu.mie-u.ac.jp*

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APPENDIX

Textbooks

Middle School English 1. (2008). Seoul: Chunjae Education
Middle School English 2. (2009). Seoul: Chunjae Education
Middle School English 3. (2002). Seoul: Chunjae Education
Middle School English 1. (2008). Seoul: Doosandonga
Middle School English 2. (2009). Seoul: Doosandonga
Middle School English 3. (2002). Seoul: Doosandonga
New Crown1-3. (2006). Tokyo: Sanseido
New Horizon1-3. (2006). Tokyo: Tokyo-shoseki

Applying the Organic ESL Classroom in the Twenty-First Century

James Life
Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, Seoul, South Korea

The first decade of the Twenty-First Century in education began with task-based learning and learner-centered instruction. Two major changes in technology during this time changed the dynamics of the classroom: first, the near seamless interface of the student and the world outside the classroom utilizing the Internet and computer software packages and second, the exploding social interaction made possible through social networks such as Facebook. The world changes more quickly than our ability to adapt to these changes. This is particularly true regarding the instruction of students. The theories and methods presented are extrapolations on the insight of the great thinkers in our field. The topics considered include questioning techniques, a holistic approach to instructing language skills, and how to fully utilize audio-visual technology to allow for instruction and individual interface with the student's cognitive processing and student inner voice.

INTRODUCTION

I am a child of the Twentieth Century. My early education was formed from principles of behaviorist theory and operant conditioning. Later, Piaget's notions on cognitive development and ideas of Bloom's Taxonomy entered my evolving childhood classroom environment. As I changed from student to instructor, education went through a stage of experimentation where varied and conflicting views on education and instruction methodologies were being tried and tested. As the baby-boomers of North America slipped into middle-life and the century drew to an end, ideas of modernism and post-modernism slowly turned to task-based learning and instruction focused on the individual learner. This is how we brought in the Twenty-First Century in education theory. However, the first decade of this century has passed, and now it is time to look ahead and modify our existing instructional methods to match the needs and advances made as we plough through the next decade.

QUESTIONS

The student's mere presence in the learning environment will generate questions utilizing their natural curiosity, creating anticipation. This prepares the student so that they are ready to learn. Anticipation helps identify information and skills that will be needed, expected, and wanted from the learning experience. Asking questions at the beginning of the experience focuses on what will likely be learned, not on what was missed or lacking, which becomes the focus when a class ends with a question session. Instructors may have the answers to the questions, but ending class with a question session leaves students feeling that something was lacking or inferior in the instruction and this is not the feeling the students should be leaving with.

When a student asks a question, they already know the essential part of the answer and are looking for confirmation, refinement of that answer, or acknowledgement of their own knowledge. Not answering a question from a student adds tension which may help promote the learning process by adding a sense of frustration which promotes internal questioning and an emotional change of attitude. Directing questions to potential answers initiates reflection and drives further investigation and the desire for more learning.

Usually when the instructor asks a student to answer a question, it is to confirm and reinforce knowledge the student already has and nothing new is actually being learned by the student. When the student does not have the answer or knowledge, questions alone will not change this in other words, questions do not directly promote learning. This gives the false impression that instructors are interacting with their students through questions and answers when they are not. Questions and answers are instructional methods directed at class management and student assessment, and should not be confused with instructor and student interaction in the learning process.

PERCEIVED FLAWS AND THE LARGER PICTURE

For simplicity, instructors focus on specific aspects of learning, such as the decay of grammar rules in the application of language by our EFL students. But like focusing too much on an individual rotting tree, one misses the majesty of the whole or of a vibrant forest. Consider a key aspect of language acquisition, listening. Is listening an auditory process? No, hearing is an auditory process, listening is a cognitive process deriving meaning from what is heard and the other devices used to interpret meaning from what is heard. Listening implies an understanding of the meaning of sounds, and that involves reinforcement by other sensory input and by cognitive processing with existing and anticipated knowledge. The larger picture affects the understanding of the verbal message and all other aspects of understanding in communication. Languages, and the expression of languages, are only a representation of an idea, and the focus should be more on understanding the idea rather than the static and flaws in the transmission of that message.

UNDERSTANDING AND RELEVANCE

“The medium is the message” is a famous quote by Marshal McLuhan. This suggests the message is in the meaning implied in the medium. This is only half true; understanding comes from the cognitive recognition of patterns both in the explicit message and in the co-text/context in which it is given. For example, what word do the letters “paomnnehel” represent? (Please do not read ahead just yet.)

This is difficult to identify without knowing the word in co-text/context. Several years ago, the text below appeared in anonymous email and on the Internet, illustrating the importance of first and last letters when reading words. Try reading the text and the word "paomnnehel."

> The paomnnehel pweor of the hmuan mind - Aoccdrnig to rseearch, it deosn't mttaer in waht oredr the ltteers in a wrod are, the olny iprmoatnt tihng is taht the frist and lsat ltteer be in the rghit pclae. The rset can be a taotl mses and you can sitll raed it wouthit porbelm. Tihs is bcuseae the huamn mnid deos not raed ervey lteter by istlef, but the wrod as a wlohe. (*Summer Times*, 2003)

Usually interpretation is slow at first, but as the co-text/context becomes more obvious, native-speakers of English are usually able to read the rest at near normal speed. The researchers originally used this as an example of how the human mind processes individual words, but once again this is only half the story as recognition and understanding are more difficult when out of co-text/context.

A HOLISTIC APPROACH

Look at the words *holistic* and *whole*. In our application, the meaning of *holistic* is to approach a subject from multiple angles to offer a whole view or approach. The intent of the written language is to represent the spoken language, but in the case of *whole*, it does not as the "wh" sound has been generalized into an "h" sound. *Whole* is an older word that has not been updated, and *holistic* is a relatively new word, developed from the root word *whole* where the inconsistency in spelling and speech does not exist. The connections between the written text and verbal application are also compromised by things such as word blends, contractions, and localized pronunciation variations. What this means is that language does not have to be completely intuitive in its various applications.

Errors in the message expressed are constantly made, but these are modified and corrected in the way the message is delivered within the given contextual situation. Rather than constraining the language to a simplistic generality of grammar and awkward fossilization of spelling, focus on the meaning behind the message, and teach strategies to help clarify what is believed to be heard and read. Realize that patterns can imply grammar and structure from a better knowledge of the general communication; strategies rather than specifics. Just as there is a synergy in crowd interaction, there exists synergy in whole dynamics of communication and multiple interactions.

AUDIO-VISUAL INTERACTION

Through current audio-visual technologies, students can interact with the instructor, with each other, outside of the classroom, in a world context, and with alternate selves. Blackboards, whiteboards, and static overhead projections are support tools of the Twentieth Century; in the Twenty-First Century, the Internet and associated software tools have opened a virtual world beyond the confines of the four walls that contain the classroom. Let audio-visual aids take the students' imagination to another world.

Visuals alone do not retain attention, interaction and drama is needed. Students look for drama in life as it focuses attention and exemplifies relevance, and students want their lives to be relevant. Bring the drama of life into the classroom through the audio-visual portal. Social networks such as Facebook and Twitter are allowing students a chance to develop relationships without boundaries; audio-visual flexibility should also go beyond the boundaries of the classroom and text material. Audio-visuals are powerful when they take students to another time and place, but a trap when they hold them to the here and now.

INNER VOICE

The inner voice, as a part of cognitive processing, is the key to learning - the student's real teacher. Instructors are preachers and facilitators in an environment that allows the inner voice to make sense of what the student is exposed to and learns. It is inner voice that questions understanding, prompts students to explore for answers, and motivates them to not give up when those around them have. Students live and interact in the world around them, but they learn through internal processing, and the inner voice is an integral part of this process.

APPLICATION OF THEORY IN INSTRUCTIONAL METHODOLOGY

Recognition of patterns leads to understanding and context gives relevance to what is learned. Instructing pattern recognition in vocabulary, communication queues, language strategies, and situational prompts will help promote understanding in the language learner. Because relevance comes from context, learning exercises should be taught in contexts relevant to the learner with individual language skills tied to the larger context of communication generally. An example of this would be to instruct phrasal verbs in English in association with other related phrasal verbs with similar meanings so that the pattern of symbolic meaning can be observed by the learner. Then, tie the application of specific phrasal verbs to situations relevant to the learner and in the natural context of an overall conversational theme.

Learning does not take place in the classroom. It takes place in the mind of the individual learner facilitated by inner voice. Traditionally the instructor has focused on classroom management with the current trend looking more to the individual learner. There are a few misconceptions about learner-centered instruction. Individual student study does not involve instruction in the pure sense of the word, as it is all internally generated and not an interaction initiated or stimulated by an external input. It uses a book, task, or instruction through digital technology as a surrogate for a live interactive instructor. A programmed response to the students input is artificial and only mimics genuine interaction.

Instruction to the class in the form of group or individual projects and assignments is once again not true learner-based instruction. The instruction needs to be a reaction to the specific needs of each individual learner to truly be learner-centered instruction. How can this be done? First, the instructor can ask the student specifically what instruction they need to satisfy what they feel is lacking in their specific understanding, knowledge, and skill-related needs. This can be done, to some extent, by interviewing the student or asking them to reflect on their educational needs. However, these methodologies are limited. A far better approach is to have a certain amount of class time where instruction is spontaneous, in response to performance and inquiries from individual students. This is more challenging for the instructor, but provides a more genuine interface between instruction and the learner's needs. A second method is to supply an open-ended learning environment that invites individual interpretation by each learner.

An interactive and relevant learning environment is more effective than a passive one. Have the student cognitively engaged in the learning experience. Physical involvement is sometimes mistaken for cognitive engagement, which it is not, although physical involvement can enhance the cognitive process. Doing alone does not promote productive learning or retention; cognitive awareness of relevance and purpose must also be present. Do not focus on what a student is doing, but rather on why they are doing a particular act and how it relates to student needs and goals. Doing this also promotes student motivation, which in turn, promotes continued learning.

When having the students develop a project or ability, or when using an audio-visual guide, allow the students the freedom to let their mind explore as an independent and personal learning experience. Let their curiosity and desire guide them. Meet the course agenda by supplying an experience that conforms to their skills and knowledge in the goals of the program.

Aspects of second language acquisition only have relevance in the context of communication skills as a whole. Individual language skills such as listening or reading should not be taught in isolation but through exercises and projects that bring the skills together. For example, when a student asks what the best way is to improve fluency in the spoken language, recommend reading. At first, the student may be confused, because they see reading and speaking as separate language skills, but in truth, there is a strong correlation between them. Reading increases understanding of vocabulary and patterns of expressions, and through this knowledge, the student gains confidence in their language skills. This increase in confidence tends to make the student a more fluent speaker.

Language skills are often taught in isolation from contextual cues such as gesture and natural communication management markers, which are often considered to be unnecessary, or even worse, to be mistakes. The situational context of an exchange is equally as important as, if not more important than, the exchange itself. Natural and reactionary role play in situations relevant to the student's usage of communication will add relevance to the communication and to the use of language code in the student's overall communication skills.

Finally, a specific language code is often considered in isolation from other language codes, and this separation of language code sets is both ineffective and counter-productive in other language code acquisition. The fusion of language codes is often referred to as language mixing, but this is a misunderstanding of what it actually taking place. The natural cognitive processing of language code allows for an extension of symbolic vocabulary and communication strategies that is inclusive rather than a segregating process. Successful multi-language code users realize the differences in code strategies between languages but do not make this territorial distinction when processing communication information. Those that do make the distinction cognitively, inhibit the processing of information by instilling an artificial separation of pattern understanding apparent in the codes. Instructing other language code vocabulary and strategies as an extension of the skills learned as part of the first language allows for the expansion on the overall communication skill set and a more seamless acquisition of the new language code.

CONCLUSION

The Twenty-First Century offers instructors a wealth of methodological aids that allow for a more personal and extensive learning environment for students. The learning process has not changed, but the dynamics of the classroom and the student's relationship with the world outside the classroom has. If instructors consider instructional methodology from a Twentieth Century point-of-view, their students will mentally walk out of the classroom, leaving the instructor behind as irrelevant in their education. There is a synergy of minds taking place through the seemingly boundless possibilities presented by the Internet and associated technologies, and this is transforming the environmental landscape of learning. Educators need to be aware of the transformative challenges this presents.

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THE AUTHOR

James Life *is a member of the Department of English Linguistics at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, Korea. His graduate degree is in Curriculum Development from the University of Victoria, Canada. His areas of interest and research include language strategies, conceptual expression, instructional methodology, and curriculum development. Email: jlifevic@gmail.com*

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Study Abroad: Preparing for a Journey of a Lifetime

Ross Miller
Otemon Gakuin University, Ibaraki, Japan

Todd Thorpe
Kinki University, Osaka, Japan

Studying abroad has become an increasingly common occurrence for students throughout Asia. To maximize the learning that can take place while students are abroad, schools should ensure that adequate pre-departure training is provided. This paper addresses the necessity of instruction and orientation prior to departure and highlights three core areas of instruction: communication skills, cultural matters, and practical matters. With this training, students can be better prepared to smoothly acculturate. The authors further introduce a variety of activities that can be used in the classroom to help students make the most of their time abroad.

INTRODUCTION

Universities and colleges throughout Asia understand the educational benefits of a sojourn abroad. In 2006 alone, over 718,000 Chinese, Indian, Korean, and Japanese tertiary students ventured abroad in search of personal, academic, and intercultural development (UNESCO Global Education Digest 2008, p.121). As a result, there are many educators throughout Asia, who as part of their jobs, are involved in developing pre-departure training courses for their students. While literature and research in the fields of intercultural communication and international educational exchange are in unanimous agreement on the importance of pre-departure training, the ideas of what the training should include and how it should be provided is less harmonious. This paper will discuss why pre-departure training is useful and necessary, what a pre-departure course should try to accomplish, and possible methods, techniques, and activities for carrying out such a course.

THE NECESSITY OF PRE-DEPARTURE TRAINING

There can be no doubt that studying abroad is an efficacious tool to increase language proficiency, learn about culture, and develop personally (Ishino et al., 1999; Grove, 1989). However, in order to make the most of their overseas experience, students need to be prepared with the appropriate skills, attitudes, and awareness, in addition to knowledge about the host country.

Interculturalist John Condon (1993) stresses that, for participants in overseas travel and study programs,

> Something else is needed besides the will to know people of other cultures, and that is a preparation for learning from one's experiences... Unless one is prepared to interpret what is happening, unless one is open to learn about one's own culturally influenced behavior as well as that of others, much that might have been gained will have been lost. (p. 52)

NAFSA, the Association of International Educators guide to Education Abroad for Advisers and Administrators, supports Condon's view by emphasizing the importance of pre-departure training and considering it to be an integral component of international education.

The significance of pre-departure training is also emboldened by Donald Batchelder of the Experiment of International Living, which pioneered the art of intercultural training for study abroad programs. He states that "cross-cultural preparation has to be concerned with developing approaches to the overseas experience . . . which help the student to open up to communication, friendship, and learning in ways acceptable to the hosts . . . we want each participant to have as profound an experience abroad as his of her capabilities allow" (Batchelder, 1993, p. 60). Without a well-developed pre-departure curriculum, participants may be ill-prepared for their experience abroad and consequently may fail to respond appropriately in the new culture or benefit from many of the opportunities available to them in the host country.

Whalen (1996) describes that a big fault of many pre-departure training and orientations is that they sometimes stress the need for students to give up their home culture and immerse themselves in a new one. He warns that to dismiss students' yearning for home by urging them to "find a home" within their new environment is to miss an opportunity for learning. The knowledge and experience of our home country will add to our cultural awareness and self-awareness when abroad.

THE GOALS OF PRE-DEPARTURE TRAINING

The amount of time schools devote to pre-departure training varies from institution to institution. While some institutions offer structured semester-long courses, others fail to provide their students with the basic communicative, cultural, and practical knowledge and skills that are needed for a sojourn. The advantages of having more time for pre-departure training are obvious, though even a little bit of time has the power to give students the tools and awareness that will help them handle a wide variety of situations, and thus take full advantage of their time abroad. For most students, studying abroad will be so far out of the realm of their own experience that they will not have a true understanding of what to expect or how to prepare. To help students come to grips with this challenge, the authors have found it helpful to provide instruction in three core areas: Communication Skills, Cultural Matters, and Practical Matters.

Communication Skills

Often students' biggest concern is that of not being able to communicate in the host country. To combat this concern, students should be made aware that there are certain conversations they will most likely have. By preparing in advance to talk about such topics as themselves, their families, their universities, their hometowns, their free-time activities, and the popular culture of home, they can easily create content that will facilitate communication in the host country. To prepare students for conversation topics such as these, the authors utilize a project called "poster book" in pre-departure training. These poster books provide students an opportunity to communicate in class and also help to foster communication while abroad, helping students with their confidence. Students are assigned the following five topics:

1. About Me
2. About My Family
3. About My University
4. Life as a (*19*) year old
5. About Japan

For each topic poster they produce, students are encouraged to use pictures, drawings, and colors in addition to writing text. They then use these posters as a jumping off point for conversation. They can refer to the posters as they speak, and thus have prepared subjects to talk about without having an actual script that might get in the way of inter-personal communication. Another advantage of the poster book is that in the case of a student doing a homestay, it can be a nice gift to present to the host family. See Appendix A for an example of a finished poster book.

In addition to the conversation topics listed above, there are also certain specific situations where students will be expected to communicate in the target language. If asked to think about it, students can usually come up with many of these situations on their own. The benefit of having them think of such situations is that they can begin the process of predicting the language that will occur, and thus prepare. For the sake of reference though, the creation of a series of "situation cards" can provide students with concrete examples and opportunities for practice. In our classes, we have developed a series of mini samples of speech in the following categories: family, university, eating out, health, airport, hotel, shopping, and general. Each card contains the situation (in both English and Japanese) on one side, and an example of what might be said on the other. If time is available in class, these cards can be used as starters for student generated conversations. This allows the teacher to monitor the output to see if the exchange truly follows its expected course. Feedback given to students can then help them more accurately understand the context of a given situation. Appendix B shows an example of the front and back of a situation card.

While this kind of preparation can be a great help to students, it is obviously impossible to prepare them for every speaking event they might be exposed to. Therefore, it is also important that they understand various communication strategies that they can use to help negotiate meaning. By teaching them how to ask for clarification, how to get someone's attention, and how to keep a conversation from coming to a dead stop when they don't understand, students will be more able to participate in a wide variety of speaking opportunities. Furthermore, especially with our students, we have found it very helpful to teach students the importance of using their imagination when trying to communicate. Imagination might help them strive for a new way to communicate something they can't say directly, and help them guess on the meaning of unknown words. By using their imaginations, students come to understand that a lack of understanding does not necessarily have to be the end of a conversation.

Cultural Matters

The term "culture shock" is often bandied about, and while its meaning is generally understood, students often have only a vague idea of what "culture" actually is. For the most part, their preconceptions are usually generalizations and stereotypes. It is important to emphasize to students that culture encompasses all aspects of a people, their daily lives, and their interactions, not just easily visible things like traditional dance or clothing. One way to get this message across is to use the visual of an iceberg to explain that culture goes much deeper than just what can easily seen on the surface. The importance of examining connections between surface and deep culture will help students in the process of crossing cultures. As they will be experiencing this culture first hand, it is hoped that they will be aware of the small details of deep culture and be fully able to appreciate that not only groups of people, but also individuals in those groups have their own unique culture.

That said, before departure, students should be made aware of the more obvious social do's and don'ts. Making them aware that norms involving acceptable clothing, eating habits, bathing habits, smoking habits, etc., could be quite different from "back home," could help them better fit in upon arrival. While they should try to learn about these things before they go, it is also important that they learn how to observe others. "When in Rome, do as the Romans do" only works when one actually observes what the "Romans" are doing. Games like Barnga (http://www.thiagi.com) and Bafa Bafa (a Google search for "Bafa Bafa" will provide many examples) can provide good training for both communication strategies and cultural awareness.

Another area of consideration is that of pop culture. Things like current movies, TV shows, music, and celebrities are often the conversation topics of "today." By having students research who and what is currently popular, they can take advantage of websites such as YouTube to expose themselves to current pop culture. By acquiring this type of background knowledge before arrival, they will be more able to participate in a wider variety of social interactions.

Practical Matters

This area of preparation encompasses the types of questions that students might have about the concrete aspects of their trip. In this area, the authors tend to focus on departure and arrival procedures, money, transportation, local geography, and problem solving.

Preparing for departure can be a very stressful situation for even the most seasoned of travelers. For our students, many of whom have never been away from their families, let alone traveled to a foreign country, this can be a particularly rough time. Therefore, suggestions on preparation can be especially helpful. Basic tips such as creating a packing list: deciding exactly what to bring and checking it off the list as it is packed can help make this process a smooth one. Also, explaining airport procedures such as check in, immigration, boarding, customs, and transportation to and from the airport will take some of the fear out of the unknown.

Another big concern of students is money, especially the question of how much they will need. While the answer to this question has many variables, for the most part (in our programs), their program fee has covered room, board, and education. By explaining that they will always have a roof over their heads, and food in their bellies, the question of money becomes less of a major concern. If possible though, it is beneficial to survey students who have previously participated in the study abroad program to see how much money they used and in what ways they used it, and then inform the current students.

While short-term study abroad students might not have to concern themselves with opening a bank account in the host country, long-term students might. Therefore, they should be made aware of the difference between a savings account and a checking account. For our students, we recommend that they open a bank account in their home country (in our case, Japan) that is affiliated with an international ATM system such as Plus or Cirrus. This gives them the ability to withdraw cash in the local currency directly from their Japanese bank accounts. It also provides an easy way for family back home to add more money to the account in case a student runs low on funds.

When it comes to money, students should also be made aware of how money is used in the host country. This includes teaching them about the different denominations used (including the names of the coins and bills), how to handle money, expectations of change, etc. Students are most likely unaware of the fact that they might meet with some resistance if they try to use a $100 bill to pay for a $1 bottle of water at the local convenience store. An explanation of the tipping culture of the host country should also be included in pre-departure training when money issues are being covered.

Transportation and local geography should also be explained in pre-departure training. Looking at maps of the target area will help students quickly orient themselves when they arrive. Western addresses that use sequential numbering and street names might be a new concept to many students. Map reading tips, and learning how to use cross streets and intersections as reference points can help students when asking for and receiving directions. Getting lost is a real fear, but in actuality being totally lost is a very rare occurrence. If students can learn certain main reference points (this street runs to the harbor, which is to the east, that street passes the big shopping center, etc.), they can develop an awareness of an area that does not require them to be able to pinpoint their location at any one time.

When it comes to getting around, examining how the public transportation system works will help students quickly adapt. Informing students about fares and fare rules, and whether or not they should buy monthly passes, ticket books, or individual tickets can help them prepare mentally (and financially) for getting from Point A to Point B. Furthermore, showing them how to identify different buses or bus stops allows them to know what to expect when they are ready to ride.

While there are many other practical matters that could be covered, perhaps the most important is the skill of problem solving. Students can be expected to face a number of crises while abroad, and a little instruction prior to their departure can help them solve many of these problems before they become major issues. It is important to teach students that many problems can be overcome if they remember to be communicative, assertive, flexible, and understanding. Students should be fully aware that if they have a problem, they never have to suffer alone, and that by talking to teachers, friends, or their host family, most of their problems can be solved.

CONCLUSION

While the amount of pre-departure training that can be carried out is dependent on an institution's program, the advantages of such training should not be dismissed. Pre-departure training can greatly help students get ready for the challenge of studying abroad. All too often stress and fear of the unknown can inhibit a student's ability to take full advantage of the opportunity a study abroad program presents. By preparing students culturally, introducing them to skills that will help facilitate communication, and by giving them practical information, they will be well prepared to embark on the journey of a lifetime.

THE AUTHORS

Ross Miller *is an associate professor with the Faculty of International Liberal Arts at Otemon Gakuin University in Ibaraki, Japan. His research interests include international education, materials development, and teacher training. Email: remorajp@gmail.com*

Todd Thorpe *is a lecturer in the School of Literature, Arts and Cultural Studies at Kinki University in Osaka, Japan. He is currently the Program Chair and Publicity Chair for the JALT Study Abroad Special Interest Group. His research interests include international education, global issues, and service learning. Email: toddthorpe@homtail.com*

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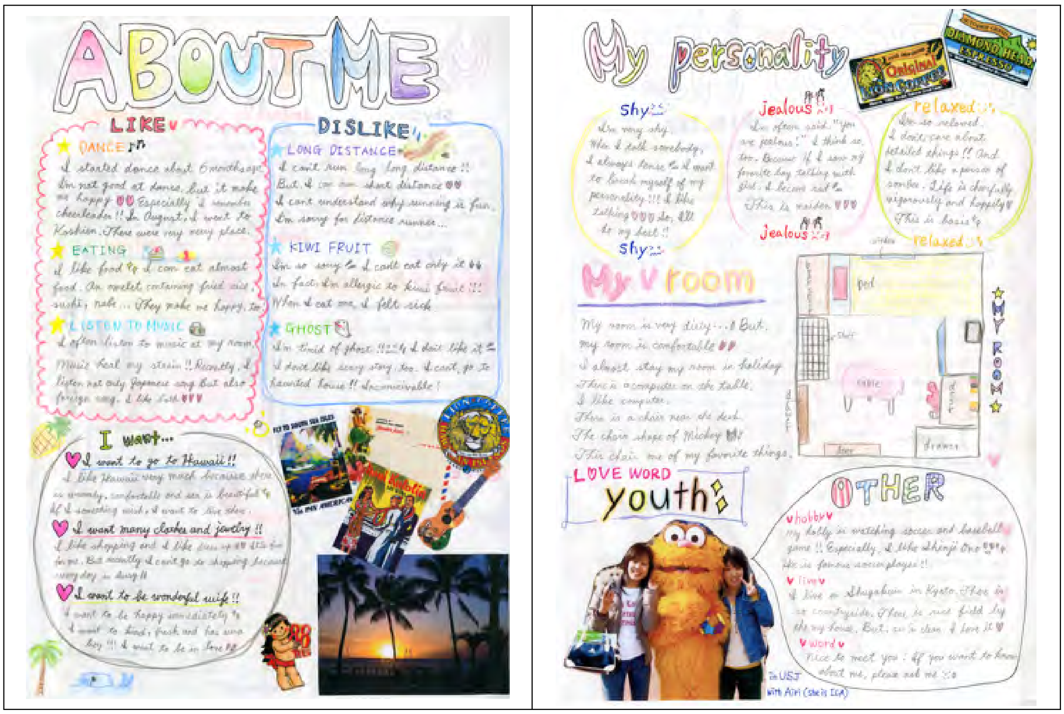
APPENDIX A

Poster Book Example (Topic: About Me)



APPENDIX B

Example of a Situation Card

Front of card explains the situation in Japanese and English

洗濯をどのようにすればいいかをホストファミリーに聞きたい場合 You want to ask your host family how to do your laundry.

Back of card explains what you would say in that situation

I'd like to do my laundry. When you have time could you show me how to do it?

Evaluating CALL Materials: How About an iPhone?

Stafford Lumsden
Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand

This paper details the development of a piece of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) material in the form of an application (app) for Apple Inc.'s iPhone platform (including the iPod Touch and iPad). The CALL material described is a Korean vocabulary learning program suitable for beginning learners who are new to Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL). The paper discusses the rationale and goals behind choosing the form and technology used in the project, and the underlying pedagogy, most of which is from English as a Second Language learning contexts but is applicable here. In addition, the development process is outlined, and an evaluation of a prototype app is offered. By the end of April 2010, 50 million iPhones (Kincaid, 2010) and over 200 million iPods Touch had been sold (Kingsley-Hughs, 2008) worldwide by Apple Inc. since their release in 2007. The key features behind the choice of Apple's platform are the devices' utilization of touchscreen interface and Internet connectivity and low barrier to entry in terms of usability.

WHY THE IPHONE?

In his article *Emerging Technologies Mobile Computer Trends: Lighter, Faster, Smarter*, Godwin-Jones (2008) traces the development of Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) from tablet computing to cellular telephony over the last ten years. At the time of his writing, only the second generation of Apple's iPhone had been released and the ability to run third-party applications (apps) natively (i.e., with both the approval of Apple and through Apple's own software development tools) had only just started with the launch of Apple's iTunes App store. Goodwin-Jones actually comes out in favor of Google's open source phone operating system *Android* for use in MALL, which may have been the correct call, with Android handsets outselling the iPhone for the first time in April 2010 (NPD Group, 2010).

While Android continues to increase marketshare, the iTunes App store and apps in general have become both more robust and more embedded in the consumer's consciousness and, indeed, the iPhone itself had an upgrade in hardware and performance with the release of the iPhone 3GS in June 2009. Ultimately, the choice of iPhone (and iPod Touch / iPad), as the platform for deployment of CALL materials, rests on two assertions made by Godwin-Jones: language support and the leveraging of social media and networks into the language learning process.

The iPhone's in-built language support is enormous, including non-Roman alphabets such as Korean, Hebrew, Japanese, Chinese (Traditional and Simplified), Russian, Serbian (Cyrillic), and Thai. Godwin-Jones notes that robust language support is required for devices “to open up new vistas for language learning” (2008, p. 8). (It should be noted that Godwin-Jones is presupposing access to technologies like iPhone in markets such as China and India, where in reality cheaper “feature phones” are the norm.)

Godwin-Jones (2008) also advocates leveraging social media and social networks in the language learning process. The iPhone does very well in this respect with a number of apps able to access and integrate with social networks and location-based services such as Facebook, Twitter, and Four Square. Finally, the availability of resources and accessibility of programming tools for the iPhone platform make the iPhone more attractive than other similar (Android) devices. The Apple iPhone Software Developer Kit (SDK) is free (although a one-time US$99.00 fee is required to have one’s first app published in the App Store) and there are a huge number of resources available for programming apps.

WHERE TO BEGIN: MATCHING DEVELOPMENT GOALS WITH PEDAGOGY

The original drafts of the app being developed for this project might well have ended up pushing the boundaries of iPhone development and becoming the epitome of what the underlying technologies are capable of. It would also have been expensive, confusing to learners, and in the end, not that useful in learning Korean vocabulary (see Appendix A). Therefore, it was necessary to go back to the basics of language acquisition, use those basics as goals for learners using the app, and trying to fit those goals (or reshape them) to the capabilities of the technology.

Ultimately to learn a word (vocabulary acquisition) is to recognize it as a word and then enter it into the mental lexicon (Ellis, 1995). It is the entry to the mental lexicon that this app is seeking to either do or improve. Vocabulary acquisition occurs in three phases:

(1) **Presentation**: A learner is presented with a new word for the first time. The context in which it is presented can vary. It can be presented without context, in a situational or non-linguistic context, or textually, in a linguistic context.
(2) **Semanticizing**: The meaning of the word becomes or is made clear by giving the learner the meaning, guessing the meaning through context or word form, or by looking it up in a glossary or dictionary.
(3) **Consolidation**: The relationship between the word and the word meaning is made lasting through, for example, activities that result in the learner still knowing what the word means after some time. This happens either through incidental learning, practice, or rote memorization. (Mondria and Mondria-deVries, 1994)

The question arises as to what is the most efficient and effective way to facilitate vocabulary acquisition? Ellis (1995) argues that vocabulary acquisition reflects elements of implicit and explicit learning, where implicit learning occurs through reading, with new vocabulary picked up either through guessing the meaning from context or form, and explicit learning taking place by undertaking memorization tasks such as using flash cards to rote-learn vocabulary and meaning. Ellis also notes that in the early stages of foreign language learning, CALL has a role as a programmed provider of drill, practice, and testing. In addition, computers can be programmed to deliver structure of training practice and testing to optimize the rate of vocabulary acquisition.

There are a number of problems traditionally associated with memorizing vocabulary. Mondria and Mondria-de Vries (1994) outline a number of these, noting that the use of lists of vocabulary (often included in the back of learners' course books) are inefficient, because the difficulty of the words to be learned varies with some learned faster than others while some are "over-learned" because of their inclusion with more difficult ones or because the learner already knows the word (p. 48). Likewise, the order of words in a list may wrongly offer help to the learner who might memorize a word within the list but be unable to recall it in isolation. And finally, vocabulary is forgotten over time.

While Ellis (1995) advocates the in-depth processing approach to vocabulary acquisition through the extensive use of collocation, keyword processing and other mnemonic activities, Mondria and Mondria-de Vries (1994) prescribe an approach based on the expanded rehearsal strategy. Based on Landauer and Bjork (1978), a vocabulary item is presented to a learner and initially tested after a brief delay. If the learner correctly recalls it, the delay before the next test is systematically increased, whereas an incorrect answer facilitates a shorter time before retesting (Mondria & Mondria-de Vries, 1994).

Such expanded rehearsal draws on the psychological learning principles of distributed practice and retrieval practice. Anderson (1990) calls expanded rehearsal an "extremely robust and powerful phenomenon" (p. 207). The advantages of using this approach are threefold. Learner motivation is increased through less exposure to incorrect answers, the approach can be applied to a number of different learning contexts and subjects, and increased intervals allow for the introduction of new vocabulary (Mondria & Mondria-deVries, 1994). However, there are some disadvantages. It requires learners to organize their own learning, placement of a word on a list may wrongly offer assistance, and words in the tail of the list receive less attention (Mondria & Mondria-de Vries, 1994). A pre-prepared set of flash cards in which all the target language occurs equally and at bigger intervals overcomes these difficulties and indeed prevents all of them if presented in the form of an item of CALL material. Therefore, it was decided that the best way to encompass the expanding rehearsal strategy, distributed practice and retrieval practice in an iPhone app is to recreate Leitner's (1972) "Hand Computer."

PUTTING THE HAND COMPUTER IN THE LEARNER'S HAND

The irony of the name and new setting of Leitner's vocabulary learning system is not lost on this author. While computers were not quite the room-sized, vacuum-tubed monoliths they were a decade prior to Leitner's ideas (they were more man-sized by 1972) it was doubtlessly difficult for Leitner to imagine a device that could fit in a pocket and have thousands of times more processing power than the computers of his day. The hand computer works as follows:

> The procedure in using the hand computer is as follows (see Fig. 3). Every word to be learned is put on a card: the foreign-language word on one side, the translation on the other (preferably in a different color so that it is immediately clear which is the front and which is the back). The cards are placed in compartment 1 (30-40 cards at the most), after which they are gone through. What the learner knows is moved on to compartment 2, what (s)he does not know is put in the back of compartment 1 again. When there are only three words left in compartment 1, the compartment is replenished with 30-40 new words, and words can be learned and moved on again. After this has been repeated a few times, compartment 2 becomes filled up, and the time is ripe to repeat the words in compartment 2: what the learner still knows goes into compartment 3; what (s)he does not immediately recall goes back into the back of compartment 1.
>
> In this way about the breadth of a finger is cleared out of compartment 2. This is also the principle of the hand computer in a nutshell: whatever is "known" goes into the next compartment; anything "not known/no longer known" should go back into compartment 1. After some time compartments 3 and 4 will become filled up. In that case the same procedure is adopted as in compartment 2. When eventually compartment 5 also becomes filled up, and room is to be made there too, the learner may in principle throw the cards away if (s)he still knows them: for by then, (s)he has seen them so often, and so much distributed in time at that, that we may speak of real knowledge. An alternative possibility, not mentioned by Leitner, is working with a compartment 5 that is so big that it need not be cleared out. In this case the cards may just be kept, while occasionally a sample of 10 cards is drawn from it in order to see if the words are still known. So in this way, compartment 5 contains the learner's complete word knowledge. (Mondria & Mondria-de Vries, 1994, p. 52)

Another way might be to visualize the hand computer as in Figure 1.

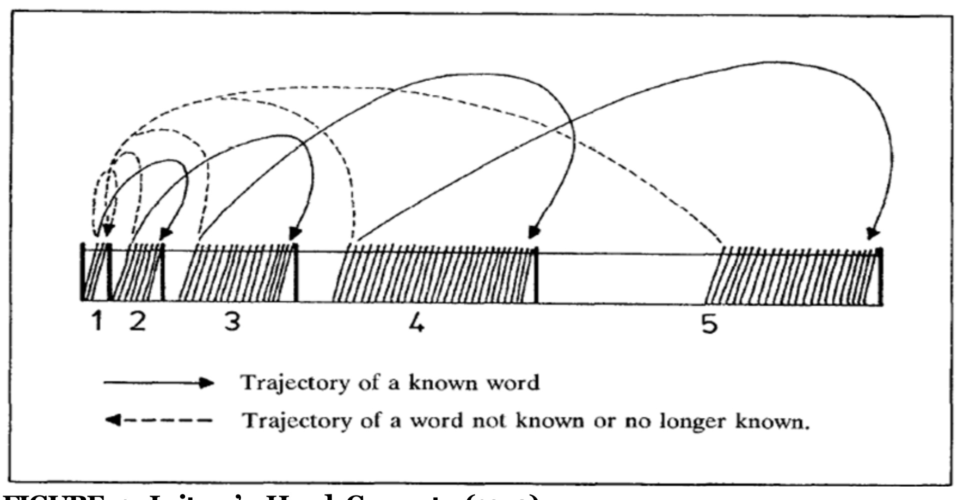


FIGURE 1. Leitner's Hand Computer(1972)

In the case of our app, much (if not all) of the preparation required to construct the hand computer is eliminated and saves time. While this may be an advantage for some, Landauer and Bjork (as cited in Mondria & Mondria-de Vries, 1994) note that the attachment that comes from constructing handmade materials can be motivational and beneficial in learning vocabulary. Likewise some of the elements that make it a tactile activity of moving and sorting word cards, beneficial to kinesthetic learners, is lost, although some tactility is retained through the use of the touch screen.

There are numerous other advantages to the hand computer system. By concentrating on unknown words (or quickly moving known words), vocabulary items receive the precise amount of attention required. The order in which words are learned is flexible; therefore, the position of a word in regards to others no longer wrongly offers help to learners. The increased intervals between practice sessions offer distributed practice, ensuring long-term memory. Progress with the physical cards and shoe box of Leitner's original model showed learner progress with a growing number of cards in various compartments. This could be replicated visually in the iPhone App. Perhaps the hand computer's biggest advantage is its ability to be used in ways other than those outlined by the author or documentation (Hubbard, 1988). It is not locked in to being solely for use in language acquisition. It could also be utilized for learning contexts and subjects such as History (learning days), Biology (terms), and Chemistry (formulae) (Mondria & Mondria-de Vries, 1994). This bodes well for the commercialization of our iPhone app. The base app could be sold for a very low fee (US$0.99) or even free while the "cards" for the hand computer could be sold separately for different subjects, in addition to learning Korean.

Overall, the hand computer model as executed in the iPhone app is the most efficient way for learning vocabulary, utilizing the expanding rehearsal strategy, and encompassing the psychological learning principles of distributed practice and retrieval practice. It is better than using lists and is flexible both in terms of content and individual learner type.

APP DEVELOPMENT: DREAMS VS. REALITY

At the time of writing, development of our app, dubbed "iHangeul" ("Hangeul" is the name of the Korean alphabet) is only in the earliest of draft stages. Mockups of the user interface (UI) are included in the Appendices B and C, while the complex mathematical algorithm for the distribution of "cards" in the hand computer model is yet to be written. This is not to say that it is impossible: the hand computer has been developed as a desktop computer program previously (see Mulder, 1992, Van der Linden, 1993a, 1993b, and Mondria & Mondria-de Vries, 1994). In addition, there is at least one app available in the iTunes app store that utilizes the Leitner hand computer model. It is called "Flash My Brain" (http://www.flashmybrain.com/) and focuses on SAT testing (and some language learning, especially Chinese/Mandarin) for a US audience. There are also a number of Korean language learning apps in the app store. However, none seem to use the Leitner system, and there is a considerable barrier to entry for end users in that they are not very competitively priced. Price is one of the central factors in this project: making the app accessible to learners at prices ranging from US$4.99 to $19.99, with 300 Korean words for free, and more "sets" of cards available at US$0.99 each. This makes it the most competitive Korean learning, if not general learning, flash card app in the app store.

For the app to progress to that stage however, a professional iPhone app developer would need to be employed: this is a major stumbling block to progress. However the graphic design side of the program is under control, as evidenced in the appendices, which contains a number of screen shots of a mock up of our proposed app.

The subsequent evaluation of the app rests on the assumption that the app has been finished and deployed. The evaluation attempts to consider all the real life limitations that apps are subject to. When the app is actually deployed, some interesting research could be done, comparing and contrasting the ideas and selection of pedagogy here with what actually eventuated.

EVALUATION: TEACHER AND LEARNER FIT, APPROPRIATENESS JUDGMENTS

It seems clear that Hubbard (1988) was not taking into account mobile computing and phone platforms when he talked about CALL materials evaluation. In terms of an operational description, our iPhone app is constrained because of its form and because of the form of associated hardware. For instance, it only employs one activity type (memorizing vocabulary) and utilizes only one presentational scheme - flash cards. But, by itself, the iPhone was selected for its small form factor, to always be on the Internet, and its processing power relative to the task. To conform to Hubbard’s operational description (2006), the app would have to be part of a broader piece of courseware, wherein the app and iPhone are just one activity and presentational scheme.

Other issues with Hubbard’s (1988) operational description are the relative lack of accompanying material and documentation. There is (will be) a detailed description accompanying the app in the iTunes store. However, in conforming to Apple’s SDK design guidelines, there is a certain similarity between apps and conventions related to basic operations, such as going back and selecting items, that are inherent to the design, mitigating the need for lengthy help and tutorial materials. Anyone who has used merely a handful of apps will be accustomed to these conventions and at ease with the UI and operations contained therein. Mention should also be made of ease of input. As alluded to previously, the iPhone has a unique touch interface that is fairly intuitive, while in the app, input is restricted to simply choosing “yes” or “no” for indicating whether a learner has memorized a word, and an on screen “virtual keyboard” is provided when written input is required. Feedback is handled through a visual representation of Leitner’s hand computer, showing learners how many “cards” they have left to master at a given level, as well as feedback through integration with Twitter and Facebook, allowing for some motivation from learners’ peers or class groups if each of those services is set up for a class as part of the course. Finally, the issue of timing is paramount as the length of the interval between testing a learner on a particular vocabulary item is central to the success of the hand computer model: while intervals between testing in a session (and indeed over sessions when the app is quite) are handled by algorithms in the app: a calendar, an alarm, and pop-up message reminders operate between sessions to remind learners to continue to practice.

Teacher fit proves problematic here as the developer is also the evaluator, and therefore, all of the developer's assumptions about language learning as manifested in the app correspond to those of the evaluator (Hubbard, 1988). It is hoped that the app actually reflects the evaluator's beliefs about language learning through providing meaningful practice in the early stages of the acquisition of Korean as a second language and especially that it is done in the most efficient manner possible.

Learner fit, however, poses fewer problems. The app has been developed and chosen with a specific group of learners in mind (Hubbard, 1988), filling the need of beginner Korean learners, a group which might include new arrivals to Korea who, like the author, are language teachers themselves but need a solid start in Korean acquisition, and a group of which a large segment might own iPhones and iPods Touch. Learner variables are considered, with the app aimed at learners regardless of age or gender and, it is hoped, matching their needs and interests. The difficulty is staggered, starting off with learning the Korean alphabet and then 30 vocabulary items: numbers, days of the week, and the ten most frequent verbs in the level 1 Test of Proficiency in Korean (TOPIK) test (KICE, 2005). Downloading more "cards" for the app can increase difficulty. The ultimate linguistic goal is to promote language acquisition through learner autonomy, with the app and iPhone uniquely suited for use not only outside the classroom, but virtually anywhere the learner takes their phone.

Overall, the app fits into this evaluator's view of the role of CALL in general and can be judged as appropriate, offering actual learning and practice of the target language. It is efficient in that it can be used anywhere. Less time spent doing something else would not necessarily yield equal or better results (Hubbard, 1988). The apps deployment on the iPhone platform lends itself to learners being willing to spend additional time using the software, negating the advantage of doing an alternative activity.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper has discussed the development of a piece of CALL software for learning Korean, the platform best suited for its deployment, and an evaluation of the software within the framework set out by Hubbard (1988). Utilizing Apple's iPhone platform for its unique user interface, computational prowess and portability - which allows learners to use the software almost anywhere they would take their mobile phone - this paper calls for the development of an App to be developed and distributed through Apple's iTunes Store.

Underlying the application is Leitner's (1972) model of the "Hand Computer." Chosen for its efficiency in vocabulary learning, the app, dubbed "iHangeul," brings Leitner's paper cards and shoebox into the 21st century, using the iPhone to implement an expanded rehearsal strategy, and to realize word distribution and retrieval practice in a form closer to that of the original paper cards used in the early 1970s. The efficacy of this form of vocabulary learning is borne out by research by Mondria and Mondria-de Vries (1994).

The app itself is still being developed. The appendices of this paper, however, outline the app and provide both hand-drawn drafts and actual iPhone screen shots detailing the flow and functionality of the app. Extrapolating these materials and applying Hubbard's (1988) framework for CALL materials evaluation, we find "iHangeul" fulfills a large number of the framework's criteria, especially in terms of learner fit and appropriateness for being part of courseware for a program of study. Of particular note is the flexibility offered by the app in terms of addressing learners' individual needs, promoting autonomy outside the classroom. It is envisaged that the app will be available free from the iTunes App Store, but additional "cards" for vocabulary (and indeed other subjects, not limited to language acquisition) will be offered at a nominal fee, thereby offering value for cost, or as Hubbard puts it - being worth the investment.

THE AUTHOR

Stafford Lumsden *has taught in New Zealand and South Korea for eight years. Having received an undergraduate degree in Political Science, Stafford studied Applied Linguistics at Victoria University, Wellington, graduating with an MA TESOL in 2011. Currently he delivers a TESOL training course at Seoul National University of Education. An active member of KOTESOL, Stafford is a proud member of the Seoul Chapter and was elected to the KOTESOL National Council in 2010 as the International Conference Co-chair. Email: Stafford.lumsden@gmail.com*

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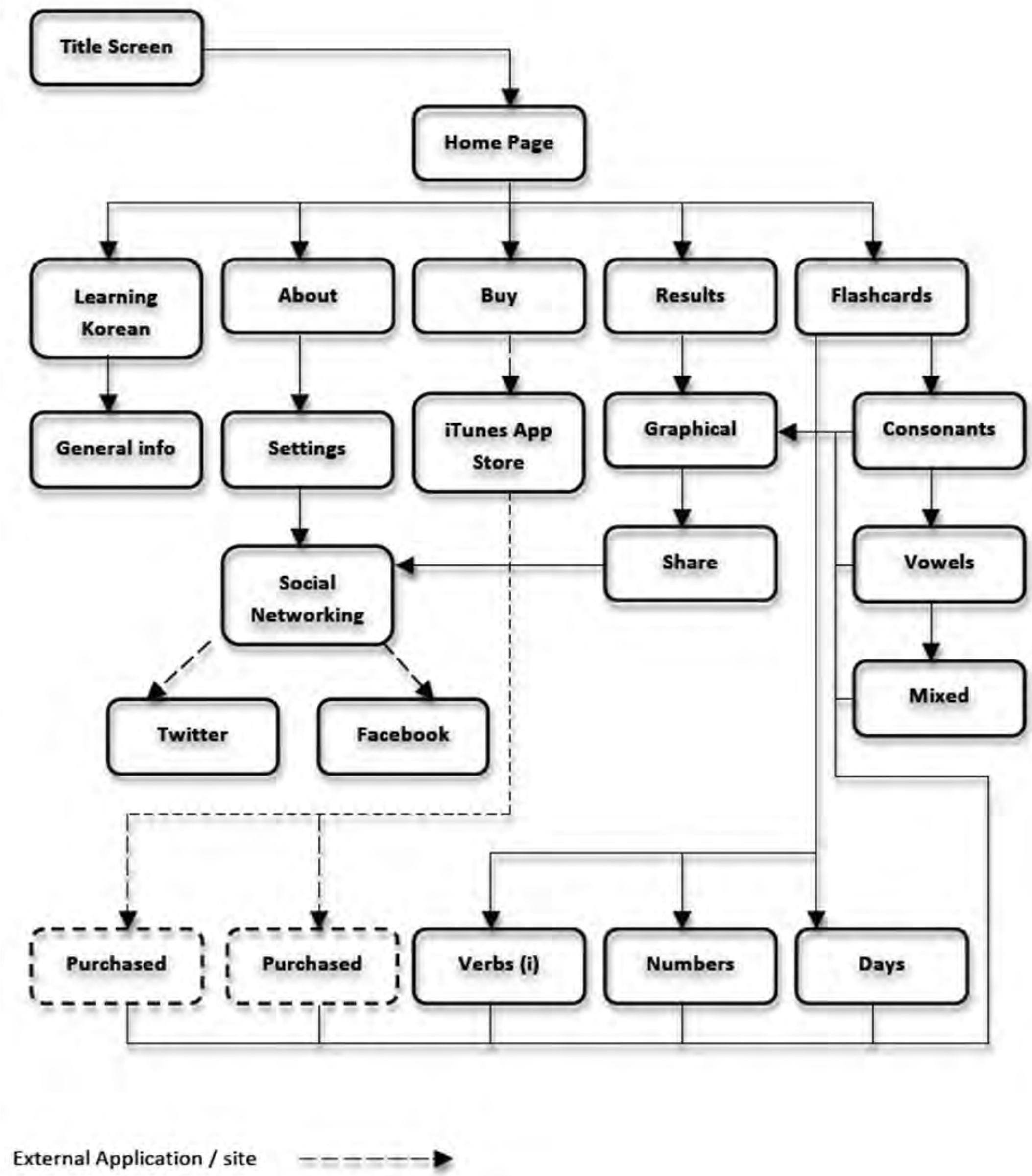
APPENDIX A

The "Skeleton": A brief overview of the flow of the application

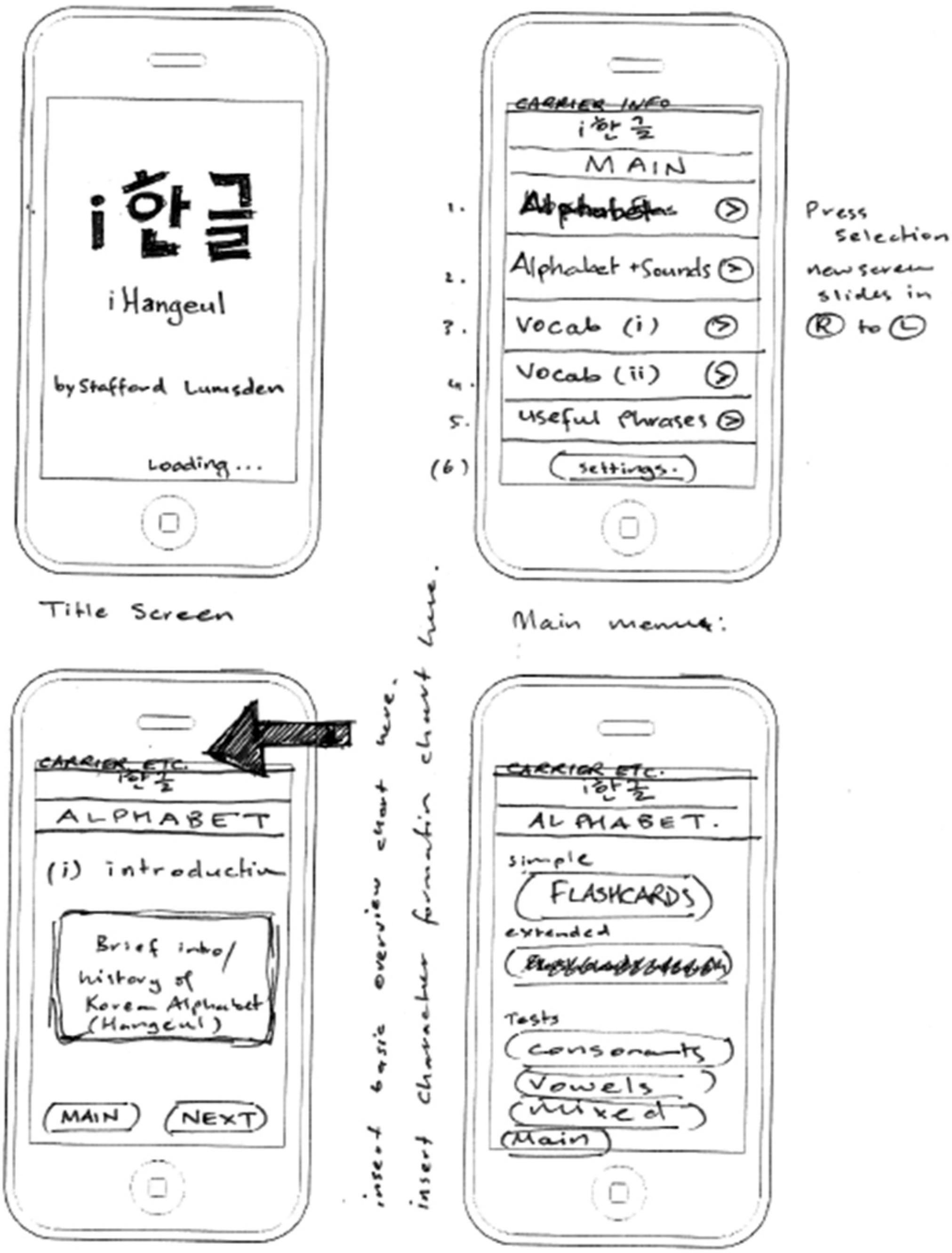


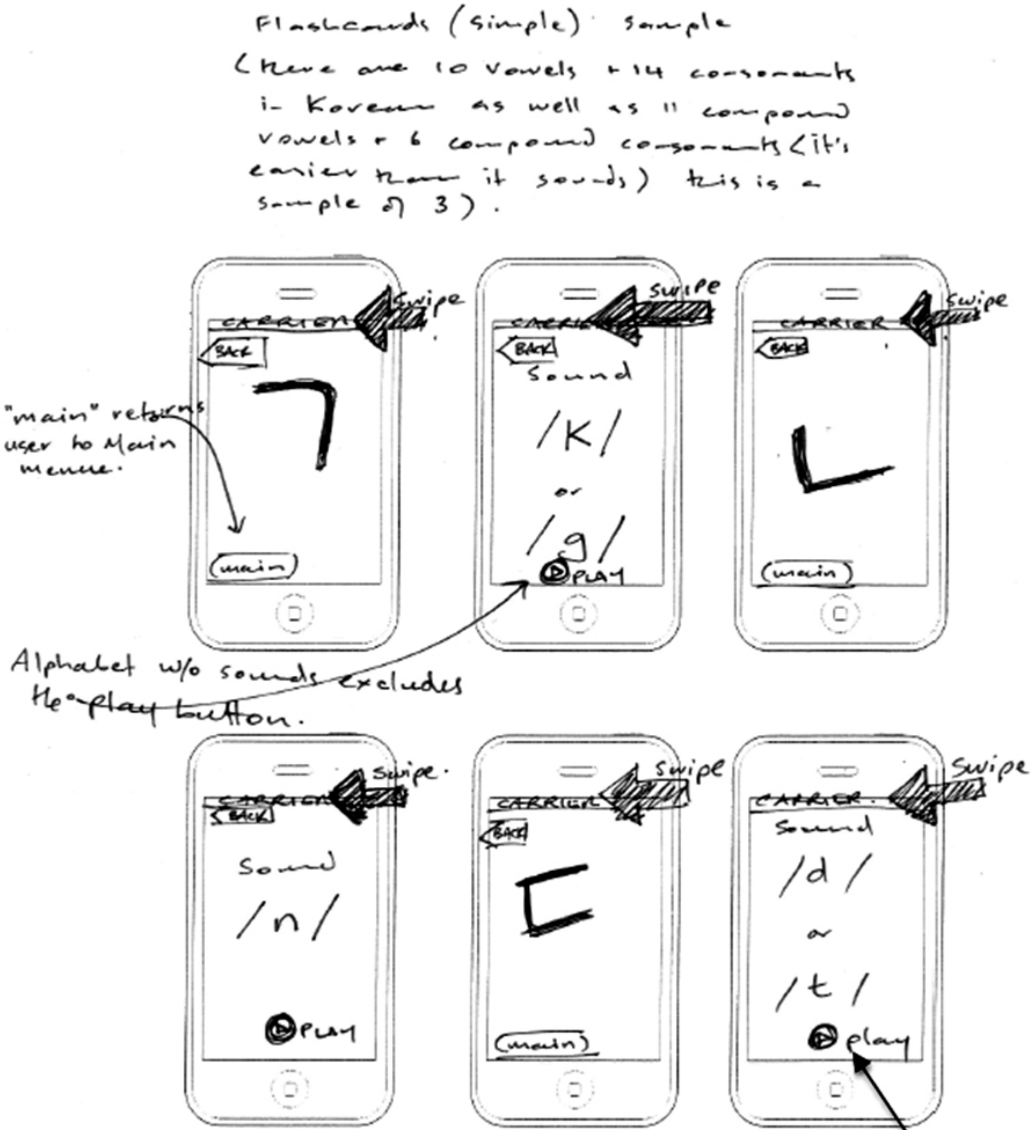
APPENDIX B

Screenshots

APPENDIX C

Original Concept Drawings





An update will include an option to play sounds both for alphabet and vocabulary

Peer Teaching with Authentic Materials in University English Courses

Raymond Wong
Doshisha Women's College of Liberal Arts, Kyoto, Japan

Nathan P. Krug
Saitama University, Saitama, Japan

Frank Tucker
Osaka Prefecture University, Osaka, Japan

This paper demonstrates how peer teaching in small groups using authentic materials selected by both university teachers and students can be incorporated into general EFL and EAP courses. This will help deepen the learning experience, raise student motivation, and broaden the content area beyond the narrow focus of most university textbooks. Allowing learners to choose their own reading texts and develop related materials in a scaffolded environment is the first stepping stone to helping students develop more independent learning skills. Moreover, by allowing learners to select their own materials, the texts can cater more specifically to the students' interests, and by peer teaching the selected material, the students are engaged with the material at a deeper level. The paper also includes the survey results of how students have evaluated this component of their EAP or EFL course at three different universities in Japan.

INTRODUCTION

A skilled classical composer manipulates a symphony of musical instruments to produce inspirational musical scores. Likewise, language teachers can also utilizean eclectic mix of teaching techniques and materials to create a more conducive learning environment for their unique groups of language students. Two of these major instruments available to university English teachers are peer teaching and authentic materials. Authentic material or text has been defined by Morrow (as cited in Gilmore, 2007, p. 97) as "a stretch of real language, produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience and designed to convey a real message of some sort." Incorporating authentic language materials into a language syllabus can raise topic interest in the learning materials, particularly if the students have prior knowledge of the topic (Ainley, 2002). Tomlinson (1998) has stressed that the impact of the learning materials is important in motivating the learners. In addition, using authentic materials can humanize the course materials (Tomlinson, 2003). In some cases, carefully selected authentic materials can supplement and invigorate uninspiring content found in some textbooks. Furthermore, authentic materials have the added advantages of providing realistic models for more advanced learners (Basturkmen, 2001; Devitt, 1997), increasing on-task behavior in the classroom (Peacock, 1997), and offering additional opportunities to practice skills learned in class (Assinder, 1991).

Incorporating peer teaching in the classroom also has a number of benefits. These include deeper learning and better recall (Jacobs, Hurley, & Unite, 2008), students learn by preparing teaching materials (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, as cited in McCafferty, Jacobs, & Iddings, 2006), and students can learn as much from their peers as from their teachers (Reid, as cited in McCafferty, et al., 2006). Furthermore, the model of peer teaching used by the authors affords the learners more opportunities to use multiple macroskills (reading, writing, listening, speaking) while developing materials for, and presenting them to, their peers. In our context, peer teaching occurs when students, who are also the designated topic experts, select and produce materials for their classmates and subsequently present and lead a discussion on their topics in small groups of four to five students.

SETTING UP PEER TEACHING USING AUTHENTIC MATERIALS

The authors use peer teaching and authentic materials in some of their courses. At Osaka Prefecture University (OPU) and Saitama University, no textbook is used in courses which incorporate peer teaching with authentic materials. At these particular institutions, peer teaching is used in conjunction with authentic materials in general English courses to provide variety for students and heighten their interest while, at the same time, strengthening and supporting the development of all four macro skills. Somewhat differently, at Doshisha Women's College of Liberal Arts (DWCLA), peer teaching and authentic materials are used to supplement a reading skills textbook. In the DWCLA context, the peer teaching and authentic materials sessions take around 40 minutes of a regular 90-minute lesson. These peer teaching sessions are repeated four times during the semester at fortnightly intervals. Early in the semester, the teacher at DWCLA brings in a sample of the worksheet, demonstrates how to create such a worksheet, and explains the rationale for using it. Guidelines are given for the authentic text to be selected by the students. These guidelines include: (a) the authentic text should fit on one A-4 page, (b) be 300 to 400 words in length, and (c) the students are free to select any topic that interests them. Groups, usually consisting of four students, are formed. The students are asked to decide the order of the peer teacher in their group. Once the order of the peer teachers has been decided, each designated materials-maker and peer teacher takes turns in leading their small groups.

The format of the worksheet that the peer teachers produce for their peer teaching sessions is very similar at the three campuses. At OPU and Saitama University, the students create a worksheet based on the template in Appendix A. At DWCLA, the worksheet has been slightly modified. In the first section, it is a matching exercise between the key words and their definitions in English. The discussion section has been reduced from four discussion questions to two questions. The additional space created is used for a comprehension question section. The aim of incorporating this section into the worksheet is to provide the peer teacher with additional opportunities to practice their scanning skills, encourage deeper interaction with the content and text, and to create comprehension questions for their classmates. An example of a worksheet produced by a DWCLA student is included in Appendix B.

Some language support is given to the peer teacher in how to conduct their peer teaching sessions. These include peer teaching phrases like: “Is there another key point?” “What does _____ mean?” and “No, that is not quite right. Anyone else?”

STUDENT FEEDBACK

Pedagogically sound classroom practice should incorporate input from the students. In the peer teaching classes, a questionnaire was administered at the completion of one semester to elicit student feedback about peer teaching and the use of authentic materials in their classes. The questionnaire was bilingual, in English and Japanese, to ensure that the students could clearly understand the items being addressed in the survey instrument. The questionnaire consisted of 16 five-point Likert-type questions and three open-ended questions spread over two A-4 pages. It was administered in the middle of a 90-minute lesson to avoid the possibility of students rushing the completion of the questionnaire when it is given at the end of the lesson. Any questionnaires with incomplete answers for the initial 16 Likert Scale items were discarded, which resulted in a final sample of 159 questionnaires analyzed.

Chambers (1999) found that offering choices to the students can be a powerful empowering motivating factor in the classroom. This was affirmed by the students’ responses to Items 1 and 2 of the questionnaire. Looking at Item 1 in Table 1, it is clear that students want to have some input in the selection of content and materials to be studied in their courses, with 65% wanting to have the option of choosing the materials that they study. Item 2 in Table 1 shows that 45% of the students do not think that the teacher should always choose the topic and materials that they study, indicating that they want to be involved in selecting their learning materials.

A small majority of the students at the three different universities (55%) found they could remember the content of their chosen article better than content found in a textbook (Item 9, Table 1) and 46% of the students felt that they could remember the meanings of new words better after having peer-taught their assigned group of students (Item 11, Table 1). This is in line with the findings of Jacobs et al. (2008), who stated that students have deeper learning and better recall of content if they actually have been a peer tutor to their classmates. Of course, not all students agreed with this, but only 12% of the respondents felt that they did not remember the content of their chosen authentic materials better than the content found in a textbook. By teaching something to their peers, a significant portion of the students also found that it was easier to remember the meanings of new words. This is very much like the generative use mentioned by Nation (2008).

TABLE 1. Results of Questionnaire

	SD	D	UD	A	SA
1. I like to be able to choose my own topics and materials to study in an English class.	1%	11%	23%	46%	19%
2. The teacher should always choose the topics and materials that we study.	8%	37%	36%	16%	3%
3. The content of the articles we study is more interesting than the content typically found in textbooks.	2%	11%	42%	36%	9%
4. I like to read and discuss authentic articles written for native English speakers.	7%	23%	26%	31%	12%
5. I prefer it if my teacher makes the initial selection of topics or websites before we choose articles to discuss.	2%	16%	30%	35%	18%
6. I like having the freedom to choose any article that I want to present rather than receiving teacher-chosen materials.	4%	14%	37%	31%	13%
7. Making the article worksheet allows me to practice some of the reading skills that I learnt in previous classes.	1%	19%	33%	35%	13%
8. I was more motivated to do the article worksheets and discussions because the articles were chosen by students, not by teachers or textbook writers.	1%	14%	37%	33%	15%
9. I can remember the chosen content of my article more than the content in a textbook.	1%	11%	22%	37%	28%
10. The article presentation helped me to learn more new words than simply by reading and studying a textbook.	3%	17%	34%	36%	9%
11. It is easier for me to remember the meanings of new words that I have taught to other students in my group.	3%	15%	36%	35%	11%
12. Teaching something to others is a good experience for me.	2%	2%	7%	45%	44%
13. I enjoy presenting a topic to others in a small group more than presenting it to the whole class.	1%	3%	15%	37%	45%
Minutes	**1-19**	**20-39**	**40-59**	**60-79**	**>80**
14. Time taken to find a suitable article.	8%	33%	31%	21%	8%
15. Time taken to make the group worksheet.	1%	13%	30%	33%	25%
	Poor	**Not very good**	**Okay**	**Good**	**Very good**
16. Self-rated performance as peer teacher.	8%	31%	40%	19%	3%

A detailed summary of the results of the questionnaire is provided in Table 1 above. It ranges from “strongly disagree” to “undecided” to “strongly agree.” Reviewing the results of Items 3 and 8 clearly shows that a significant portion of the students, 45% and 48%, respectively, found the authentic materials chosen by their peers to be more interesting and motivating than the content found in a textbook, thus giving credence to the positive motivational impact of using authentic materials in the classroom.

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1991) have suggested that some students suffer from foreign language anxiety and do not perform well when spotlighted in the class. An overwhelming number of the students indicated their preference for presenting their article in small groups as opposed to a more conventional whole-class presentation. Moreover, allowing a number of small groups to operate simultaneously provided more opportunities for multiple students to present their article in a shorter time frame as well as giving the peer teachers comfort in numbers.

Encouraging the students to make materials for their classmates and then peer teach them offers the students additional opportunities to practice the reading skills they have learnt, particularly in a reading skills-based course. Almost half of the students at the three universities confirm this as seen by the results in Item 7 of the questionnaire.

The last three items in Table 1 show the time taken to find a suitable article that conforms to the requirements set out and make the materials for the peer teaching sessions. The majority of the students took between 20 to 79 minutes to find a suitable authentic text, but they took even longer to make the peer teaching worksheets. The majority of the students took at least 40 minutes to produce the worksheet associated with their selected authentic text. Given the reasonable amount of time taken to prepare the learning materials, the DWCLA teacher felt that it justified the 10% of the course grade assigned to preparing the materials. A further 10% was based on their performance and the amount of English used in the peer-teaching sessions. In total, the peer-teaching sessions were assigned 20% of the overall course grade of the academic reading course at DWCLA, which is similar to the weighting applied at the other two universities.

In the final item in Table 1, almost 40% of the students indicated dissatisfaction with their performance as the small-group peer teacher. This could be due to insufficient scaffolding and preparation. Teacher review of the peer teachers' worksheets also indicates that more work needs to be done in the area of paraphrasing to extract key points from the authentic texts.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, authentic reading materials, used in conjunction with peer teaching in small groups, clearly provide learning benefits when incorporated into small-group work within the language learning classroom. A significant portion of the students considered the addition of authentic reading materials and peer teaching to their courses to be motivating and effective in assisting them to learn new words and content. Of course, such self-ratings must be interpreted cautiously. Further research, such as using pre- and post-tests for breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge, is needed to determine if the peer teaching sessions and using authentic materials in the courses are effective in raising both the learners' passive and active vocabulary. Moreover, a reading skills test could be conducted to ascertain whether the students' reading skills have actually improved, as suggested by some students' self-ratings. Giving learners a choice is a very powerful motivating force that may not be quantitatively measurable. Overall, the students at the three campuses viewed using authentic materials and small-group peer teaching as a positive and valuable step in their learning process.

THE AUTHORS

Raymond Wong *has been teaching English since 1994 and taught ESL in Australia and EFL in the Czech Republic, Hong Kong, and Japan. He is a part-time lecturer at Doshisha Women's College of Liberal Arts and Kinki University. His professional interests include CALL, learner autonomy, self-access language learning, materials design, and vocabulary acquisition. Email: rwong@dwc.doshisha.ac.jp*

Nathan Paul Krug *is an assistant professor at Saitama University. His research interests span the fields of Conversation Analysis, Discourse Analysis, and CALL. Nathan is interested in designing tasks and approaches which make use of the computer-mediated environment, particularly in terms of guiding students to use language productively, to negotiate meaning, and to extend critical reasoning skills. Email: nkrug@mail.saitama-u.ac.jp*

Frank Tucker *has been teaching English in Japan since 1996 and is a part-time lecturer at Kansai Gaidai University and Osaka Prefectural University. He is interested in CALL, particularly in integrating cyber resources into class activities and the delivery of homework assignments online. Email: ttucker@las.osakafu-u.ac.jp*

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APPENDIX A

Title: ____________________ Author: ____________________

URL: ____

Date Published: ____________________ Date Retrieved: ____________________

Key Words:

1. ____________________
2. ____________________
3. ____________________
4. ____________________
5. ____________________
6. ____________________
7. ____________________
8. ____________________
9. ____________________
10. ____________________
11. ____________________
12. ____________________

Key Points:

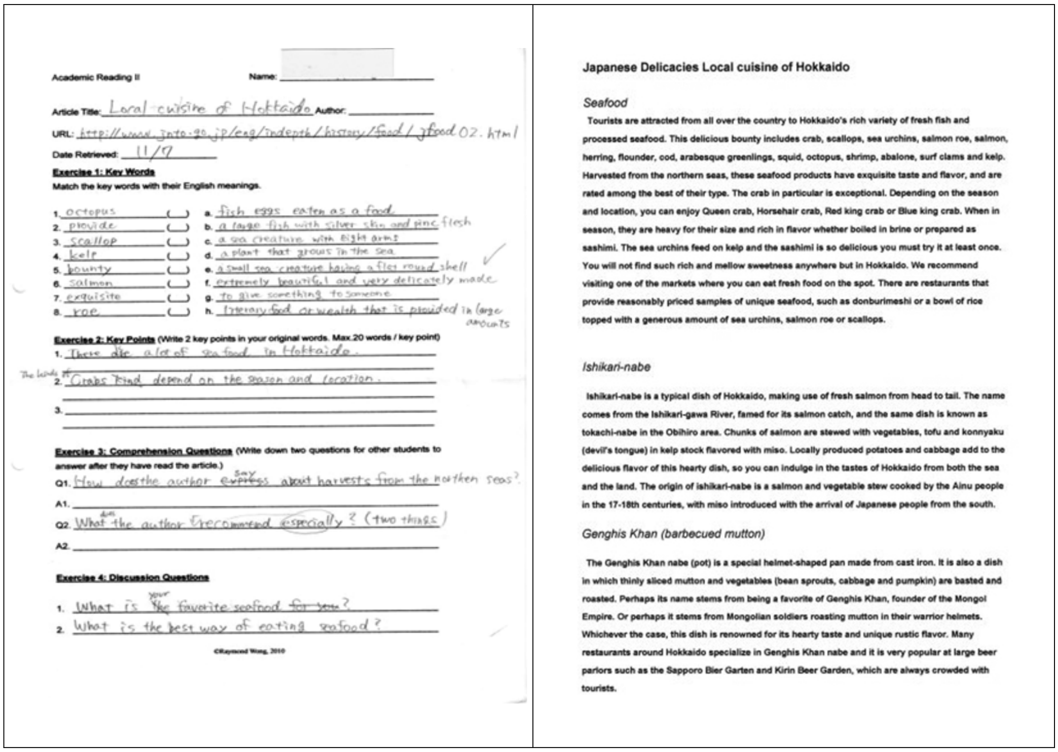
1. ____
2. ____
3. ____

Discussion Questions:

1. ____
2. ____
3. ____
4. ____

Frank Tucker, OPU

APPENDIX B



Academic Reading II Name:

Article Title: Local cuisine of Hokkaido Author:

URL: http://www.jnto.go.jp/eng/indepth/history/food/jfood02.html

Date Retrieved: 11/17

Exercise 1: Key Words

Match the key words with their English meanings.

1. octopus ( ) a. fish eggs eaten as a food
2. provide ( ) b. a large fish with silver skin and pinc flesh
3. scallop ( ) c. a sea creature with eight arms
4. kelp ( ) d. a plant that grows in the sea
5. bounty ( ) e. a small sea creature having a flet round shell
6. salmon ( ) f. extremely beautiful and very delicately made
7. exquisite ( ) g. to give something to someone
8. roe ( ) h. literary food or wealth that is provided in large amounts

Exercise 2: Key Points (Write 2 key points in your original words. Max.20 words / key point)

1. There are a lot of sea food in Hokkaido.

The kinds of
2. Crabs kind depend on the season and location.

3.

Exercise 3: Comprehension Questions (Write down two questions for other students to answer after they have read the article.)

Q1. How does the author ~~express~~ say about harvests from the northen seas?

A1.

Q2. What does the author recommend especially? (two things)

A2.

Exercise 4: Discussion Questions

1. What is your ~~the~~ favorite seafood ~~for you~~?
2. What is the best way of eating seafood?

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Japanese Delicacies Local cuisine of Hokkaido

Seafood

Tourists are attracted from all over the country to Hokkaido's rich variety of fresh fish and processed seafood. This delicious bounty includes crab, scallops, sea urchins, salmon roe, salmon, herring, flounder, cod, arabesque greenlings, squid, octopus, shrimp, abalone, surf clams and kelp. Harvested from the northern seas, these seafood products have exquisite taste and flavor, and are rated among the best of their type. The crab in particular is exceptional. Depending on the season and location, you can enjoy Queen crab, Horsehair crab, Red king crab or Blue king crab. When in season, they are heavy for their size and rich in flavor whether boiled in brine or prepared as sashimi. The sea urchins feed on kelp and the sashimi is so delicious you must try it at least once. You will not find such rich and mellow sweetness anywhere but in Hokkaido. We recommend visiting one of the markets where you can eat fresh food on the spot. There are restaurants that provide reasonably priced samples of unique seafood, such as donburimeshi or a bowl of rice topped with a generous amount of sea urchins, salmon roe or scallops.

Ishikari-nabe

Ishikari-nabe is a typical dish of Hokkaido, making use of fresh salmon from head to tail. The name comes from the Ishikari-gawa River, famed for its salmon catch, and the same dish is known as tokachi-nabe in the Obihiro area. Chunks of salmon are stewed with vegetables, tofu and konnyaku (devil's tongue) in kelp stock flavored with miso. Locally produced potatoes and cabbage add to the delicious flavor of this hearty dish, so you can indulge in the tastes of Hokkaido from both the sea and the land. The origin of ishikari-nabe is a salmon and vegetable stew cooked by the Ainu people in the 17-18th centuries, with miso introduced with the arrival of Japanese people from the south.

Genghis Khan (barbecued mutton)

The Genghis Khan nabe (pot) is a special helmet-shaped pan made from cast iron. It is also a dish in which thinly sliced mutton and vegetables (bean sprouts, cabbage and pumpkin) are basted and roasted. Perhaps its name stems from being a favorite of Genghis Khan, founder of the Mongol Empire. Or perhaps it stems from Mongolian soldiers roasting mutton in their warrior helmets. Whichever the case, this dish is renowned for its hearty taste and unique rustic flavor. Many restaurants around Hokkaido specialize in Genghis Khan nabe and it is very popular at large beer parlors such as the Sapporo Bier Garten and Kirin Beer Garden, which are always crowded with tourists.

Cross-cultural / Intercultural Issues

Assessing Intercultural Experience and Achievement in At-risk Language Learners

Grant Black and John Peloghitis
Nagoya University of Commerce and Business, Nisshin, Japan

The paper reports the results of a pilot study investigating whether a lack of intercultural experience is a factor in identifying at-risk students. Intercultural experiences and travel abroad generally feature as integral components or eventual targets of most foreign-language education; however, few studies have investigated whether the absence of such experiences inhibits achievement for an often-neglected group, "at-risk" language learners. Drawing on the work of the Intercultural Competence Assessment project (INCA), a survey was administered to 113 second-year Japanese university students majoring in English communication to examine three measures of achievement and three categories of intercultural situations. The findings suggest that there are significant differences between high achievers and low achievers in regard to "living abroad" and "experience abroad." Suggestions for further research may lead to the development of intercultural competence tools to help support at-risk students' language learning goals.

INTRODUCTION

In the last decade, Japanese universities have been facing increasing challenges on several key fronts: changing population demographics, adverse labor market pressure on school-to-work transitions, and government policies aimed at internationalizing the educational system (Burgess, 2010; Clark, 2010; McVeigh, 2001; Newby, Weko, Breneman, Johanneson, & Maassen, 2009; OECD, 2008, 2009a, 2009b). For international education, the number of Japanese university students studying abroad reached a peak in 2004, followed by several years of a downward trend. The government responded by introducing the Global 30 program at thirteen universities to add 10,000 Japanese study abroad students per year and dramatically increase the number of foreign students studying in Japan (MEXT, 2009). Alongside the various pressures on the educational system, a further challenge has been a perceived decline in student level of academic ability. The results of recently released data from the education ministry show that in 2008, 65% of surveyed universities were providing some form of study support program for incoming students at-risk of being unable to complete their education due to academic deficiencies (Kyodo News, 2010). The focus of our study, a subsection of this group, are "at-risk" language learners.

A course was developed at a small private university in Japan to help support at-risk students. The course is directed toward students who are significantly below the average passing rates, who are not accumulating enough credits to be on track to pass within four years, who are in danger of not being able to graduate, and who are ultimately at-risk of dropping out of the university.

The course has five major aims: (a) to help give the students an extra opportunity to earn credits, (b) to build confidence in a non-threatening environment away from higher achievers in the program, (c) to provide a controlled venue to guide them in study strategies, (d) to strengthen their language fundamentals with structured review integrated to the overall goals of department programs, and (e) to assess their limitations and needs to help them successfully complete the coursework required to graduate. An ancillary question of this study is to assess standard university policies that limit access to overseas programs to only high achieving students - those that have higher TOEIC scores and grade point averages (GPA), or meet other distinguishing standards of achievement. If a lack of intercultural awareness and experience is a contributing factor to at-risk status, then a primary implication of the research is that this policy might further undermine the possibility of success for at-risk students.

METHOD

Participants

The participants in this study were 113 second-year English majors studying at a private Japanese university. At the time the study was conducted, the participants were enrolled in the first semester. Nearly all (95%) of the second-year students in the English department participated in the study. Of the 113 respondents, 51 (45%) were male and 62 (55%) were female, with an average age of 19.24 years (*SD* = .50).

MATERIALS

Measures of Achievement. Academic achievement was determined using three different measures: TOEIC score, the number of classes failed in the previous year, and self-perceived English language proficiency. The TOEIC was used as a measure of academic achievement because it is the primary language proficiency tool that students and companies use to monitor and measure success in learning English. An estimated 3,500 companies in Japan use TOEIC scores for hiring and judging their employees' English language skills (Pacific Bridge, 2003) as well as determining overseas assignments and promotions (TOEIC Steering Committee, n. d.). Students are required to take the TOEIC test twice a year, so scores were readily accessible. Students were also asked to self-report on a scale of 1 to 5 the number of failed classes in the previous year. Finally, students were asked to rate on a three-level scale their language proficiency in comparison to their peers in the program.

Measures of Intercultural Experience. Drawing on the assessment questionnaire tools developed by the Intercultural Competence Assessment (INCA) project, this study seeks to contribute to the understanding of factors influencing students' at-risk status. The INCA project was funded by Leonardo II, part of the European Commission's Lifelong Learning Programme. The theoretical framework of the INCA materials is drawn from the work of Mike Byram, Torsten Kuhlmann, Bernd Muller-Jacquier, and Gerhard Budin. The INCA project has identified a baseline of behaviors that, while not definitive, can help provide a set of competences that people bring to bear in intercultural situations. The questionnaire in the present study seeks to evaluate intercultural experience based in part on the documents produced by INCA. To evaluate intercultural experience, the intercultural contexts section of the questionnaire posed fourteen questions in three categories of intercultural situations: international travel and friendships, experience living abroad, and encounters with different cultures.

Procedures

The questionnaire was translated into Japanese and tested for content in a small trial before being completed by all 113 second-year English-major students in their tutorial classes in the first few weeks of the first semester. Students had recently received their TOEIC scores from an institutionally administered test taken shortly before the end of their freshman year. No information was given about the underlying assumptions of the questionnaire. Questionnaires with missing answers were dropped prior to the main data analyses. The data for the variables were grouped in their respective scales and then subjected to mean level analysis. To analyze if intercultural experience is a factor in identifying at-risk students, t-tests were used to examine differences in intercultural experience between low achievers and high achievers. Multiple regression analyses were then performed to search if intercultural experience has any predictive effect on achievement. To perform the t-test analyses, achievement by TOEIC score was split at the 400 mark. This resulted in 53 students scoring over 400 points and 60 scoring below 400 points. The number of failed courses was set at two, which resulted in 73 high achievers and 40 low achievers. (The primary reason for the split at two was that if students averaged two failures each year, then they would be at risk of not graduating within four years.) The last measurement of achievement, self-perception of English ability, was separated between students who perceived themselves as better than most of their classmates and those who perceived themselves as average or less able than most of their classmates. Mean values for the questions concerning intercultural experience and the three measurements of achievement were calculated for each group of achievers followed by a Pearson’s Correlation test on the variables.

RESULTS

Table 1 illustrates the descriptive statistics for all of the variables; no outliers or other abnormalities were found. Interestingly, students on the whole reported a high level of self-perceived English ability when comparing themselves to their classmates (M = 2.34, SD = .676). The students surveyed were given a choice of 1 (= less ability than most of their peers), 2 (= the same as most of their peers), and 3 (= better than most of their peers). The mean for the number of failed classes is relatively high (M = 1.96, SD = 2.73), especially considering that the average student is taking 20 course credits a semester.

TABLE 1. Descriptive Statistics for All Measured Variables

Variable	Observations	Mean	Std. Deviation
TOEIC Score	113	392.504	90.497
Failed Courses	113	1.965	2.732
Self-Perceived Proficiency	113	2.336	0.676
Living Abroad	113	1.12	0.32
Encounters w/ Cultures	113	3.326	0.788
Abroad Experience	113	1.735	0.444
Intercultural Friendship	113	1.50	0.50

The results of the correlation analysis, which was applied to determine the proportion of common variance between each set of variables, are displayed in Table 2. The data show significant correlations between TOEIC score and living abroad, $r(111) = .253$, $p < .05$, and TOEIC score and experience abroad, $r(111) = .317$, $p < .05$), though the strength of the relationships is not convincing. Surprisingly, TOEIC score is not related to the other measures of achievement. The data indicate a negative correlation between self-perceived English proficiency and foreign friends, $r(111) = -.320$, $p < .05$). In other words, students who have foreign friends are more likely to have an average or low level of self-perceived English proficiency. In addition, a moderate, but significant, correlation is observed between the number of failed courses and self-perceived English ability, $r(111) = .630$, $p < .05$.

TABLE 2. Pearson's Correlation Matrix (n=111): Correlation Between the Variables

Variables	TOEIC Score	Failed Classes	Self-Perceived Proficiency	Encounters w/ Cultures	Live Abroad	Abroad Experience	Intercultural Friendship
TOEIC Score	1	-.233	.098	.113	.253*	.317*	-.025
Failed Courses	-	1	.630*	.008	.025	.007	-.111
Self-Perceived Proficiency	-	-	1	.041	.067	.101	-.320*
Encounters w/ Cultures	-	-	-	1	-.121	-.099	0.60
Living Abroad	-	-	-	-	1	.693*	-.142
Abroad Experience	-	-	-	-	-	1	-.123
Intercultural Friendship	-	-	-	-	-	-	1

Note. * p < 0.05

Table 3 illustrates the data concerning whether significant differences exist between high achievers and low achievers for each dependent variable. Two significant differences exist for TOEIC achievement. Significantly more high achievers reported living abroad, $t(111) = -2.98$, $p < .05$, and traveling abroad, $t(111) = -3.82$, $p < .05$, than low achievers. No significant differences were found for the intercultural experience subscale reported by students who failed two or more courses and those that failed less than two. This finding was not expected since it was thought that at-risk students would be less likely to have had many intercultural experiences. Lastly, the data reveal a significant difference in intercultural friendship between the two groups split by self-perceived English proficiency, $t(111) = 3.01$, $p < .05$. This finding is also contrary to expectations because the mean scores indicate that the group with a lower level of self-perceived English proficiency reported having more intercultural friendships (M = 1.63 as opposed to 1.35 for the group with the higher self-perceived English ability).

TABLE 3. Independent Samples T-tests on Achievement and the Dependent Variables

Variable	TOEIC score Mean value (SD)			Failed classes Mean value (SD)			Self-perceived English proficiency Mean value (SD)		
	High achievers n=53	Low achievers n=60	t	High achievers n=73	Low achievers n=40	T	High achievers n=51	Low achievers n=62	t
Encounters w/ Cultures	3.336 (.77)	3.317 (.81)	-0.13	3.33 (.78)	3.32 (.81)	0.01	3.297 (.78)	3.36 (.79)	-0.43
Living Abroad	1.21 (.41)	1.03 (.18)	-2.98*	1.11 (.31)	1.13 (.33)	-0.24	1.14 (.35)	1.10 (.30)	-0.67
Abroad Experience	1.92 (1.52)	1.02 (.98)	-3.82*	1.42 (1.38)	1.48 (1.26)	-0.19	1.55 (1.32)	1.35 (1.36)	-0.77
Intercultural Friendship	1.51 (.50)	1.50 (.50)	-0.10	1.43 (.50)	1.53 (.51)	0.90	1.35 (.49)	1.63 (.48)	3.01*

Note. * $p < .05$

When all variables were entered into the multiple regression analysis for TOEIC score, results showed a non-significant predictive value. None of the variables for intercultural experience were statistically significant in predicting TOEIC score. A second multiple regression analysis was applied to the number of courses that students failed. The analysis yielded a non-significant value, which suggests that intercultural experience did not explain a significant proportion of variance in the number of courses students are failing. To evaluate whether all of the regression analysis models met the assumption of normality, a residual analysis was used. Results indicated that all three analyses showed linear relationships, which meet the assumption of normality.

DISCUSSION

In addressing the question “Is intercultural experience, or lack thereof, a factor in identifying at-risk students?” the data reveal several factors to consider regarding at-risk students and intercultural experience. First, regarding the data from the correlation analysis, there is a significant and moderately strong correlation between self-perceived English proficiency and the number of failed courses, $r(111) = .630$ $p < .05$. Students who perceive their English proficiency on par with or less than their peers had a higher number of failed courses. Further, only 11% of the students perceived themselves lower than their peers in English ability. There is a somewhat strong correlation between experience living abroad and traveling abroad, $r(111) = .693$ $p < .05$. Most students had some overseas experience with only 28% reporting they had not traveled outside of Japan. T-tests showed that there are significant differences between high TOEIC achievers and low TOEIC achievers in regard to travel experience and experience living abroad. There is a significant difference between students' self-perception of English proficiency and intercultural friendships reported. Surprisingly, students who are more likely to have intercultural friendships had a lower self-perception of English proficiency. Regarding the methodology, although previously established question content and format for this project were used, further refinement and testing is needed to produce more precisely targeted and ultimately better quality questions that yield more meaningful and manageable data. This study has helped further narrowly define the parameters of this issue while emphasizing the importance of continued testing and evaluation of the measurement tools employed. In particular, the use of a qualitative research approach may be necessary to give a fuller picture of the subjects and their needs.

Although the results concerning the research question yielded data that provided insight into the relationship between intercultural experience and achievement, there are still lingering questions on this issue. Some of the data even challenged the assumptions of the researchers. Namely, a higher proportion of at-risk students had traveled and been exposed to intercultural situations than anticipated. The questionnaire was not effective in evaluating the impact upon student performance of these experiences. Simply, one can say that among at-risk students some have traveled, some have not, and these two outcomes make the group unremarkable on this point from the general student population. Neither does this indicate that the students who are under-performing and at-risk would not be helped by new intercultural experiences. The key limitation of the questionnaire was in failing to identify the educational-emotional impact of travel, foreign friendships, and intercultural experiences on the student's commitment and motivation for language study. In a September 2010 article trumpeting study abroad programs (Aoki, 2010), Yoko Ishikura of the Hitotsubashi Graduate School of International Corporate Strategy argued that exposure abroad was a key to success for Japanese youth, a view that accords with the great investments being made in such programs by the Japanese government. The present research project began with the hypothesis that exposure abroad might be key to success for at-risk students struggling in a language program and, further, that the lack of such of such exposure might be hindering their development. On the other hand, others have already cautioned that for disinterested language learners, a study abroad program can result in what Yoneoka (2001) calls the "thirstless horse" syndrome, in which students are being led to international waters but are not drinking as expected. Her ten-year study illustrates that study abroad, in and of itself, does not necessarily lead to academic, cultural, or language learning development and success.

The impetus for the research question in the present study came, in large part, from the testimonial examples of students describing intercultural experiences that inspired their language study, the very opposite effect to that described by Yoneoka. But, in retrospect, it is noted that these testimonials were all marked by the force of the high level of personal significance of the experience. In other words, they were not just run-of-the-mill travel experiences or straightforward encounters with foreigners, but events that the students had an awareness of being important in their lives and which they reported as instrumental in motivating their efforts to pursue language study. Consequently, for further research, we believe the question posed must include the notion of such a transformative intercultural experience and from there seek to evaluate qualitatively to what extent such experiences motivate language learning and the drive toward language program completion, and whether or not such experiences can be cultivated and taught. The present study corroborates the notion that intercultural experience, in and of itself, does not equate to language learning achievement for all.

THE AUTHORS

Grant Black *is a lecturer in the Faculty of Communication at Nagoya University of Commerce and Business. He has an MA in East Asian Languages and Cultures from the University of California, Los Angeles. Prior to joining NUCB, he worked in international operations for small- and medium-sized enterprises and in intercultural training. His current research interests are language acquisition strategies, intercultural competence, and global management skills. Email: black@nucba.ac.jp*

John Peloghitis *is an assistant professor at Nagoya University of Commerce and Business and has been teaching in Japan for over nine years. His research interests include writing and revision, communication strategies, discourse analysis, and material design. Currently, he is working on a textbook on cultural issues and researching “at-risk” behavior. Email: jpeloghitis@nucba.ac.jp*

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Enticing the Interests of EFL Students to Think More Globally Through the Investigation and Discussion of Authentic Texts

Mark Wright
Doshisha University, Kyoto, Japan

Joseph Hosbach
Osaka University, Osaka, Japan

This paper attempts to highlight how student-researched authentic texts can help to enliven the class and create a more positive attitude towards learning. Drawn from selected English communication classes at both Doshisha University and Osaka University in Japan, examples are shown of how student-created authentic materials can be introduced and implemented alongside teacher materials in the classroom. Issues addressed include students' interest in "real-life" global issues and materials, the role of the teacher, and the role of the student, and offer a possible suggestion for how to implement these materials in a collaborative EFL environment.

INTRODUCTION

For quite a while in the field of second language acquisition, there has been a certain amount of debate over which types of reading materials are deemed to be more useful and practical for discussion activities in the classroom. The choices seem to be between authentic materials that are taken from authentic sources, such as newspapers, magazines, brochures and, more recently, downloaded from the Internet, and those that are scripted either by the teacher or prepared especially from a textbook. The argument used is that authentic materials can present the students with more opportunities to study English in a more realistic environment. In other words, they can help to create situations and scenarios learners may face in their everyday life when using English. However, the other side of the argument is that perhaps these materials may be introducing students to ideas and situations that are beyond their current level of language ability.

To add to this dilemma, teachers also need to take into account that student comprehension is basically an interactive process between the materials supplied and the student's prior knowledge of the world. However, at times, this background or schema may be culturally based or biased. This is particularly problematic for students who do not live in the target language country. As a result, English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers may feel restricted to developing their own materials. However, this doesn't necessarily always have to be the case. In the global community in which we all live, there are now a plethora of authentic texts that students can access and share with their fellow classmates. This paper looks at these issues further, and offers up insights in how student-centered researched authentic reading materials can be incorporated and implemented practically in the classroom.

READING PROCESSES

It is not possible for any teacher to effectively select the right resource, or give guidance to students in what they should select, without at least giving some consideration to what happens in the actual reading process itself. The traditional assumption for a long time was that reading was a "skill in which the reader passively absorbs what the writer has produced" (Kitao, 1989, para. 1). It was thought that understanding a written text was just a matter of simply decoding groups of letters into words. These words were then joined to make phrases, then into clauses eventually linking the whole process together to make sentences. This was referred to as *bottom-up processing*.

However, this approach did not fully take into account the actual learner's ability to construct meaning based on such factors as their culture or background. Researchers such as Goodman (1971) suggested that the reading process was more of a guessing game in which the reader, by employing a *top-down processing* approach, is able to construct meaning by using parts of the text as clues, instead of focusing on individual words or text construction. These days, researchers tend to regard reading as being a fully interactive process, involving "the reader, the text, and the interaction between the reader and the text", in which both *bottom-up* and *top-down processing* complement each other (Rumelhart, 1977, as cited in Singhal, 1998, para. 2).

CULTURAL SCHEMATA

One theory that has been developed to help explain this interaction is schema theory. In this theory, the reader relies heavily on his or her schemata, "pre-existing concepts about the world and about the text to be read," to make an informed judgment about the content of the text (Barnett, 1988, para. 5). For example, if Australian students see the word "Billabong" as a title for a text, they may expect the story to be about a water pond, or possibly an Australian folk tale, while non-Australian native English speakers may think it is going to be about surfing or beach wear. In this case, it is not hard to imagine English language learners having even a harder time in coming to terms with a content of a text that is not culturally familiar to them. For teachers of second languages, understanding how *schema theory* works in relation to the selection of reading texts is crucial. As Carrell (1984) explains, "an ESL reader's failure to activate an appropriate schema during reading may result in various degrees of non-comprehension" (p. 333).

USING AUTHENTIC MATERIALS

In recent years there has been a widespread increase in the use of authentic materials in second language classrooms. Apart from providing the opportunities for students to enhance their *schemata*, both *formal* and *content*, there are a number of other advantages of using authentic materials in the classroom. Some of these are listed below:

- Students have the chance to be exposed to "real-life" situations.
- They allow students and teachers to keep up to date with current trends in the target language such as new "slang" words, sayings, and idioms.
- They allow students to gain confidence by experiencing language in a practical way.
- They increase cultural awareness of the target and, in some cases, offer an opportunity to show how their own culture is viewed by others.
- They provide students with the chance to practice micro skills such as "skimming" and "scanning" by looking for key words, and ideas.
- They offer variety and are available everywhere.
- They help to add life to the class, as well as to stimulate and motivate students (Karpova, 1999; Martinez, 2002).

Contrary to this is the argument that students may tend to panic or be afraid that they will encounter some level of difficulty when faced with an authentic text. This could have the opposite effect of leading to a decrease in motivation for learning, especially in the case of beginners.

Despite this, the case for introducing authentic texts early in language instruction is quite strong. As Dublin and Olshtain (1986) state, "As soon as possible, however, the use of authentic materials should become the objective, even if some adapting or abridging is necessary" (p. 151). Spelleri (2002) concurs, "Exposure to authentic language means that prediction skills will be honed and that learners will improve their strategies for dealing with uncertainty" (p. 17).

INTRODUCING AUTHENTIC MATERIALS INTO THE CLASSROOM

So far, this paper has presented some of the theoretical aspects justifying why introducing authentic materials into the classroom could play an important role in the second language classroom. At both Doshisha University and Osaka University, the authors have tried to introduce the students to think more globally about current issues by exposing them to articles readily available on the Internet. The main objectives of these classes are three-fold:

1. To focus on global issues
2. To discuss and work through problems concerning the global community
3. For students to research and present their own guided topics or interest relating to the above

Each week a certain theme is focused on. This can either be established by the teacher in advance or, in some cases, proposed by the students themselves. Themes that have been covered in past semesters have included such topics as: waste and recycling, endangered species, global warming, energy, human rights, refugees, developing countries, and gender issues.

As part of the student assessment, each student will be responsible at least twice for finding an article from the Internet related to the next week's theme.

The first time, the students present their findings in small groups in class the following week. The second time, at the end of the semester, students use their article and input gained from their group members to give a poster or PowerPoint presentation.

The Internet article the students need to find for the first task should be around 300 words in length and be no longer than 12 months old. This is to ensure that the issue is current and that enough time is allowed for the students to fully digest the article. After finding a suitable article, the students then paste the article into a word document. Students are then required to attach this article to a student worksheet A4 template (see Figure 1). This template, which has been prepared by the instructor, lists a series of discussion questions, key points and key words which they must prepare in advance. The result is an A3 sheet from which copies are made for each member of the group.

Worksheet **Name:** ________________

Article Title: _Group Cities Growing problem of Child Labor: Young and Forced to Work **Author:** Erik Ipsen

URL: __ http://nytimes.com/1996/06/10/business/worldbusiness/10iht-child.t.html **Date of Article:** _______________

KEY WORDS (Vocabulary / Part of Speech / Meaning) [Leave 2 blank]

1. **Region** (n) an area, especially part of a country or the world having definable characteristics
2. **Agenda** (n) a list of programs of things to be done or problems to be addressed
3. **Prostitution** (n) the practice or occupation of engaging in sexual activity for money
4. **Trend** (n) a general direction in which something is developing or changing
5. **Estimate** (v) roughly calculate or judge the value, number or quantity
6. **Optimism** (n) hopefulness and confidence about the future or the successful outcome of something
7. ______________________________
8. ______________________________

KEY POINTS (Please list 3) [Leave 1 blank.]

1. Despite its 80-year effort to combat child labor, the organization said, the number of working children has continued to rise in Africa and Latin America
2. The group said the rise in child prostitution was partly linked to the spread of acquired immune deficiency syndrome
3. ______________________________

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS (Questions only – No Answers) [Leave 1 Blank]

1. Why do some employers hire children?
2. Do you know what kind of work are children in developing countries doing?
3. How do you think we can improve this problem?
4. ______________________________

RATING THE SOURCE

Reliability Bad ←------------------------------→ Good /10

Bias Bad ←------------------------------→ Good /10

FIGURE 1. An example of a student completed Student Worksheet - this is attached to the selected Internet text article to make an A3 worksheet

CLASSROOM FLOW

Group leaders are selected the previous week and a theme is set. The following week students should be put into groups of four people. Group leaders then distribute their prepared A3 article, which contains the text and worksheet joined together, to all the members of the group. Students are then allocated 20 minutes to read the article and should attempt in this time to make notes of any key words or points that they may not understand. Group leaders use this time to prepare for the upcoming discussion. At this time, students also hand in a copy of their worksheet to the teacher and verbally summarize it.

After this reading period is completed, the next 20 minutes of the lesson is dedicated to the group leader guiding the students through the worksheet. This includes covering the key words, key points, and discussion questions, as well as gauging the group's opinion on the suitability of the article for reliability, validity, and bias.

Leader's Guide

Below is a series of steps and question examples, to help you guide your way through the discussion activity. It is important as a leader that you <u>ask every member</u> in your group for their response or answer. You should also to try to keep the discussion flowing with the use of follow up questions.

1. **Please introduce yourself, you should ask your group members for their names and find out one point about each other.**

    What is your name?
    What is your major?
    What is your hobby?

2. **Please engage the group in some warming-up talk prior to the main discussion.**

    How are you?
    What did you do over the weekend?
    What did you do last night?

3. **Please check the Key Words.**

    Does anyone have any questions about any of the key words?
    What do you have for your original key words?
    Why do you think this is an important key word?
    Why did you choose this particular key word?

4. **Please check the Key Points.**

    Does everyone agree that this key point is really a main idea?
    What do you think?
    What is your original key point?
    Does everyone agree that this is a key point?

5. **Please discuss the Questions.**

    What do you have for question number (number 1/2/3)?
    Does anyone have an answer that is different?
    What is your original question?
    What is your opinion about this answer?

6. **Check the Source Rating:**

    Do you think this source is reliable (good source)?
    What is the site type? (news site, science site, education, blog, forum)
    Do you think this source is biased (balanced)?
    Why do you think so?
    What is your score?

FIGURE 2. An example of a Leader's Guide - this can assist to keep the discussion on task

In their collaborative groups the leader discusses and asks for answers to the prepared (usually 3) questions. It is during this part of the lesson that the students have the opportunity to pose an original question of their own. By having students ask questions in their collaborative groups, students further acquaint themselves with the topic of the material and think more about the theme of the week. To assist with the discussion process, a leader's guide (see Figure 2) is also distributed. This helps to keep the group discussions on task. While the discussions are in progress, the teacher walks around monitoring the different groups, allocating task scores.

As a further assessment, the leaders will, later in the semester, use their same article worksheet to prepare either a poster or PowerPoint presentation. This is to give the other students an opportunity to view the students' research. It also allows individual students to give further input, in addition to that discussed in the group discussion earlier in the semester.

DISCUSSION

There are many advantages to incorporating authentic materials into the classroom in this way. First of all, the authors have noticed, through end-of-course surveys, which the students tend to find it quite motivating. Rather than just having the materials handed to the students each week by the teacher, students have some input or choice over what they would like to study, thus allowing them to feel a "sense of achievement," by sharing what they have found (Martinez, 2002, p. 1). Secondly, it encourages the students to practice their research skills by sifting through the enormous number of articles on the Internet for reliability and bias. Thirdly, it helps to improve the student's reading and discussion skills in a sharing and collaborative environment, which also instills confidence. Finally, by only lasting 45 minutes, this activity does not need to take up the whole lesson and can be used with guided materials such as texts introduced by the teacher.

CONCLUSION

Authentic reading materials can be a very useful resource and asset, complimenting the collaborative language teaching-learning process because it combines fun and pedagogic instructions that reflect real interaction by providing opportunities for collaborative group work. By employing this approach, teachers can create an indefinite number of language teaching activities. The activities in this paper are examples that focus on different language skills that EFL students can acquire. It is important that teachers provide the best setting for learning in class that they can. It is to be hoped that teachers can spur student interest by employing student-generated authentic material in collaborative groups, providing authentic materials with authentic group discussions.

THE AUTHORS

Mark Wright *is currently a lecturer at Doshisha University, Kyoto, and Ritumeikan University, Shiga, Japan. He has been involved in ESL/EFL education and learning for nearly twenty years in both Australia and Japan. Prior research has focused mainly on second language acquisition, bilingual education, and social linguistics. Email: markwwright@gmail.com*

Joseph Hosbach *works as a lecturer in the Department of English and Graduate Studies at Osaka University. He is also a communications consultant with several international corporations based in Osaka. Mr. Hosbach has strived over the last twenty years to prepare managers for postings in manufacturing plants stationed around the globe. Email: hosbach01@gmail.com*

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EAP / ESP

Projects for Teaching Business English

John Peloghitis
Nagoya University of Commerce and Business, Nagoya, Japan

Over the years, project-based learning has been a valuable instructional approach, giving students opportunities to solve problems and develop finished products. The following article provides a rationale for using project-based teaching, and presents details about how to implement two extensive projects for teaching Business English. The first project adopts a multi-skilled approach by incorporating the stock market to research how companies operate and conduct business. Students choose actual companies and introduce their key statistics and new products in a presentation aimed at luring new shareholders. Students then buy and sell stocks using fictitious money and track their portfolios online. The second project utilizes marketing strategies for students to advertise products in video commercials. Groups of students incorporate several marketing strategies, then film and edit their videos to show in class.

INTRODUCTION

Business English courses serve an important role in helping students achieve their professional goals. However, a challenge for designing Business English courses is addressing both content and language skills, and specifically tailoring class activities that allow students opportunities to confront situations or tasks common in workplace environments. Project-based learning can be a powerful tool to meet this challenge. Project-based learning uses long-term activities to promote the simultaneous acquisition of language, content, and skills (Beckett & Slater, 2005). This occurs by creating learning situations to create comprehensible output (Beckett, 2002), which generally occurs during the project and is apparent in the final product. Teachers and researchers have claimed numerous advantages of incorporating project work in language teaching. First, by working toward tangible outcomes, project-based learning provides opportunities for students to develop essential skills. Students need to use language and collaborative skills when planning, organizing, negotiating, giving opinions, and reaching a consensus on issues. Students must make key decisions about how tasks will be performed, what the responsibilities of group members will be, and how information will be researched and presented. These skills have been identified by learners as important for living successful lives (Stein, 1995) and by employers as essential for a successful workplace (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991). The collaborative nature of project work also allows learners of various language proficiency levels to develop skills together. The primary reason for this is that project work encourages group members to explore their strengths and preferred ways of learning in order to strengthen the team as a whole (Lawrence, 1997). Despite the benefits, implementing projects can be problematic because students may not perceive project work as favorably as teachers do (Beckett, 2002; Beckett & Slater, 2005). This is caused by lack of sufficient organization, group cohesion, or determination to reach the project goal. To avoid this, teachers need to consider the process and outcomes carefully.

A unique feature of project work is that it requires working toward tangible goals that reflect authentic learning environments both inside and outside the classroom. This extension of the classroom gives learners the opportunity to use language in a more natural context to complete meaningful activities (Haines, 1989). Conducting and reporting on a survey on nutrition is an example of project-based learning. Students create relevant questions and then ask students outside of class to respond. Data is then collected, analyzed, and used to make general observations to an audience. The authentic element inherent in many projects is designed to foster problem-solving skills and life-long learning (Brown, Ash, Rutherford, Nakagawa, Gordon, & Campione, 1993) which have been found to help learners develop confidence and independence (Fried-Booth, 2002), autonomy (Skehan, 1998), and motivation (Brophy, 2004).

Another advantage of project work is that both instructors and students are typically granted the freedom to choose their project and the manner in which to carry it out. This means, however, that instructors have less control over decision making and the outcomes of a project. For project work to succeed, students need to take control of the project and move it in the appropriate direction (Alan & Stoller, 2005). This element of autonomy is important for student motivation. Diaz-Rico (2004) adds, “Because a project is emergent and negotiated rather than fully planned by the teacher, it encourages students to go beyond the minimum standards of involvement” (p. 1). However, due to this emergent nature, project-based instruction demands timely adjustments by the teacher and the faith of the students to succeed.

PROJECT-BASED LEARNING METHODOLOGY

Most projects follow a simple process that includes choosing topics, planning and researching, and presenting the product to others (Wrigley, 1998). However, because project-based learning hinges on group effort, establishing a trusting, cooperative relationship before embarking on a full-fledged project is necessary. For this reason, cooperative communicative activities such as information gap exercises, interviews, role-plays, and jigsaw tasks are useful in creating a favorable classroom environment. Once an amicable environment is established, a project can be implemented. Below are the basic steps of a project.

Choosing Topics

A project should reflect the interests and concerns of the learners. Before beginning, teachers can use needs assessment tools to identify topics of interest and target skills. Teachers and students may choose a project that focuses on the objectives of one instructional unit or ones that reflect the overall goals of the course. Whatever the decision may be, learners need to be an integral part of the decision-making process from the very beginning (Moss, 1998).

Planning and Researching

Once a topic is selected, learners work together to plan the project, conduct research, and develop their products. Teachers need to closely monitor and support learners with low language proficiency or little experience in working in groups to ensure success. This can be done by providing handouts and setting up step-by-step micro-tasks for students to complete. Careful consideration must be made in grouping students together. Making notes about student behavior and proficiency level as well as group dynamics during the communicative activities in the pre-project phase can prove valuable in effectively grouping students.

Presenting the Product

Projects can be presented in a number of ways. For example, a presentation concerning results from a questionnaire can be formally presented in front of the whole class or informally presented in small groups. Again, students need to have a hand in deciding how to present their products and what is to be graded. After assessment measures are decided, teachers can make rubrics to help students understand the expectations of the project and to provide a clear method for self-assessment. By making assessment a group decision, students are more likely to stay focused and invested in completing their tasks.

BUSINESS PROJECT ONE: THE STOCK MARKET GAME

The stock market game is intended for upper-intermediate to advanced students to familiarize them with financial markets and how companies operate. The overall design of the project is to have students select an actual company on the stock exchange and persuade other students to buy shares. Students use fictitious money to make purchases and track their stock holdings over the duration of the course. There are two primary tasks in the stock market project: the first is a five-minute presentation in which students describe the prospects of their company to secure investment from other classmates, and the second is a resume and cover letter to secure employment at the company they wish to represent.

Considerations Before Starting

Before engaging in the project, a considerable amount of time in class should be allotted to explaining what the stock market is and how it functions. Teachers should review how to read daily stock data and introduce key terminology such as a *share, share price, daily volume, stock symbols,* and *price-earnings ratio*. These terms are essential if students are to become acquainted with the stock market. Numerous resources are available on the Internet and can be presented in a handout. Some sites offer stock information and even allow people to post fictitious stock portfolios. However, it is advisable to choose one site for all students to access and track their classmates' acquisitions and progress. A timeline should be discussed and decided with students about when each task of the project should be completed.

Procedures

First, students in pairs choose a company they wish to represent. To do so, they should research various companies from different industries, then choose one they like (see Appendix A). A story highlighting different products may also be helpful for students to brainstorm popular brands and companies (see Appendix B). Teachers may want to require students to select companies offered in one stock exchange (e.g., the NASDAQ or the NYSE) to make the buying and selling easier since only one currency would be exchanged. Some time may be needed to help students navigate through a company's stock information. Looking at a company profile, key developments, price chart, and recent news should offer enough information for students to make a knowledgeable decision. After selecting a company of interest, each student (or student pair) should prepare a resume and cover letter for a position to send to the company. Teachers can provide handouts that include guidelines and samples on formatting.

Second, students need to prepare a five-minute presentation about their company. The purpose of the presentation is to sell their company stock shares to the other members in the class, so students should be persuasive. Each presentation should include the following: (a) the company name, (b) its stock symbol, (c) what services or products it sells, (d) some background information, (e) a chart explaining the stock price change over the last year, (f) recent key developments, and (g) what financial analysts think about the stock (generally students should pick a company that is recommended). For explaining the chart, it may be useful for teachers to prepare a handout in how to explain information on charts and graphs (i.e., "In July and August, there was a gradual increase in the stock price of Disney. This was due to the larger number of students who visit during summer vacation.").

Third, each pair should decide on a buyer and a seller. The stock seller should have a station set up in class with a sign with their company name for buyers to approach and buy shares. Each group is given 100,000 dollars (or a million) to spend on stocks, and stock sales should be limited to 100 shares units (to ease the calculation of purchases). Students are also encouraged to buy shares from their own company. All sales can be tracked on a separate handout and given to the teacher to examine and approve. Each group is encouraged to write their purchases online and report their weekly gains and losses. A short period of time in subsequent classes can be allotted for students to continue to buy and sell to remain competitive.

Fourth, the last step is for students to report their gains or losses at the end of the course. They can prepare a brief summary of their portfolios and provide reasons for how they performed. The winning team can be presented with a prize as an incentive.

BUSINESS PROJECT TWO: VIDEO COMMERCIALS

The video commercial project is intended for intermediate students and above. There are two primary tasks. The first is a business letter written as an employee in a company requesting a marketing agency to advertise one of its products. The letter should contain details and the unique features about a product or service. The second is a video commercial which advertises the product or service.

Considerations Before Starting

Before beginning the project it is important for teachers to give students some background information about advertising techniques commonly used in TV commercials. See Table 1 for a brief description of some advertising strategies.

TABLE 1. List of Advertising Techniques

Technique	Description
1. Bandwagon	Persuading people to buy or do something because "everyone else is doing it"
2. Testimonial (spokesperson)	Using the word of a famous person to persuade viewers
3. Transfer	Using the name or picture of a famous person
4. Repetition	Inserting the name of the product at least four times
5. Emotional words	Words that persuade people to feel strongly about something (i.e., "New and improved" or "Helps fight heart disease")
6. Fear appeals	Showing pictures or using words to alarm people or get their attention
7. Evidence	Influencing people with statistics and information ("4 out of 5 dentists…")
8. Example	Creating a situation to illustrate how or why the product should be used
9. Rhetorical question	Statements that sound like questions to make people think or gain their attention
10. Association	Persuading viewers to think or feel a product is something else
11. Jingle	Using a short simple song that viewers will remember

Secondly, teachers need to familiarize themselves with filming and editing techniques, especially if they are unfamiliar with more recent video cameras or possess a limited knowledge of video editing. To do so, teachers should first model the project by shooting several scenes on a video camera and putting their footage on a computer to edit. There is video editing software available on most computers such as Microsoft's Movie Maker (included in the Vista and Windows 7 operating systems) and Apple's iMovie (included in the OSX operating system). If no video editing software is available, there are numerous programs advertised online with a wide range of functions and features at reasonable prices. By using a fire wire cable to connect the camera to a computer, video can be downloaded to a computer in minutes, which is then naturally broken into “clips” - segments of video created when a recording is paused or stopped during the process of filming. Once the clips are downloaded, they can be viewed in the video editing software program in the order in which they were filmed. Usually by selecting and dragging a clip to the viewing screen, a user can choose to do any number of functions such as deleting scenes, adding text, transitions, and music, or utilizing special effects for dramatic purposes. With a little time and practice, raw footage can be easily transformed into a polished final product.

To implement this project, teachers and students must obviously have access to a video camera and computers with pre-installed video editing software. Surprisingly, most college students have access to a video camera and some are even experienced in video editing.

Procedures

Before the project begins, students need to understand and apply common advertising techniques. Giving students the opportunity to make their own short commercials and act them out in class can help students generate ideas for products to advertise in the project. Teachers will need time to introduce the project (i.e., stating the objectives, grouping the students, and reviewing what is required) and train students to become capable video recorders and editors. Recording may be seemingly simple, but creating a quality product requires some basic knowledge in how to film using a camcorder. Some basic techniques worth mentioning include: (a) the use of a tripod to stabilize the recorder, (b) the positioning of the camera to show power or perspective, (c) the importance of good lighting and sound, (d) filming three shots of the same scene: a wide shot to establish location, a medium shot to focus on a subject, and a close shot to illustrate emotions, and (e) the tendency to shoot subjects in the middle of the shoot: framing subjects in various positions in the shots creates more interest.

For students to properly edit their commercials, instructors should introduce editing software, such as iMovie or Movie Maker, and walk the class through the general process of planning, filming, and editing by using the sample footage recorded earlier. Groups of three or four students have time to decide on a product to advertise. After a decision is reached, students write a business letter stating what they want advertised, the unique qualities of their product or service, and a basic plan for the commercial. Students can either write the letter to the other group members or to another group. If the latter option is chosen, then the group that received the letter will advertise the product. Teachers should provide formatting details and a sample business letter for guidance. Several advertising strategies must be incorporated into the commercial and each group should create a scene-by-scene storyboard of their commercial before the actually filming begins. By adding this element to the planning process, students are more organized and efficient during the filming stage.

Teachers may want to make it mandatory that students take on particular roles in their groups. For example, a director can be assigned to film the commercial, an editor to produce a finished product by using the editing software, and a writer to create a unique story that convincingly persuades the audience to purchase the product. If roles are allocated, each member is still expected to participate in every phase of the process. A minimum requirement on the number of words to include in the commercial is also helpful so students do not neglect the second language learning aspect. Teachers may also want students to complete the filming during class time or shortly after since it is probably more convenient for students (especially if there are a limited number of video recorders) and requires them to use their time efficiently. After the filming is completed, students discuss when and how to edit. Teachers can devote some subsequent class time for students to edit their commercials or receive help. Lastly, allocate a class or time to show the video-commercials and award prizes for different categories (i.e., best actor or script-writing).

CONCLUSION

With computers becoming more accessible in second language learning, new opportunities exist for implementing creative projects that target both content and language in Business English courses. This paper describes a stock market game to help students understand how companies operate and function in a market and a video-production project to teach advertising. Both approaches use English to complete complex business tasks and learn important technological content. If Business English teachers aim to teach relevant and meaningful skills and content, then they must be prepared to go beyond a textbook and contextualize learning through projects and tasks. Projects like the ones described in this paper offer opportunities for students to work together toward goals, and unlike many textbook activities, require students to create tangible outcomes.

THE AUTHOR

John Peloghitis *is an Assistant Professor in the Faculty of English Communication at Nagoya University of Commerce and Business in Japan. He coordinates and teaches Business English courses for the business faculties. He is an active member of Japan Association for Language Teaching and is interested in second language writing, syllabus design, and discourse analysis. Email: jpeloghitis@hotmail.com*

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APPENDIX A

Researching Companies

By grouping stocks into sectors and industries, it is easier for investors to evaluate stocks within the same industry and assess the economic strength or weakness of that industry. Go to a stock research website, and find one stock in an industry under each sector listed below. Provide the stock name, ticker symbol, current stock price, and products/services of that company.

Sector	Company Name	Ticker Symbol	Price	Product or Service
Consumer goods				
Transportation				
Energy				
Technology				
Telecommunications				
Utilities				

APPENDIX B

"Jack's Birthday Present"

This activity can be used to help students begin thinking about what they might want to invest in for the Stock Market Game. Read this story to your students emphasizing the underlined words. Ask students to write down as many names of companies as they can think of that produce the type of product indicated (e.g., tennis shoes: Nike, Adidas, Reebok, etc.).

> Jack hurries out of P.E. class, throws his tennis shoes in his locker, and picks up his new jacket. Moving quickly down the hall and out the front of school, he sees his mom's car parked in the second row. It is an exciting day for Jack because his birthday is this weekend, and he has a pizza party for his basketball team friends planned. They will play some party games, rent some videos, and have soft drinks in his basement with no little sisters and no interruptions from parents.
>
> His grandmother is flying into town and staying at the local hotel. She's planning on taking Jack shopping for his birthday gift. He's hoping his mom has told Granny that his sunglasses are broken.
>
> Mom tells Jack that she has to stop at the grocery store to pick up some things for supper on the way home. As Jack gets into the car, Mom passes him a candy bar to snack on until they get home. Jack accidentally sits on his little sister's favorite toy that was left on the back seat from the trip to the discount store last night.
>
> "Mom, have you talked to Dad about my portable video game?" Jack asks while chewing on the candy bar.
>
> "Jack, I told you we would look in Sunday's paper and see what is available at the stores in the mall," Mom replied. "You know, CD players cost a lot of money," she said.
>
> "I know, but everybody has one but me," Jack explained. "We'll see," Mom said. "Oh, by the way, this came for you today," Mom gave Jack an envelope. "It's from Aunt Mary." Jack quickly opened the envelope, expecting money to fall out, then read the note from Aunt Mary. "Big deal, I don't understand. It says that I have shares of a stock? She says I'm a shareholder in a corporation. What's that got to do with me? I don't know what a corporation is."

Let students share the names of some of the companies they wrote down. Discuss whether these are brand names or actual corporations. Can you buy 100 shares of Snickers? No, but you can buy 100 shares of Mars Corporation. Note: Most all products have the corporation name/address on the wrapper or box.

Initiate the following discussions: What is a stock? What is a corporation? Why do companies have stockholders? Why do people invest in the stock market?

Grammar

Getting L2 Learners of English to Form Grammar Rules Inductively

Roger Fusselman
Seoul National University of Education, Seoul, Korea

An inductive approach to the teaching of grammar has some support from philosophy, from the classroom dynamics that it may encourage, and from researchers that cautiously but intriguingly acknowledge a potential value to inductive instruction. Though there are different models for what constitutes inductive instruction, the author puts forth three stages as essential: (a) data, presented to or elicited from the learner, (b) inference, where students are given a task that requires them to see a pattern to complete a task, and (c) generalization, where learners are guided to develop a rule or schematic that describes the proper use of the target form.

OVERVIEW OF INDUCTIVE INSTRUCTION RATIONALES AND MODELS

Induction is the derivation of rules, laws, or patterns derived from the observation of instances or examples. It contrasts with *deduction*, which is the application of rules to concrete situations. Typically, grammar classes may take a deductive approach. However, philosophically, an inductive approach to teaching grammar may be more appropriate. Induction is more fundamental than deduction to cognition: before you apply the rules you learned, you have to form them in your head first (Harriman, 2010). It is often a form of instruction that leans on real-world context. It puts the learning of grammar a bit more in the hands of the learner. As a change from more typical grammar classrooms, an inductive lesson may be more enjoyable.

To date, the research on the benefits of these two methods seems to be inconclusive about which method should be preferred, with different studies coming to different conclusions (Ellis, 2006). However, this may be due to different researchers and teachers having different ideas of what inductive instruction is (Erlam, 2003). This does not seem to discourage Ellis (2006) from leaning toward inductive instruction for the teaching of the more complex rules of English and for use in classes where the students are good at grammatical analysis. In his own text on teaching grammar, Nunan (2005) argues that an inductive approach is better than a deductive one because it requires deeper processing. He also argues that it fits the concreteness of the way that young learners learn and is therefore better for young learners than a more overt explanation of rules.

Some authors have put forth some intriguing ideas that are based on or hint at an inductive approach. The PACE Model, developed by Donato and Adair-Hauck (2002a, 2002b) breaks grammatical instruction into Presentation, Attention, Co-construction, and Extension, and is being used to teach languages other than English in the United States. One can find suggestions for the use of literature combined with inductive grammatical instruction (Paesani, 2005), particularly with poems and short stories. Tennant (2010) describes the Discovery Technique, a method which involves co-constructing a story with student assistance, then finally eliciting the target form from the story.

The following suggestions about introducing a grammar point draw some ideas from the above models. A full lesson would involve a lead-in, inductive grammatical instruction, practice activities, communication activities, and a wrap-up. However, this discussion focuses only on the grammatical instruction stage, which can be broken into three steps: data, inference, and generalization.

A DEMONSTRATION LESSON

Let us first look at a sample of what the three steps would involve. The class is high-beginner or low-intermediate, one where students may have already learned past participle forms for, say, the present perfect.

The teacher introduces the topic of bad things that happen to people, getting the students to discuss briefly any bad things that happened to them in pairs or small groups. Once this is done, the teacher role-plays someone who has had a bad day. Flash cards are used to elicit from students bad things that happened to the teacher. These flash cards show a broken window, a wallet with no money inside, and a bicycle flattened by a car. The teacher elicits what happened on each card by asking who in the room was "responsible" for the various happenings, and begins to write sentences on the board. For example: "Student 1 broke my window," "Student 2 took my money," "Student 3 ran over my car." After this small amount of teasing, the teacher elicits from students in question that they were not responsible. After each elicitation, the teacher diplomatically changes the sentences accordingly, e.g., to "My window was broken," "My money was stolen," "My bicycle was run over," etc.

Without explicit mention of any grammatical terms or patterns, the teacher distributes syntax exercises to them, each with an extra word. These exercises are similar in theme, in that they are about bad things happening to people. In pairs, students use data on the board to solve three syntax exercises. Sample syntax exercises may look like this:

1. away. / books / comic / My / were / threw / thrown
2. family dog / off the street. / taken / The / took / was
3. cut / Our / cutted / was / down. / tree

Students work in pairs to complete the sentences. Once they are done, the teacher elicits their answers, asking if other students had the same answer, and confirming their answers once others have done so. Their answers can be written on the board by the teacher. In pairs, students use data on the board to solve three syntax exercises. In each sentence, there is one extra word, an improper verb form for making passive forms. Students share answers with the whole class and the teacher, who writes them on the board and elicits that person or object doing the action in the above three sentences is unknown.

The teacher takes lines and draws them through the sentences, such that the subject of the sentences are separated from the verbs, and the be-verb structures are separated from the past participles, and the complements are separated from the past participles. Six labels are on the board, which students can place above the sentence data: *past verb*, *verb + ing*, *verb*, *past participle*, *be-verb*, *subject*, and *past be-verb*. The correct answers would be *subject*, then *past be-verb*, then *past participle*, with the complement section left blank.

The teacher calls this form the passive voice, and says or elicits the following: (a) to discuss an event if the speaker does not know who or what did it and (b) to leave the doer unspecified. On the second point, the teacher says that Student 1 did indeed break the window, and that the teacher asked the student “What happened?” with a bit of mock anger, to which the student replies, “The window was broken,” with intonation suggesting that Student 1 is hiding something.

ANALYSIS OF THE LESSON

The above lesson takes an inductive form. It assumes that students have already learned some key grammatical terms. It can be divided into three stages: data, inference, and generalization. Below is an analysis of these stages. For an example of the same three stages using a different grammar point (see Appendix).

The Data Stage: Creating or Displaying Samples of the Target Grammatical Form

After a brief partner discussion on bad things that happen to people, the teacher uses flash cards to elicit language data from the students, building a narrative from the cards and using the students as part of the story (an approach adapted from Celce-Murcia and Hilles, 1988). In the data stage of this model of inductive grammatical instruction, data may be elicited from students, given to students, or involve a combination of both strategies. This stage involves a meaning-focused display and/or elicitation of the target form, but the form is not overtly being taught.

The teacher should be somewhat choosy about the way the data are packaged. Keep the data to examples within a theme or situation. If you have a wider context of meaning, not just isolated sentences, it helps learners set the context more easily. Provide enough data to suggest a pattern, but do not explain it. Highlighting forms (e.g., with different fonts, with colored markers, underlining, etc.) helps draw attention to form. As for data elicited from the students, adapt what they say so that it uses the target form.

Where can such data be found? Recommended sources of data include magazine pictures, board drawings (Tennant, 2010), poems (Paesani, 2005), student utterances and student errors (Borg, 1998), and recordings of songs (Bickley, Castillo, & Phillips, 1997). For the sake of elicited data, stories elicited from students (Celce-Murcia and Hilles, 1988), question-and-answer discussion on a suitable topic, eliciting student responses on a topic, the use of realia (i.e., real objects) or flash cards can also be helpful.

Any authentic texts not mentioned above (travel brochures, advertising, short-short stories), classroom-tailored texts and activities (chants, drills, TPR, listening and reading tasks from course books, matching the sentence halves, completing the dialogue, gap-fill exercises), and one very intriguing form of data that falls somewhere in the middle of the authentic-didactic continuum—concordances—may all be helpful sources to get the induction going.

Teachers unfamiliar with elicitation techniques or concordancing should investigate these tools and techniques, whether they plan to teach grammar inductively or not. Throughout these exercises, keep the focus on meaning, not on form.

The Inference Stage: Providing a Reason to Generalize

After the data in the past passive lesson have been elicited, the teacher provides a syntax exercise. To do this exercise correctly, students without prior knowledge of the form being taught must look at the data on the whiteboard to solve the sequencing. In other words, they have a task that requires them to infer a pattern.

During the inference stage, learners look at the data in the data stage of the lesson to solve the puzzle that the inference task presents. Requiring them to infer gives them a reason to generalize from data. An inference task can focus on form, meaning, and/or use, depending on whatever is required to facilitate the instruction. An inference task can even be designed to promote student-student interaction. However, it falls short of stating the generalization itself, or asking the learners to explicitly state this. The goal of an inference task is to lay the groundwork for the students to form a generalization later.

There are many ways for the teacher to provoke the student into hypothesizing.

- The teacher could elicit an utterance, a sentence similar in form to the data seen before, using a cue, a flash card, etc.
- If tense or aspect is a part of the lesson, you may provide timelines based on a story co-constructed with the students (Celce-Murcia & Hilles, 1988).
- Provide a syntax exercise with one extra word, where the extra word represents a form that is incorrect, most likely a word or form a deductive-approach lesson may teach as incorrect.
- Direct students to highlight words similar in kind, but without specifying the kind; for example, ask students to highlight the words *shiny* and *loud*, plus words similar to it, but do not mention that they are looking for adjectives.
- Choose the correct word between two choices to complete a similar grammatical form to the one in your data stage. Look at the original data (e.g., concordance data) and choose from a list of five sentences to identify the correct and incorrect sentences.
- Students can explain why a form is incorrect (Erlam, 2003). The teacher can, for example, provide sentences that are incorrect, perhaps mixed in with sentences that are correct.

The Generalization Stage: Forming the Rule

In the demonstration lesson, students were required to make a schematic of the form in question, and the teacher elicited reasons for using the form. This was an example of generalization from data.

Generalization, in the context of this approach, means the forming of a rule from data and prior inference work, with students forming this rule with minimal assistance from the instructor. It is different from an inference task in that there is a higher level of abstraction being asked from the students. They are now required to summarize in the form of a rule, a chart, or a formula what was involved in the data and inference stages.

In general, avoid long explanations of grammar points. Keep this stage short, less than five minutes of a lesson. It can even be structured as a one-minute activity, if necessary. It is acceptable to provide a teacher-style rule after the students state the rule in their terms, but keep it as close to their phrasing of the rule as possible.

Different tasks are appropriate for this stage. Often teachers may ask “What do these words have in common?” to elicit key grammatical terms (or an acceptable synonym that the students are comfortable using) for building a grammatical pattern. For that technique, the teacher may want to elicit examples of those terms (teacher: “OK, they’re adjectives. What are some other adjectives?”) and use her fingers to count along as they produce examples, beckoning them to come up with more examples. Eliciting the meaning and the use of the form may be helpful. Making a chart or table of the form works as a generalization task, as was done in the demonstration lesson. With a slightly stronger class, the teacher could put students in pairs or small groups and have them come up with a rule on their own.

CONCLUSION

This discussion should not be taken as a full outline for a grammar lesson, since it only focuses on the presentation, co-construction, or guided eliciting of a grammar point. Inductive instruction of this type could be used to precede the practice exercises typical of a grammar textbook, for example. Allowing students time to freely communicate in the target form afterward is crucial for them to acquire it.

Nor should the teacher feel limited to having to do this sort of inductive work at the beginning of a lesson. Teachers who prefer task-based learning could adapt these three stages of inductive instruction for use in their post-task stage, rather than having inductive instruction precede activities designed for practice and communication. The task stage and reporting stages could serve as data from which the post-stage could apply the inference and the generalization stages.

Regardless of the overall design of a grammar lesson, it is worthwhile to have an inductive component where students make inferences and generalizations from data they created or observed. It will put the learners more in control of their own acquisition of a variety of grammatical points.

THE AUTHOR

Roger Fusselman *is a TESOL trainer at the Institute of TESOL at Seoul National University of Education. He holds an MA in Teaching English as a Second Language from the University of Central Missouri, a Postgraduate Certificate in TEFL/TESL from the*

University of Birmingham, a Missouri English teacher's license, and a BA in English and philosophy from the University of Missouri, Kansas City. He has over a decade of experience as a teacher in Korea. Email: mrfusselman@gmail.com

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APPENDIX

So . . . That

Stage 1: Data. Read the dialogue aloud with your partner, finishing the sentences with the endings on the right.

Sentences	Endings
Carl: Hey, Mel! How are you doing? **Mel:** Not so good. I went to a rock concert last night. **Carl:** But that's a lot of fun, right? What's the problem? **Mel:** Well, *[1]* the music was so **loud** that ____. **Carl:** Ouch! That's terrible. **Mel:** Yeah. *[a Tico drives by]* Oh, no! That Tico almost hit me! **Carl:** Don't worry. *[2]* The Tico is so **weak** that ____. **Mel:** Ha-ha! That's funny! **Carl:** Thanks. How was your English class yesterday? **Mel:** OK, I guess. I will buy my teacher a hat. **Carl:** Why? **Mel:** *[3]* His head is so **shiny** that ____. **Carl:** Too bad. Get him a very big hat. **Mel:** Sure. How about your English teacher? **Carl:** Very different story. *[4]* She is so **beautiful** that ____. **Mel:** Wow! She must be really beautiful. **Carl:** Yeah. We're lucky. We want to buy her a gift, too. Want to go with me to Super Department Store next weekend? **Mel:** No. *[5]* The gifts there are so **expensive** that ____. Want to hang out tonight? **Carl:** Hmm… I don't think I can. **Mel:** Why not? **Carl:** I got an F on my last math test. *[6]* My mother was so **angry** that ___. I'm going home to study. See you later! **Mel:** See you later. Good luck studying.	*[A]* birds sing when she walks in the park. *[B]* even Bill Gates can't buy anything there. *[C]* it hurt my ears. *[D]* it can't drive over a piece of gum. *[E]* she won't let me see any friends for the next few days. *[F]* all the students wear sunglasses in his classroom.

Stage 2: Inference. Choose the right sentence ending for making a funny sentence with good grammar. You may look at the dialogue between Carl and Mel to help you.

1. Morrie is so dumb that ____.
   a. he is not smart. b. he cannot add two and two. c. he is bad at very easy math.
2. The weather is so hot that ____.
   a. my skin is melting. b. I am always drinking water. c. it is 30 degrees.
3. Garrett's Japanese is so bad that ____.
   a. he cannot speak it. b. he thinks *yama* means *film*. c. he is afraid of singing rooms.

Stage 3: Generalization. Work in pairs. Look at the Carl and Mel dialogue and the three other sentences. Put the following grammar words in the boxes below: *action verb, adjective, be-verb, noun/pronoun,* and *noun/pronoun.*

________	________	*so* ________	*that*	________	________	(extra stuff).
the quality the subject has			➜	how much of that quality it has		

Identity / Autonomy / Motivation

A Proposal for Peer-Supported EFL Teacher Reflection

Quint Oga-Baldwin
Fukuoka University of Education, Fukuoka, Japan

Teacher reflection can be a powerful form of feedback for improving self-efficacy. To date, the study of the development of teacher self-efficacy in second language education has been an underdeveloped area. This paper outlines how reflection works with teacher beliefs to improve pedagogy, the ways in which reflective practice can influence teacher self-efficacy and self-regulation, and presents several points on how a reflective teaching program can be implemented within the university EFL teaching environment. In the model proposed, reflection can be used to raise teacher effectiveness, and when teachers recognize improvement in their abilities, they likewise recognize further ways in which they can grow and develop professionally. In order to properly scaffold teachers toward in-service professional development, this author proposes an equal-rank peer-development model to help teachers develop on the job.

INTRODUCTION

While much has been written about effective practice in general teacher education programs (Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006), Wright (2010, p. 277) noted that in regards to training procedures of second language teachers, “relatively little has been published which examines what actually happens in formal institution-based training sessions.” Brandt (2006) describes certain features of TESOL certification courses, though these practices may not extend and apply to all contexts. This lack of knowledge makes it difficult to discuss the backgrounds that second language teachers bring to their fields, especially when faced with native speaker expatriates teaching in the foreign language environment. While the use of reflection in second language teacher education has been strongly emphasized in the literature (Farrell, 2004, 2007; Loughran, 2002; Richards, 2004, 2008; Richards & Farrell, 2005) and has been documented in some language teacher training programs (Chiang, 2008; Farrell, 2007; Luk, 2008), it is unclear as to whether reflective practice is used in all teacher training situations, whether the practice continues for in-service teachers (Chiang, 2008), and how the practice can be successfully scaffolded in distance education settings (Hall & Knox, 2009). This article will offer a theory-based argument for the creation of a formal in-service reflection process designed to improve teachers’ self-efficacy.

The study of teacher self-efficacy has become a major field of study within the field of education during the past three decades (Klassen, Tze, Betts, & Gordon, 2010). Over this period, the numerous studies done have indicated a strong relationship between teachers' beliefs and the final outcomes in student learning (Bandura, 1997; Klassen et al., 2010; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), as well as the influence of instructional behaviors (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). However, the field in general has only recently been applied to second-language teachers (Chacon, 2005; Chiang, 2008), and only with regard to a limited number of teachers and teaching contexts.

SELF-EFFICACY AND EDUCATION

Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief about their capacity for success at a specific endeavor (Bandura, 1977). Within Albert Bandura's social cognitive theory of learning (1986), this has been one of the most heavily researched areas, with numerous specific applications made to the area of education (Bandura, 1997). According to the theory, beliefs about likely success or failure moderate and shape individual achievement and motivation toward learning tasks. These beliefs are informed by previous successes (or the lack thereof), where belief about and motivation toward a task are fed or hindered by the results of the individual's previous attempts at the task.

Specifically applied to the process of teacher education and professional development, teacher self-efficacy refers to the belief that a teacher can have influence over the lives of all students, including those who may not want to learn at the time (Guskey & Passaro, 1994). This theory has been related to professional and personal motivation (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Several researchers have emphasized how teacher self-efficacy affects teachers' behaviors and attitudes toward student learning (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984). These same teacher behaviors affect student learning and engagement (Gordon, Dembo, & Hocevar, 2007; Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan, 2007), with positive correlations between teachers with high personal and professional self-efficacy, and student motivation and achievement. Teacher self-efficacy has been shown to correlate to teachers' engagement (Evers, Brouwers, & Tomic, 2002), professional commitment (Coladarci, 1992), and student achievement (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). While the above works all describe the state of the field and the benefits that positive teacher self-efficacy can bring to educational settings, few have looked specifically at how these are developed over time (Chiang, 2008).

REFLECTION AS TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Reflection has been characterized as a central part of learning to teach by several researchers (Brandt, 2006, 2008; Farrell, 2004, 2007). One specific effective teacher training program works from the assumption that reflection is "the essential tool for linking practice and theory" (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006, p. 1024). Teachers form their beliefs based on their early experiences, but these teacher beliefs may remain stable over time (Marsh, 2007a).

For the purposes of teacher development, teachers' beliefs may be difficult to change (Murray & MacDonald, 1997). Martin and Ramsden (1993) noted that staff development required training and retraining to help teachers improve their practice. Further, according to Kagan (1992), programs must require novice teachers to state their beliefs about teaching and learning so that they may examine and analyze them empirically. In order to get teachers to properly reflect on their practice, it is also necessary for them to explicitly state the conditions and assumptions they use to make professional decisions. In order to elicit and push teachers to examine their beliefs, reflection is essential to teacher development.

Herbert Marsh's (2007a) work on the longitudinal development of university teachers based on student evaluations found that over time, teachers generally show very little change and may decline in perceived effectiveness without external intervention. Marsh also discusses other studies that have made proper use of student evaluations for positive effect (e.g., Marsh, 2001, 2007b; Marsh & Roche, 1993, 1997), citing how outside interventions for improving teacher effectiveness can lead to positive outcomes.

Work on teachers' self-regulation practices has indicated that the ability of a teacher to self-regulate learning about their profession can influence how students approach their own self-regulation and educational outcomes (Gordon, Dembo, & Hocevar, 2007). Further, a teacher's ability to create a teaching environment where students are capable of self-regulation has been shown to have strong positive educational outcomes (Maehr & Midgley, 1996; Marzano, 1987; McCaslin & Good, 1992). As self-regulation has been indicated to be a trainable metacognitive skill that moves from other-regulation toward self-regulation (Zimmerman, 1989), it thereby follows that scaffolding teachers' use of this ability can have positive results for learners. As self-reflection represents a significant part of the self-regulatory cycle (Zimmerman, 1986), the reflective process is one that requires external modeling and training. This also fits within the social cognitive framework proposed by Bandura (1986), wherein social modeling facilitates the learning of desired behaviors.

This previous point is of additional significance when considered in light of the evidence indicating that pre-service teachers often employ ineffective metacognitive strategies as students (McClendon, 1996; White & Hargrove, 1996; Woolfolk Hoy, 1996). There is also the need to consider the fact that many pre-service models for teaching (i.e., teacher trainers) may not self-regulate (Tillema & Kremer-Hayon, 2002), which casts doubt upon the ability of teachers themselves to regulate their own professional development, as teacher trainers serve as the model for student teachers (Lunnenberg, Korthagen, & Swennen, 2007). Unless self-reflective practice becomes second nature in both pre- and in-service settings, there appears to be a strong chance of a long-term plateau effect where experience counts for very little of a teacher's pedagogical ability (Marsh, 2007a).

According to work on effective teaching programs by Korthagen, Loughran, and Russell (2006), one of the best interventions to develop effective teaching is for teachers to work together on reflection toward developing an understanding of how to act in specific situations related to the teaching. Effective teaching programs make use of peer relationships to bolster both motivation and teaching skills. These peer groups can improve overall group motivation, and peer-supported learning groups can help teachers develop both together and individually. A peer-supported learning group not only improves teacher effectiveness, but also teachers' self-regulation and modeling of self-regulated learning.

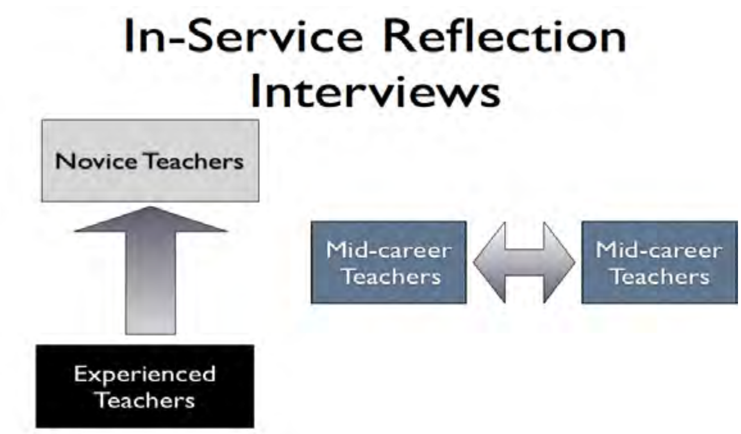
ARGUMENTS FOR AN INTERVENTION PROGRAM

Based on the concept of self-efficacy, where success leads to positive beliefs about abilities, which in turn leads to further success in a positive cycle, it follows that in order to prevent the plateau effect described in Marsh (2007a), teachers need intervention to ensure positive growth. As suggested by Korthagen, Loughran, and Russell (2006), one effective intervention used in pre-service programs has been the use of peer-supported reflection. In promoting in-service reflection, these programs may serve as a model for how to institutionalize teacher development and effective professional practice.

In the university EFL setting, teachers may come in from diverse backgrounds with highly varied teaching experiences. While tertiary-level EFL teaching shares much in common with high school and junior high school, and may have similarities to privately run English conversation schools, it carries significant differences. First, students are not required to attend class in the same fashion as they may be at the high school and junior high school levels, especially in the Japanese, Chinese, and Korean settings. Further, while students are indeed paying customers as in a private conversation school, many may not be themselves directly responsible for funding their own education. While the individual student is indeed a stakeholder in the educational process, parents also claim a significant financial stake in the process. This means that university EFL teachers must tread a fine line in not only providing quality educational services, but also making sure that both students and parents, as end-users, are satisfied throughout the process, making the improvement of student ratings and standardized abilities a priority.

From the literature above, it has been established that currently used in-service measures of teacher effectiveness, such as student class rating surveys, generally do not act as effective feedback for motivating teachers to improve their classes without external stimulus (Marsh, 2007a). In order to help teachers improve their practice, this author proposes a peer-supported model of professional development.

In the peer-supported model for reflective professional development, newer teachers work with experienced teachers in a scaffolded and standardized reflection process. Participating experienced teachers, with five or more years experience, would have a standardized reflective interview (see Appendix A) designed to help inexperienced teachers, defined as teachers in the first or second year of teaching, reflect on their classes, planning, and goals on a weekly basis, all the while being available to provide feedback and support through the process. At the same time, mid-career teachers, sometimes called “transitional teachers,” with three to five years experience, would be paired with another teacher of a similar experience level at the same university. These teachers would give the same interview as given by the experienced teacher to the novice, but instead of the interview being relatively one-way, it would change into a more open dialogue to promote collaboration and innovation (Figure 1). Once these teachers reach a certain level of experience under this system, they can then make use of their abilities to help scaffold other novice teachers. This recognizes the talents of the experienced teacher and employs said talents to train other teachers. Under this model, experienced teachers would then be expected to carry out self-reflection for the purposes of improving student abilities and class assessment results, thus allowing them a measure of autonomy and self-responsibility, reflecting their expertise.



[Arrows indicate direction of questioning.]

FIGURE 1. A model of in-service peer-scaffolded development

Important to this model is for experienced teachers not to be proscriptive in their scaffolding of ideas, but rather to act in a way for new teachers to build strong self-regulatory abilities. This is why the interview process needs to be standardized, not only to allow for consistency of reflective experience, but also to ensure that the dialog is more focused on the teacher doing the reflection in order to promote individual problem solving. By helping teachers to reflect and giving concrete feedback on their reflection, teachers are able to retain their autonomy, while being pushed towards improved teaching practice. It is very important that this model not become one of apprenticeship or novice teachers copying experienced teachers, as that may simply reinforce extant ineffective paradigms of learning. Instead, the interview is designed to elicit critical thinking from the newer teachers and allow older teachers to give feedback and make suggestions when these are needed, ultimately interfering as little as possible.

One potential problem with the institutionalization of this model may be resistance on the part of educators to what may be perceived as greater intrusion by the school. While it is true that these interviews ask for greater time from the teachers, this is time teachers can use to develop their ideas and improve their practice, and offers a chance for teachers to create their own new lesson ideas. Further, the interviews are designed to be short and could potentially be done during lunch or in conjunction with planning time. Finally, the program would need to be instituted after proper induction and training for participants, with clear and concrete goals for improving student evaluation ratings.

In order to properly test this model, it must be validated with in-service teachers. This will require the training of several experienced teachers to carry out the interviews with new teachers. Once a cohort of new teachers has been inducted into the collaborative reflective process, the program can continue and build into the model proposed. Proper qualitative and quantitative testing of student learning outcomes and survey results are needed in order to demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed program.

CONCLUSION

Knowing that over time university teachers generally present a lack of change (Marsh, 2007a), and based on the importance of improving teacher quality for both pedagogical and economic reasons (Hanushek, 2010), institutional intervention seems warranted. In first-language education, a properly scaffolded program for reflection has been shown to have positive effects with regard to teacher competence and quality (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006), which in turn improves teacher self-efficacy beliefs.

The model proposed does not necessarily represent the only way to improve in-service teacher quality. Stillwell (2009) has offered a conceptually similar model of peer observation and reflection, also involving scaffolded reflection based on lesson observations, though his model differs in its focus on in-class observation rather than peer-supported self-regulation. Stillwell's model proposes a three-way process that utilizes reflection but also involves specified observation-based feedback. While this model could certainly work in tandem with the model proposed here, it differs in its path toward the ultimate goal of habitual self-reflection and self-regulation. The goal of this model is to make self-observation a self-motivated procedure.

The implementation of this type of in-service training program would depend heavily on the level of teacher induction toward the process (Wang, Odell, & Schwille, 2008). This would indicate that, at the start, the program would need to be tested in centers with regularly incoming new teachers. University contexts where teachers are initially given limited contracts would be ideal for the purposes of such a program, as they would facilitate the turnover that would allow for incoming teachers. This may also work in school districts where teachers are moved after set intervals to work in different locations.

The program proposed in these pages is at this point theoretical, though follows previously used examples of practice used to improve pre-service and in-service teachers' effectiveness (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006; Loughran, 2002; Russell, 2002). It represents a synthesis of previous ideas and a formalization of role relations commonly in place in schools. In this era of various economic worries, this program represents a low-cost option for schools to improve teacher quality and build solidarity among faculty. By producing cohorts of teachers capable of self-reflection and self-motivated professional development, schools will be able to better focus resources in other necessary areas while maintaining high educational standards.

THE AUTHOR

Quint Oga-Baldwin *is a graduate of the Temple University Master of Science in Education program. He is currently working as a full-time teacher trainer at Fukuoka University of Education. His current research interests are EFL student and teacher self-efficacy development and teacher education. Email: qogab1@fukuoka-edu.ac.jp.*

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APPENDIX

Standardized Interview Questions

1. What were your original goals for class today?
2. What are your current goals for the end of the semester?
3. What did you do in class?
4. What did you do to prepare for today's class?
5. What were you thinking about when you prepared for the class?
6. Why did you choose the activities you did today?
7. What was a successful part of today's class?
8. Was there any part of class where you weren't satisfied?
9. Was there anything you felt should be changed if you did this class again?
10. Is there anything you want to change for next week?
11. What are you planning to do in next week's class?

Student Reactions to Literature Circles in Content-Based Instruction

David Williams
Josai International University, Chiba, Japan

Literature circles are a student-focused reading and speaking fluency approach to learning that is gaining recognition amongst second language acquisition (SLA) professionals. This recognition, together with a parallel, but unconnected, rise in content learning in L2 education, has provided practitioners with a new context to make studying language about content more engaging and effective. This study looks at how we might facilitate this context, how learners feel about the use of a literature-based approach to content learning, and whether they perceive it as beneficial. Based on the results of this research, students give broad support to adopting a literature circle approach to content learning in L2 studies and perceive the approach as positive in developing a range of language skills.

INTRODUCTION

To help students make the step from the traditional grammar-focused and teacher-centered classroom, to one based more on real-world discussion, language teachers are continually looking for a tool that promotes confidence and fluency, while at the same time, is engaging and enables independent, and critical, thinking. These aims are the foundations of much current thinking to task-based learning (TBL) approaches to the classroom (Willis & Willis, 2009) and, at the same time, are highly valued *de facto* skills for students in a range of studies including hospitality (Blue & Harun, 2003) and medicine (Hiu-Uen, Johnson, Hui-Lung, & Floyd, 1999), where effective communication is paramount. These TBL approaches include the leader method (Ward, Wade, & Dowling, 2008), language portfolios (O'Dwyer, 2009) and general fluency tasks (Kellem, 2009); however, it is the literature circle that has received the most widespread, and increasing, interest from language professionals in recent years (Brown, 2009; Furr, 2007; Jolly & Miles, 2009; Shang, 2006; Williams, 2009). At the same time that literature circles have received greater attention, there has been a drive to make tertiary-level English studies more practical. This has led to a diversification of university programs such that content studies are now offered *in* English in addition to the more traditional language classes being offered *about* English (Orr, 1998).

What Are Literature Circles?

Although known as a study tool for as long as 300 years, it was only in the 1980s that literature circles were revived in the first language (L1) context, and another decade before their appearance in the field of SLA (Daniels, 2002). The literature circle for second language (L2) learners, as described by Furr (2007), is a group of six students in which each reader in the group carries out a different task for the same fictional story prior to discussion of it. Furr suggests six roles for fictional texts with each having a specific set of instructions detailed on a role sheet. Learners fill out the role sheet while reading and use it as the basis for their group discussion. The different reading roles include summarizing, assessment of characters in the story, examining vocabulary items, leading the group, and reading for cultural issues. By having learners complete different reading tasks by way of role sheets, texts become more manageable and, through discussion, meaning becomes more accessible.

Despite their relatively short history in SLA, the reading/discussions format of literature circles has already been recognized by language professionals as promoting, "structured, meaningful discussions" (Furr, 2007, p. 16), as a "meaning-based, rather than information-driven, approach to learning" (Willis & Willis, 2009, p. 4), as "empowering" to students (Brown, 2009, p. 17), and as a means for students to reflect on existing knowledge and attitudes (Shang, 2006). The literature circle is thus a multi-faceted structured approach to reading that gives rise to purposeful discussion that is relevant to students: highly desirable outcomes for any language classroom.

Literature circles have a number of key features that clearly differentiate them from other L2 reading-based input tasks. Firstly, they utilize graded material, which reduces the need for dictionary or other detailed lexical work. Such comprehensible input (Krashen, 1983) raises opportunities for deeper discussion and critical thinking. This comprehensible input works in tandem with the structured role sheet to create a framework with language outcomes that are greater than the sum of the readers' individual parts (Furr, 2007). This is in contrast to the results obtained when students have multiple tasks of reading, translation, and comprehension, as found in traditional L2 reading/discussion approaches (Warren-Price, 2007). Finally, students in literature circles discuss the text by working in collaboration with one another. Working together ensures that discussion content, pace, direction, and lexical complexity are at the students' own level rather than that of the instructor. Moreover, with students in self-contained groups, the teacher is free to act as a facilitator and monitor respective groups' discussions (Wiencek & O'Flahaven, 1994).

FROM LITERATURE CIRCLE TO CONTENT-BASED READING CIRCLE

As the name suggests, the literature circle is designed for fiction-based materials. In a globalized world, however, students need to be equipped with the skills to discuss and analyze *content*. This is particularly true for students studying subjects where communication is key (Leslie & Russell, 2006). As an instructor of socio-cultural content, I wanted to utilize the fiction-based literature circle format to make content more accessible and meaningful to learners. The result is the content-based reading circle (CBRC). Although the subject material in fiction and content-based, circles may be different only minor adjustments to Furr's fiction approach were required.

Instead of six roles, the CBRC employs just four. This is partly because some fiction literature circle roles are redundant to content-based materials, but also because, from my own experience, I found six roles provided fewer opportunities for fluency practice. The four CBRC roles are: a *group leader* who keeps discussion going, raises questions, and delegates time; a *summarizer* to highlight details and key points in the text; a *word master*, who selects important words, phrases, or collocations from the text; and a *culture connector* who emphasizes the cultural associations and/or differences between the culture represented in the text and that of the students or the students' experiences (an example culture connector role sheet can be found in Appendix A). In addition, I also introduced a *group representative* (but without the role sheet), to end the group discussion stage. This role is shared among the members of one group.

Running the Content-Based Reading Circle

Since the role sheets are the framework for discussion, it is vital that students are coached on their use in the first class session. In this first meeting, it is also important for students to form groups and for instructors to inform groups that they will be fixed for a four-week cycle. Students are then given the first text for homework to complete their respective role sheets as per the instructions on it.

In subsequent weeks, instructors should first spend 10 minutes at the beginning of each class introducing or contextualizing the topic. After this introduction, students should begin their reading circle, led by the *discussion leader*, with the instructor designating a specific amount of time for discussion. At first, a suitable time limit may be 20 minutes (depending on ability), but as students become more familiar with the CBRC format, this time can be increased.

Once the allotted time is complete, the group representative from each group stands in front of the whole class for two or three minutes highlighting one aspect of their group's discussion. The other groups are then free to ask questions to that representative or members of his/her group. Finally, the class closes with a teacher-centered session which advises students on good (and poor) use of language and issues dealing with content picked up during monitoring. At the end of the session, students are given a new text and role sheet to prepare for the following class. This is repeated over four consecutive weeks with different texts and with students taking different roles. Consequently, each member in the group takes on each role over one cycle.

As a means of evaluating students, role sheets are collected in the fourth week, and in the fifth week, students prepare and present a short presentation or poster based on one of the broad themes discussed in the previous four weeks. Ideally, this should give students the opportunity to pursue something of personal interest and be delivered in a communicative colloquium-style forum. These presentations can also be used as part of assessment. This four-week CBRC cycle, plus one presentation week, can be repeated three times in a typical college semester.

Research Methodology

In order to understand students' reactions to using the CBRC in a language classroom, a 15-item questionnaire was developed. This included eight 5-point

Likert-type items and five open-ended written responses (see Appendix B for a list of the questions). The questionnaire was administered to two separate groups of students (N = 59) studying the same cross-cultural course at a public university in Japan. Students were informed of the purpose of the questionnaire and given 30 minutes during class to complete it (answers were possible in English or Japanese). Numerical coding of the Likert-type items was made and analyzed using Excel. Responses written in Japanese were translated by the author.

RESULTS

Popularity of Roles

As Figures 1a and 1b show, the most popular CBRC roles were the culture connector and group leader. The culture connector was the most popular role with 40% of the students, while just 7% voted it as their *least* favorite choice. Similarly, the group leader role gained scores of 32% and 12%, respectively. By contrast, just 8% of the students ranked the summarizer as their favorite role while more than half (57%) gave it least-favorite status. The word master was ranked first by just 20% of the students and fourth by 24%.

Highlighting the popularity of the culture connector, one second-year female student stated, “It was fun to talk and discuss about our own views on cultural differences brought up by the text with other members of the group.” For group leader, a first-year student remarked, “The group leader is the most responsible role, and I enjoyed raising questions that I wanted to be answered by other students in my group.” The summarizer role, meanwhile, was seen as both time-consuming and difficult. Typical of students’ reactions was that of a first-year female student who indicated, “It takes a lot of time to write the summary, and depending on the text, it was hard to know where and what to summarize.” It is thus clear that students evaluated the CBRC roles differently, but had a clear preference towards the culture connector and group leader roles.

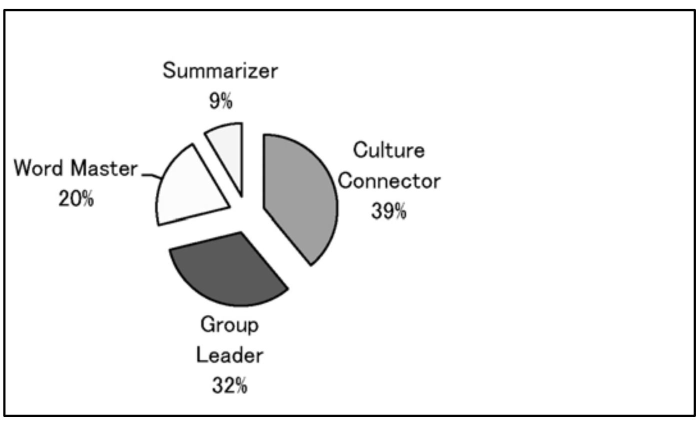

FIGURE 1a. First-ranked CBRC role (% of students)

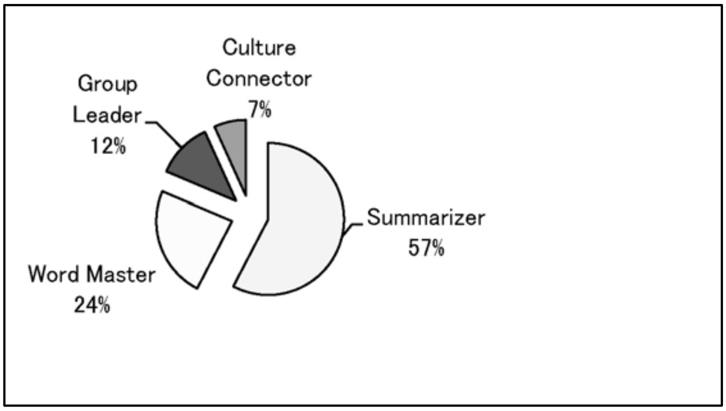

FIGURE 1b. Fourth-ranked CBRC role (% of students)

Students' Perceptions of CBRC's Utility

Figure 2 describes questionnaire items 7-12 and highlights students' perceptions of the utility of CBRC as a means to improve five language targets. These targets were (a) understanding a text (*understand*), (b) development of vocabulary and collocations (*vocabulary*), (c) cross-cultural awareness (*xculture*), (d) critical-thinking skills (*crit. think*), and (e) overall language development (*overall*). *Again* represents students' interest in using CBRCs in language classes in the future.

Based on a linear 5-point scale where 1 was "strong agreement," and 5 "strong disagreement," students perceived the CBRC as effective for developing all five targets. The most effective were *xculture* (Mean = 1.6), and *understand* (=1.8). At the same time, *crit. think* and *overall* delivered mean scores of 1.9. The language target that was perceived as least effectively served by the CBRC was *vocabulary* (= 2.6). These results indicate that, with the exception of vocabulary development, respondents strongly or very strongly believe CBRCs are a good means to hone key language targets. Future usage of the CBRC was also supported by the data with a mean score of 2.0 for *again*.

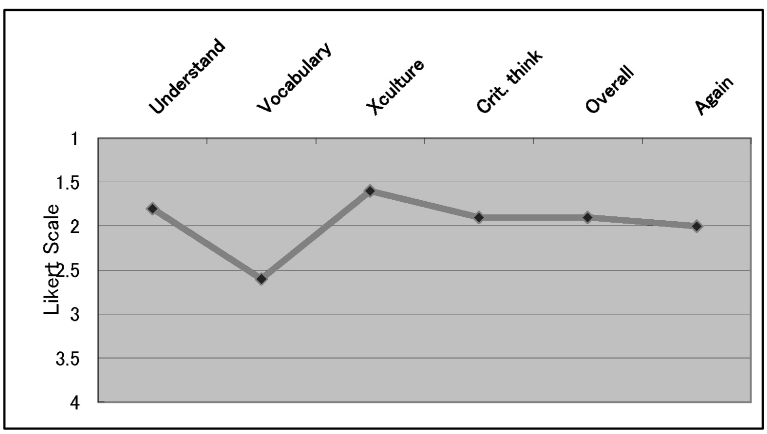

FIGURE 2. Utility of content-based reading circles for language development
Note. (Likert Scale) 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4= disagree

Overall Impressions of the CBRC

Responses showed that students had a positive attitude towards the CBRC at the beginning and at the end of the semester. Representative of this enthusiasm at the beginning of the semester, a male student said, “It isn’t common in Japan to have a role for each person in a conversation class, so I thought it [the CBRC] would be interesting when I first heard about it.” At this early stage, the CBRC was also seen as a good way to motivate students. One student noted, “I thought CBRC would be a good idea because we [students] will not be lazy and we can know how important it is to have responsibilities.”

At the end of the semester, students remained fully supportive of the CBRC. A key reason for this was the structure offered by the role sheets. Highlighting this, one first-year male stated, “Because there were roles, I was sure of what to do. Though I can’t speak English properly, I could be active in the discussion. The roles make you speak in the group, so I felt it was easy to be interested in the class.”

Overall the CBRCs were seen as novel, fun, and engaging. In explaining the novelty aspect, one female student claimed, “After using the CBRC, not only has my resistance to speaking English has gone down but I could improve my English in a different way to when I was studying for my entrance exam.” A first-year male student also noted, “CBRCs are different because you read first and then say your opinion. It was fun because you are in groups and that makes you get involved in the lesson because you don’t want to let other people down.” The CBRCs also gave students the impression of being fair to learners of all abilities. Concerning this, a second-year female student remarked, “I think literature circles are a great idea because usually students who speak English the best take the leader role so there are fewer opportunities for everyone to speak. All the roles were different from one another so I could read English from different angles.”

In offering these responses, students showed a strong preference for CBRCs. The only drawbacks related to the difficulty of preparation (the average time for reading and role preparation was as much as 90 minutes) and, in two cases, differences in personality with other members in a group. Since the CBRC is a group of students, the likelihood of such differences creating problems is limited when compared to learner approaches that focus on pair work.

DISCUSSION

Furr (2007) describes fiction-based literature circles as working “magic” (p. 18). With the possible caveat of students having slight differences of opinion with other members in their group, the current research strongly indicates that such “magic” can also result from a reading circle approach in content-based instruction.

With simple adjustments to the fiction-based literature circle, the research also shows that Asian students have, in contrast to the findings of Burrows (2008), little culturally engendered angst or ambivalence towards the demands central to the success of a reading circle such as leadership, or critical thinking. Rather, it seems students understand and appreciate the independence and responsibility inherent in the literature circle and, via the role sheets, have the means to hold stimulating and effective group discussions.

The role sheets distinguish reading circles from other reading/discussion approaches to L2 studies, but according to the results here, not all the roles were equally popular. The popularity of group leader and culture connector may have been in response to the majority of the participants being both motivated and enthusiastic about English studies, and in many cases, being confident of their discussion skills. This may have led to the group leader role being embraced more easily than it might have been with less able students. Secondly, since the subject matter of the class was cross-cultural, it is perhaps to be expected that students would rate the relevancy of the culture connector highly. Whether the same result would have come from content studies of a more specific nature (such as science) would make a highly interesting research.

The lower popularity of the summarizer and word master roles was unexpected. In the case of the summarizer, it seems that students found it both difficult and, in some cases, meaningless to summarize extensive reading materials that were already in a summary form. One possible way to alleviate this issue might be to eliminate the text summarizer role and introduce a *discussion secretary* role. By having a role that summarizes the discussion rather than the text, not only would students revisit their discussion, but it would also prepare them better for the group representative role at the end of the discussion circle. Meanwhile, the low rating given the word master may stem from a student desire to find new vocabulary items rather than previously known words in new contexts or new combinations. This intimates that CBRC facilitators need to be aware that the lexical complexity of the reading materials as well as the initial orientation given to students will have an important bearing on the success of the CBRC.

Brown (2009) has shown that the success of the literature circle approach is the result of the fun and anticipation found in the classroom. As the results described here reveal, success is also a function of the students themselves *believing* the CBRC *is* effective in raising language proficiency. Unfortunately, it was beyond the scope of the current research to determine whether this belief is translated into a measurable improvement in proficiency such as faster vocabulary recall, or gains in standardized test scores but such a determination is highly desirable. By employing a more complex research design, such questions could be answered and help CBRC practitioners to better understand how students benefit from using reading circles in content studies.

CONCLUSION

With clearly defined tasks at its heart, the content-based reading circle (CBRC) creates a new learning context for using content-based materials in SLA. This new context is challenging, but at the same time allows for greater students engagement and involvement in class activities. As the current research shows, students report the CBRC as being a very effective way to undertake content-based studies in English and are enthusiastic to be involved in it. By employing the literature circle approach (i.e., the CBRC) in content-based classes, language facilitators have a new tool to help make English studies more practical, enjoyable, and relevant to students in the classroom and potentially in their lives beyond it.

THE AUTHOR

__David Williams__ is an associate professor of tourism studies at Josai International University in Chiba, Japan. He has lived and worked in Japan for almost 20 years. His current research interests include the use of extensive reading in content-based studies and the use of presentations in class. Email: williams@jiu.ac.jp

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APPENDIX A

Culture Connector Role Sheet

Name: ______________________________

Topic: ______________________________

The **Culture Connector**'s job is to look at the text and note both differences and similarities between the culture represented by the text and your own culture (or a culture you are familiar with). For example, you might look at the overall topic and analyze whether this theme is important in your own culture or a detail within the text itself. Remember to look for similarities and differences, and give any specific examples that illustrate the cultural connection you are making. If relevant, you may also make observations based on your own personal experience. As **Culture Connector,** you should also ask questions to your group about any cultural points in the text that may be confusing or that you are interested to find out more about.

Some differences between my culture and the one represented in the text are:

a) ______________________________

____

____

b) ______________________________

____

____

Some similarities between my culture and the one represented in the text are:

a) ______________________________

____

____

b) ______________________________

____

____

Culture Questions

1:

2:

APPENDIX B

Research Questionnaire

In this class, we studied English texts using a role sheet and discussion group. This approach is known as a *literature circle*. I would like to know your opinions about this.

Please answer the questions below to help me understand what you think about *literature circles* **(written answers may be in English or Japanese)**. Use question 15 for any additional comments.

Thank you for your help, your opinions are very valuable.

1. Have you used a literature circle approach in a language class before?
2. How did you feel when you *first* knew we would use literature circles for this class?
3. How do you feel now that you have *finished* the course?
4. How long did you usually spend reading and preparing your role for class?
5. Please rank the 4 roles in order of preference. Briefly explain your answer.

For questions 6-12, mark one of the five responses

a) I strongly agree
b) I agree
c) I neither agree nor disagree
d) I disagree
e) I strongly disagree

6a. I enjoyed the *group leader* role. 6b. I enjoyed the *word master* role.
6c. I enjoyed the *summarizer* role. 6d. I enjoyed the *culture connector* role.
7. Literature circles are a good way to understand a text.
8. Literature circles are a good way to learn about vocabulary and collocations.
9. Literature circles are a good way to develop cross-cultural awareness.
10. Literature circles are good for developing critical thinking skills.
11. Literature circles are good for overall English language development.
12. I would like to study English again by using literature circles.

For questions 13-15, write your answer in the space provided.

13. In your opinion, how do literature circles compare to other ways of studying a text?
14. Please write about your overall impression of using literature circles.
15. Do you have any other comments about literature circles?

Many thanks for taking the time and effort to answer this questionnaire.

David Williams

Learning Style Preferences

How Do Good Language Learners Learn English in Taiwan?

Chia-Ti (Heather) Tseng
Ta Hwa Institute of Technology, Hsinchu, Taiwan

This paper aims to investigate the language learning strategies (LLSs) employed by advanced EFL learners in Taiwan. It intends to find out their overall use of LLSs, and examines how they apply LLSs in a variety of tasks and with different English subskills. Twenty-eight graduate students from the English department in a northern university in Taiwan participated in this study. The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), a background questionnaire, and a semi-structured interview were adopted for data collection. The results indicate that these advanced EFL learners have employed a variety of LLSs in learning English. In particular, their high use of metacognitve strategies has made them efficiently plan, monitor, and orchestrate different strategies for different language tasks. This study also reveals that participants have developed specific strategies for different English subskills, and they apply these strategies in an integrated manner. Other underlying commonalities for the participants are their sensitivity and attentiveness to different English expressions and usages, and their active creation of output channels for the internalization of language use. Other findings regarding gender, different levels of program, and studying abroad experience in relation to the use of LLSs among participants are also discussed in this paper.

INTRODUCTION

Since the mid 1970s, increasing attention has been paid to language learning strategy use in English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) learning. Numerous research has tried to identify the language learning strategies (LLSs) adopted by "good language learners" and results of these studies showed that more proficient language learners use more LLSs, and more types of LLSs, compared with less proficient learners (Altan, 2003; Bruten, 2001; Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999 Green & Oxford, 1995; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Rubin, 1975, 1981; Wharton, 2000). In addition, research findings have revealed that variables such as motivation, gender, type of task, level of proficiency, different culture and context, etc., may associate with differences in LLS use among EFL learners.

In the context of Taiwan, different studies related to LLSs have been conducted across different educational levels, ranging from elementary to university students (e.g., Lai, 2005; Lan, 2005; Yang, 1993). Attempts have also been made to explore the role of gender, proficiency level, motivation, and different majors in relation to the use of LLSs among EFL learners in Taiwan (e.g., Chang, 2004; Chang, Liu & Lee, 2007; Sy, 1994, 1995; Yang, 1994). From these studies, some generalizations can be drawn, such as, females tend to use more LLSs than males, and more proficient learners use more types of learning strategies. However, there have been very few studies looking at advanced-level EFL learners' language learning strategy use in English learning. The current study thus aims at examining LLSs commonly employed by advanced EFL learners in Taiwan. Through the identification of the advanced learners' LLSs and how they have applied these strategies in the process of English learning, some useful suggestions and tips may be drawn that will help other EFL learners, in Taiwan and other countries, improve their strategy use and consequently advance their English language proficiency.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS:

1. For the advanced EFL learners in this study, what is their overall learning strategy use in learning English? What are the most commonly used strategies? What are the least used strategies?
2. Do learner characteristics such as the experience of studying abroad, different levels of enrolled programs, or gender, result in differences in the use of LLSs among these advanced EFL learners?
3. How do these advanced EFL learners apply LLSs in their target language (English) learning? How are these LLSs correlated with one another?

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The Definition of Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

Rubin (1975, p. 43), one of the earliest researchers in the field, provided a broad definition of learning strategies as "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge." In 1978, Bialystok defined language learning strategies as "optional means for exploiting available information to improve competence in second language (p. 71)." Later, Wenden and Rubin (1987, p. 19) even more specifically defined learning strategies as "any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information." According to Chamot (1987, p. 71), learning strategies can be defined as "techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information." In 1990, O'Malley and Chamot looked at language learning from a cognitive perspective and viewed language learning strategies as "the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information (p. 1)." Apparently, the term *language learning strategy* has been toned and refined as more studies have been conducted in the field.

In 1990, Oxford defined language learning strategies as "specific action taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations (p. 8)." According to Oxford's system (1990, p. 17), learning strategies can be divided into direct strategies and indirect strategies. Direct strategies can be further divided into (a) memory strategies, (b) cognitive strategies, and (c) compensation strategies. Indirect strategies also divide into three categories: (a) metacognitive strategies, (b) affective strategies, and (c) social strategies. In fact, it has been found in Hsiao and Oxford's comparative study (2002) that Oxford's system of six basic types of language leaning strategies was superior in accounting for different strategies used by language learners.

Methods in Identifying Language Learning Strategies

Self-report has still been the most-adopted means in obtaining data on learners' language strategies, because, though accuracy in self report can be questioned, "it is still the only way to identify learners' mental processing" (Chamot, 2004, p. 3). Chamot listed different methods in identifying learners' language learning strategies: (a) retrospective interviews, (b) stimulated recall interviews, (c) questionnaires, (d) written diaries and journals, and (e) think-aloud protocols. Inevitably, each has its shortcomings, yet according to Chamot (2004, p. 3), "each provides important insights into unobservable mental learning strategies" adopted by language learners.

The most widely used research instrument in assessing learners' use of various strategies when studying a language is called the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), a questionnaire developed by Oxford (1990). A large number of studies have adopted SILL to collect data on EFL learners' language learning strategies (see Cohen, Weaver, & Li, 1998; Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Wharton, 2000). The SILL is a standardized measure of LLS with versions of different languages; thus, it has been used to collect and analyze information from language learners worldwide (Chamot, 2004). The current study has also adopted SILL as the instrument for collecting participant data on their use of LLSs.

Studies on Language Learning Strategies

Studies have been interested in different factors associated with differences in the use of LLSs. Studies which focused on the connection between strategy use and language proficiency (e.g., Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Wenden, 1987) have found that more proficient language learners employed more types and more frequent use of strategies than less proficient learners. Chamot (2005, p. 116) pointed out that good language learners were equipped with "metacognitive knowledge about task requirements" and could therefore "select appropriate strategies" accordingly. A study comparing more and less proficient learners in Taiwan (Lai, 2005) found that more proficient EFL Taiwanese learners used more metacognitive, more cognitive and less memory skills than less proficient learners. In Vandergrift's study (2003), he compared the listening comprehension strategies of more- and less-skilled Canadian students of French, and found that more-skilled listeners used more metacognitive strategies, especially comprehension monitoring, than did their less-skilled classmates.

In terms of gender differences, the results of many studies have revealed that females use more language learning strategies than males (e.g., Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 1993). In Ehrman and Oxford's study (1989), females tended to use more social learning strategies and in Oxford and Nyikos' study (1989), females used more formal rule-based practice strategies and conversational input elicitation strategies. A study done by Sy (1994) found that female EFL students in Taiwan tended to use more cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies.

As for differences in cultural background in relation to strategy use, studies also showed that learners of different ethnicity demonstrated preferences for the use of different LLSs (Bedell & Oxford, 1996; Politzer, 1983; Takeuchi, 2003). For example, some research findings (Huang & Van Naerrsen, 1987; Politzer, 1983; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985) have pointed out that Asian students preferred rote memorization strategies and tended to focus on the linguistic code. Politzer (1983) found that Hispanics used more social and interactive kinds of strategies in language learning. Wharton (2000) found that bilingual Singaporean students preferred to use social strategies in studying a foreign language. In 2003, Takeuchi (2003) used biographies to identify characteristics of good language learners in Japan and found that good Japanese EFL learners would create opportunities to practice English, apply specific strategies for different tasks, and use different kinds of memory and cognitive strategies to help with their internalization and practical use of the language. Nevertheless, culture is too broad a term with too many factors involved; thus, caution should be taken when any generalization is to be drawn in terms of ethnically preferred language strategies.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Twenty-eight graduate school students currently enrolled in MA and PhD programs of the English department of a university in northern Taiwan participated in this study. The number of participants from each program was the same, with 14 MA and 14 PhD students. The average age of the participants was 32, ranging from 22 to 55 years of age. Due to the nature of the program - an English major, graduate school program - there were more female than male students enrolled. Thus, the gender of the participants was somewhat imbalanced, with 8 males and 20 females participating in this study.

Participants' Language Proficiency and Other Background Information

The average years of English study among participants was 18, ranging from 10 to 33 years. As for language proficiency, the majority of the participants had achieved a TOEFL score of 600 or above, a TOEIC score of 900 or above, or an IELTS score of 6.5 or above. Since these participants had passed graduate school entrance exams as well as attaining advanced levels in standardized proficiency tests, they could therefore be categorized as advanced EFL learners in Taiwan. From the background questionnaires, the descriptive statistics indicated that the majority of participants (more than 70%) had never studied or lived in

English-speaking countries. Those who had were only there for a relatively short time (mostly a year).

In terms of self-rated language proficiency compared with other Chinese classmates, 50% of the participants rated themselves as fair and the other 50% rated themselves as being good or excellent. As for the self-rated proficiency compared with native speakers of English, 57% of the participants rated themselves as fair, nearly 29% rated themselves as good or excellent and only 14% of the participants rated themselves as poor compared with native speakers. That is, the majority of the participants in this study were quite confident about their English language ability.

As for the motivation of language learning, nearly all participants indicated that they wanted to learn English because of their interest in the language, or in the culture, and/or said they needed it for their future (or current) career. Thus, most participants in this study could be said to be intrinsically and/or instrumentally motivated to learn English.

Instruments

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL version 7.0 for ESL/EFL learners, 50 items), a self-report questionnaire, was used to assess the frequency use of language learning strategies (Oxford, 1990). It is estimated that 40-50 major studies, including more than a dozen dissertations and theses have been done using the SILL (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). The high reliability coefficients (from .85 to .98) for the SILL reported by studies, have also made it the most extensively used instrument in investigating EFL learners' use of language learning strategies. In the SILL, language learning strategies are grouped into six categories for assessment: (a) memory strategies (9 items), (b) cognitive strategies (14 items), (c) compensation strategies (6 items), (d) metacognitive strategies (9 items), (e) affective strategies (6 items), and (f) social strategies (6 items). The response options in the SILL use a five-point Likert scale ranging from "never or almost never true of me" to "always true of me." Oxford (1990) developed scale ranges and identified different levels of usage: (a) "high usage": 3.5-5.0, (b) "medium usage": 2.5-3.4, and (c) "low usage": 1.0-2.4.

A background questionnaire, modified from Oxford's (1990) background questionnaire, was also used in this study. It was distributed to collect demographic information from the participants, including participants' years of English study, self-rated English proficiency, motivation, language learning experience, language proficiency, self-perception, most (and least) difficult English subskills perceived, etc.

Finally, a semi-structured interview was conducted to gather more in-depth information from the participants. A few participating students from both MA and PhD programs were interviewed on how they have applied different strategies in the process and different context of English learning. They were specifically asked what strategies they would use for different English subskills and what strategies they would plan to use in tackling the subskill they perceived as most difficult. In addition, participants elaborated on their use of strategies for different tasks. Finally, they were required to reflect upon their strategy use in relation to different stages of learning.

Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, version 14.0) for Microsoft Windows was used to analyze the collected data. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviation, frequencies, and percentages) were performed in order to gather demographic data on the participants and to calculate their overall strategy use. In addition, independent t-tests were performed to determine whether there were significant differences in strategy use between different genders, participants' enrolled programs, or study abroad experience. Finally, the Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to examine how these six subcategories of learning strategies (memory, compensation, cognitive, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies) were correlated to one another.

RESULTS

Overall Strategy Use

From the descriptive statistics employed for data analysis, Table 1 illustrates the overall use of strategies by participants. The mean of overall strategy use was 3.51, indicating that participants exercised high use (M = 3.5-5) of LLSs in learning English. According to the results of Table 1, the most frequently used strategies, also ranked in the high-use categories (M = 3.5-5), were metacognitive strategies (M = 3.80), followed by cognitive strategies (M = 3.75), and compensation strategies (M = 3.72). Other strategies which were ranked in the medium-use categories (M = 2.5-3.4) were social strategies (M = 3.42), followed by memory strategies (M = 3.27), and affective strategies (M = 3.10).

As for the strategy use of individual items from the SILL, results of the study showed the top three most-used strategies by participants were a compensation strategy, *"If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing"* (M = 4.39), followed by two metacognitive strategies *"I pay attention when someone is speaking English"* (M = 4.32) and *"I try to find out how to be a better learner of English"* (M = 4.29). The three least-used particpant strategies were two memory strategies, *"I use flashcards to remember new English words"* (M = 2.32), and *"I physically act out new English words"* (M = 2.11), and one affective strategy, *"I write down my feelings in a language learning diary"* (M = 1.89).

TABLE 1. Summary of Descriptive Statistics for Language Learning Strategy Use

Strategies	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum	Rank
Memory	3.27	.725	1.56	5.00	5
Cognitive	3.75	.505	2.79	4.71	2
Compensation	3.72	.503	2.83	5.00	3
Metacognitive	3.80	.696	2.11	4.89	1
Affective	3.10	.700	1.67	4.17	6
Social	3.42	.835	1.50	5.00	4
Overall Strategy Use	3.51	.478	2.15	4.39	

Note. N = 28

The Influence of Gender, Different Levels of Enrolled Program, and Experience of Studying Abroad in Relation to the Use of LLSs

In order to examine gender differences in relation to the use of LLSs, an independent t-test was performed and the result of the analysis showed no significant differences between male and female participants in their overall LLS use, although male participants (M = 3.69) showed more use of LLSs than female participants (M = 3.43). As for the six subcategories of LLSs, no significant difference was found in the use of LLSs between male and female participants for any subcategory, although males reported more strategy use than females in all subcategories.

For participants' currently enrolled program (MA or PhD English program) in relation to LLS use, the results of the independent t-test showed there was no significant difference between MA- and PhD-level participants in their overall use of strategies. Neither was any significant difference found for the subcategories of LLSs between participants of different levels of enrolled program.

In terms of the possible effect of having study abroad experience in relation to LLS use, the result of the independent t-test showed that there was no significant difference in overall LLS use between participants who had and had not studied abroad, although participants who had not studied abroad (M = 3.53) used slightly more LLSs than participants who had had the study abroad experience (M = 3.42).

The Application of LLSs in English Learning by Advanced Learners

From the semi-structured interview, it was found that these advanced EFL learners could clearly identify their strategy use for different English tasks. For example, some participants pointed out that their strategies in preparing for tests differed from strategies used in completing a written report. It was also found that they had clear goals in enhancing their language ability and that they would evaluate their English proficiency by taking standardized tests such as the TOEFL, IELTS, or TOEIC.

In terms of different strategies identified for different English subskills, all interviewees could properly identify their preferred use of strategies in enhancing different English subskills. For listening, some participants would listen intensively and repeatedly for segments of speech (deep listening) in preparing for listening tests, and they tended to listen for patterns, expressions, and special usages when they watched movies, or listened to music or to the radio (broad listening). With reading, some interviewees pointed out that they read regularly, used guessing techniques when they encountered unknown words, would analyze sentence structures or patterns when they encountered sentences hard to comprehend, and would summarize their reading texts to check their comprehension when preparing for exams.

With speaking, some participants pointed out they would pay close attention to how native speakers use different expressions and usages in different contexts, would mimic their pronunciation, engage in self-talk and self-practice by reading aloud, and plan and monitor their own speech for presentation or communicative purposes. Most interviewees perceived writing as the most difficult subskill to master in English. They pointed out that intensive reading, modeling different English usage and patterns, practicing writing regularly, and responding closely to corrective feedback were effective strategies in enhancing writing skills.

Finally, most of the interviewees stated that they quite worried about accuracy and were concerned about correct grammar usage in the beginning and intermediate stages. However, as their level of proficiency advanced, they were now concerned more with how fluent and how native-like they were when expressing their ideas in speaking or in writing. In addition, some of them indicated that although they didn't often consciously think of their strategy use, they would actually act out many listed strategies in the SILL. They would also actively evaluate and monitor the effectiveness of their strategy use for different tasks.

The Correlation Analysis of Strategy Categories

As for the correlation analysis (Table 2), the result of the Pearson correlation coefficient (r) test showed that, for these advanced EFL learners, their metacognitive strategies were positively and significantly correlated with strategies from all the other subcategories. That is, the more they used metacognitive strategies, the more they would also use the other five types of learning strategies. In addition, it was also found that their metacognitive strategies had a relatively strong, positive and significant correlation with cognitive strategies ($r = .596$) and with social strategies ($r = .619$).

TABLE 2. The Correlations Between Categories of Strategies

	MEM	COG	Com	Met	Aff	Soc
MEM	1.000	.526**	.625**	.382**	.273	.146
COG	.526**	1.000	.657**	.596**	.296	.352
Com	.652**	.657**	1.000	.388*	.409*	.241
Met	.382**	.596**	.388*	1.000	.489**	.619**
Aff	.273	.296	.409*	.489**	1.000	.511**
Soc	.146	.352	.241	.619**	511**	1.000

Notes. ** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed). *Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed). MEM (Memory strategies), COG (Cognitive strategies), Com (Compensation strategies), Met (Metacognitive strategies), Aff (Affective strategies), Soc (Social strategies)

DISCUSSION

Overall Strategy Use

The results have indicated that these advanced EFL learners have shown high use of overall LLSs ($M = 3.51$) and medium to high use for all the subcategories of LLSs in language learning. This outcome is consistent with previous studies in that more proficient language learners use more LLSs in language learning (e.g., Altan, 2003; Bruten, 2001; Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Green & Oxford, 1995; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Rubin, 1975, 1981). Their high use of metacognitive strategies implies that they are able to "plan" for effective learning, "select" proper strategies for the task, "monitor" their learning process, "orchestrate various strategies" for the target task, and finally, they "evaluate" the process and their strategy use in their language learning (Anderson, 2001, pp. 2-4). In fact, the current enrolled program of these advanced EFL learners requires their full use of these strategies in writing academic reports as well as taking comprehensive exams. According to Pintrich and Garcia (1994), metacognitive knowledge relates closely with enhancement in academic performance, so by employing this strategy, these participants can not only do better in school but further advance their English proficiency.

It should also be noted that these advanced learners also reported high use of cognitive and compensation strategies. This suggests that they not only know *how* to choose proper strategies for the task (a metacognitive strategy), but they know *what* they should do to improve their English subskills (a cognitive strategy). In addition, their high use of compensation knowledge means they have bigger pools of lexis, which can help them guess intelligently in reading and listening, and convey their intended meaning in speaking and writing.

As for the least-used three items in the SILL, *"the use of flashcard*s," "*physically acting out new words,"* and *"keeping diary"* were reported as strategies in low use by the participants. From the interview, it was found that a majority of the participants adopted these strategies only when they first started learning English. As their proficiency level advanced, these strategies were no longer applied when they studied English.

The Influence of Gender, Different Levels of Enrolled Program, and Experience of Studying Abroad in Relation to the Use of LLSs

From the analysis of independent t-tests, results showed that for gender, level of enrolled program, and study abroad experience there was no significant differences in the use of LLSs for these advanced EFL learners. In terms of gender difference, the result of the current study is not consistent with many previous findings which indicated females used more LLSs than males (e.g., Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 1993). It could possibly be that these advanced EFL learners' strategy use was no longer constrained by gender differences. However, caution should be made before drawing definite conclusions because of the limited size and unbalanced number of participants (female = 20, male = 8) in this study.

In terms of levels of enrolled program, the result does not show a significant difference between MA- and PhD-level students. It could be that once learners' language proficiency reached a more advanced level, their pattern of strategy use tended to stabilize.

As for the result of strategy use between participants who have or have not studied abroad, the result shows that there was no significant difference in strategy use for participants with or without study abroad experience. Since there was no significant difference in the use of LLSs, and since all participants became advanced EFL learners with good English proficiency, the implication can indeed be very inspiring. It sheds light on the possibility that one can still become a proficient English learner in Taiwan by adopting effective language learning strategies. However, due to the limited and uneven number of participants in the two groups (20 had never studied abroad, only eight had studied abroad), any conclusion can only be tentatively drawn. Further research is needed for confirmation of the result obtained via the current study.

The Application of LLSs in English Learning by Advanced Learners

From the interview, it is clear that these advanced EFL learners are able to identify their strategy use and can also match different tasks with proper LLSs. They have the clear goal of improving their language proficiency, and they have good knowledge of different strategies used for different subskills. In addition, they not only internally plan, organize, monitor, and evaluate their language learning process, but also actively seek out external evaluation of their English language proficiency by taking different standardized tests.

Participants are able to use strategies appropriate for different tasks by taking on an integrated approach adopting different English subskills. They read and listen for patterns and special usage, pay close attention to and analyze difficult structures, summarize key points, and later apply what was learned in the written and oral language. To create opportunities for output practice in the EFL context, they also purposely memorize expressions, usages, and patterns from reading or listening, and engage in self-talk or talking aloud when they need to practice for different oral tasks such as giving formal presentations. Their strong concern for accurate, native-like pronunciation has made them closely attend to audio input, vocalize the sounds of words or expressions many times, and monitor their errors when they notice the gap between their own speech and the target language.

In addition, it seems that for these advanced learners, their use of language learning strategies went through different stages. The focus on accuracy in the beginning and intermediate stages has gradually shifted towards concern for greater fluency. Participants reported that they do not consciously think of these strategies in dealing with different language tasks, which implies that, for these advanced learners, their language processing has become somewhat automatized. It is especially worth noting that their reported high use of metacognitive strategies (knowing how) would help them greatly with their procedural knowledge, thus enhancing the language internalization process, and promoting greater language proficiency.

Correlation Analysis of Strategy Categories

Correlation analysis revealed that the advanced learners' metacognitive strategies were positively and significantly correlated with strategies of all other subcategories. That is to say, once participants' metacognitive strategies were in active use, they were more prone to activate the cognitive, social, compensative, memory, and affective strategies that are most beneficial for their language learning tasks at hand. The pedagogical implication of this is significant in that, given the limited time and resources in most of the English classes, language instructors should explicitly teach and model the kind of strategies that are most cost-effective. When given proper instruction in how to improve their metacognitive strategies to plan, organize, monitor, and evaluate, EFL students can more effectively examine their own learning processes and strategy use. Consequently, they are able to identify their problems and select appropriate strategies to match with different language tasks in and out of the language classroom.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

It is clear that the advanced English learners in this study employed a variety of learning strategies in learning English. In particular, their high use of metacognitive strategies enabled them to become efficient EFL learners in planning, organizing, monitoring, evaluating, and orchestrating different strategies for different language tasks. In addition, their relative high use of cognitive and compensation strategies indicates that these advanced EFL learners are not only clear about what strategies to use but have the ability to make intelligent guesses in facilitating their comprehension of the language.

In terms of differences with regard to gender, level of enrolled program, and study abroad experience in relation to strategy use, no factors significantly evoking different strategy use among these advanced learners was found. The implication could be that, for these advanced learners, their language learning strategies were no longer constrained by gender differences, and their strategy use tended to be more or less stabilized once a certain level of proficiency was reached. This suggests that one can still become a proficient and advanced EFL learner in Taiwan when equipped with effective language learning strategies.

Finally, it is clear that these advanced learners have developed skill-specific strategies and that they apply these strategies to different English tasks in an integrated manner. For these advanced learners, the commonality comes from their sensitivity and attentiveness to different English patterns, expressions, and usages in reading and listening. In addition, they actively create output channels to put this internalized knowledge into use, by engaging in different modes of spoken and written practices. Through constant self-monitoring and evaluating their perceptive and productive product, their internalization process is reinforced, and consequently, their language proficiency is further enhanced.

Drawing on the identified characteristics of the advanced EFL learners in this study, becoming highly advanced EFL learners in Taiwan is an attainable goal. To accelerate the process, language instructors can help students by explicitly teaching and modeling metacognitive strategies matched with the learning tasks in the language classroom. When students are equipped with the ability to use different learning strategies, and monitor and evaluate their effectiveness, they will find language learning less frustrating and more effective, resulting in greater English proficiency.

THE AUTHOR

Chia-Ti (Heather) Tseng *is presently a full-time lecturer in the Applied Foreign Language Department at Ta Hwa Institute of Technology, Taiwan. She is also a PhD candidate in the English Department at TamKang University, Taiwan. Her research interests include language learning strategies, interlanguage pragmatics, and EFL writing. Email: trendy656@yahoo.com.tw*

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Multiple Skills

How Presentations Can Teach Students to Be Facilitators in the EFL Classroom

Richard Silver
Ritsumeikan University, Kyoto, Japan

English language teachers often stress, and students say they feel, that English could help them in their careers. At the same time, cheap and easy access to information, largely via the Internet, means that instead of primarily being sources of knowledge, teachers in the EFL classroom are becoming facilitators. When adopting this role, teachers are likely to hand over more responsibility to their students. Student presentations are a common classroom activity that can make students into facilitators responsible for the learning of their peers. This paper describes common problems with student presentations and suggests student-led presentation-discussions as an alternative format in which students can develop useful linguistic and practical skills. Other benefits that are explained include greater participation, concentration, and effort from the audience and improved classroom cohesion and learning opportunities.

THE EFL CLASSROOM AND STUDENT PRESENTATIONS

The Teacher as Facilitator

A recurrent theme in EFL education is the importance of creating conditions in which students can use and explore the nature of the language they are learning in authentic and stimulating ways. The role of the teacher in such circumstances is often described as that of facilitator, someone who Harmer (2007) suggests is “democratic rather than autocratic, and one who fosters learner autonomy through the use of group work and pair work and by acting as more of a resource than a transmitter of knowledge” (p. 108).

Benefits of Student Presentations

Teachers understand that by fostering the goodwill and cooperation of their students, they can create an effective learning environment. Building classroom cohesion among participants is equally important. Dornyei and Murphey (2003) suggest teachers “give students positions of genuine authority [because] designating course responsibilities makes students fully functioning members of the class group” (p. 105). Presentations in class give students genuine authority as they must take responsibility for creating classroom content and teaching it. In the longer term, these opportunities give students the chance to learn how language works in practice, and as a result can help them make decisions about the future directions of their learning and how it connects to their future aspirations (Tudor, 1996).

There are several reasons why a teacher might consider student presentations as beneficial in the EFL classroom. First, it allows students to introduce their ideas to others and express themselves more fully than in teacher-led activities. By taking on a teaching role, they become responsible for the learning of their peers. Furthermore, for university students who are looking towards their first job, presentations in a foreign language provide students with practical skills that can potentially make them more employable. Throughout the process of preparing and practicing, students develop organizational and, in group presentations, teamwork skills. The final presentation, therefore, is an experience of language in context that improves both linguistic and practical skills.

Knowledge Networks

For some teachers, devolving a degree of authority to students offers a predicament. In some teaching situations, notably those with strong institutional syllabi, there can be little scope for encouraging student involvement; while in some countries where teacher-centered classrooms have long been the norm, the notion of student-centered learning is rejected by some (Silver, Ito, & Baber, 2009).

However, recent theories of networks of knowledge that seem to draw on post-structuralist conceptualizations of network connections such as the rhizome (Deleuze & Guattari, 1987) suggest that teachers are not necessarily central to learning in the classroom. Partly as a result of the global reach of the Internet that has transformed the way in which knowledge is disseminated, educators have had to reflect upon their roles. The most notable learning theory of the Internet era has been connectivism (Siemens, 2004). Siemens suggests that teachers are no longer the sole brokers of knowledge to their students who can now bypass the teacher to get answers. At the same time, students might be more knowledgeable than their instructors, not necessarily in specialist areas, but in how to access the most up-to-date knowledge. If such theories are to be believed, it seems likely that the learning process in classrooms will rely to a much greater degree on the mutual cooperation of teacher and students.

REFLECTING ON PRESENTATIONS IN PRACTICE

Problems with Student Presentations

While many teachers consider student presentations a valuable classroom activity that develops both linguistic and practical skills, there can be difficulties with using them in the language classroom. By reflecting on a failing activity, teachers are often able to successfully identify those factors that are causing the problems. As a result, new methods of classroom practice are developed. Though different teaching contexts will generate their own issues, it is possible that there are common problematic elements connected to using presentations in EFL contexts in tertiary education.

Disengaged student audience. Because of the Internet, students today have access to vast amounts of genuine content in English; however, this can be a problem if a student simply repeats what they have found on the web without understanding the meaning. This can often be the result when the teacher tells the student which topic to research and present on. A presenter's failure to communicate ideas clearly to their audience results in disengaged listeners. Similarly, if the level of comprehension amongst the audience is low, concentration quickly dissipates. Giving students complete control over the choice of topic is likely to result in subject material that both the presenter and audience are able to understand, are interested in, and are comfortable with.

No speaker-listener interaction. With a standard presentation format there is little opportunity for speaker-listener interaction. As a result, the use of language is overwhelmingly restricted to the presenter, while the audience's role is passive. Furthermore, the audience has no chance to use the content or the language that has just been presented. While some presentations allow for questions from the audience at the end, this has related issues. Question-and-answer sessions can cause anxiety for both the audience member asking the question and for the presenter being asked. The very public negotiation of meaning in front of their peers can lead to a breakdown in communication that results in an awkward standoff and silence, which cannot be resolved without the teacher's intervention.

THE PRESENTATION-DISCUSSION FORMAT

This paper suggests that one way to overcome some of the problems mentioned above is to hand greater control to the students by including small group discussions and a summary section after the presentation.

Student presentation. While a standard presentation ends with a conclusion and is often followed by questions directly to the presenter, in this format the presentation ends with two or three questions that are suitable for being discussed in small groups. The focus of the presentation thus becomes the teaching of concepts and examples that can be used by the audience in the discussion section.

Small group discussions. Small group discussions that follow the presentation are organized by the presenter. After creating the groups, the presenter monitors and answers questions, encourages by making suggestions, and prompts when necessary. The presenter should also be responsible for keeping the groups using English, although code-switching by either the presenter or the audience could be appropriate depending on the type of subject being discussed.

Summary. While monitoring the groups, the presenter can also clarify the point being discussed and the possible answers. After the discussions are ended the presenter either summarizes what they have heard whilst monitoring, or asks each group for their opinions, possibly while using the blackboard. The presenter can also finish by giving their own answers to the discussion questions.

Benefits of a Presentation-Discussion

This paper suggests that there are many benefits to including student-led discussion and summary sections at the end of a presentation. The first is that by doing so, students gain greater ownership over proceedings. The student-presenter is encouraged to invest more time both in the content and structure of their presentation for they must ensure that their classmates understand both the topic in general, and have enough knowledge to talk about the discussion questions. Furthermore, the topic chosen by the student is likely to be appropriate and interesting in terms of content and complexity. For the audience as well, there is a reciprocal sense of duty towards their classmate who is being the facilitator. This is especially true for those who have yet to make their presentation in the class, for they will want the cooperation and support of their peers in the future. Finally, the sense that everybody's presentation is, in fact, also an interactive group activity can increase the sense of class cohesion.

Variations on the Presentation-Discussion Format

The basic format of the presentation lends itself to variation, and there are several ways in which the presentation-discussion format can be adapted to different teaching circumstances.

Incorporate a quick quiz. By including some basic factual questions on information covered in the presentation before the discussion questions, the presenter can quickly gauge the level of understanding among the audience and whether or not ideas need to be re-explained or explained in more depth.

Larger groups of presenters. In lower-ability classes or large classes, having pairs or small groups of presenters can be effective. In this way, presenters offer each other mutual support, anxiety can be reduced, and the discussions can be monitored more effectively.

Increase audience participation. One way in which the audience could be more involved in the process is to have them create the discussion questions in their groups following the presentation.

Ways of Making Presentation-Discussions Work in Class

Giving students feedback. While students set great store in teacher feedback, students also enjoy reading the comments of their classmates. Giving students strips of paper to write anonymous feedback on, in English or the local language, that can then be stapled together to form a booklet, is a simple way to have students comment on the presentation and discussion.

Teacher modeling. Rather than explain in words the format of the presentation-discussion, it is far more effective for the teacher to actually do an example of what they expect from their students. In addition, the teacher's slides with model discussion questions can also be given to students to guide them in the making of their own visual aids.

Make students comfortable through consistency. By retaining the basic format from week to week, students can learn through repetition the requirements of the presentation. This should allay the fears of weaker students for whom organizing their classmates could feel like an insurmountable challenge. Weaker students can also learn some of the formulaic language useful for controlling and organizing groups in a presentation by listening to and observing their classmates. Starting with a stronger student at the beginning of the semester can set a high standard for subsequent presentations. In addition, if the teacher points out problems in the first few weeks, students who will present later get the opportunity to avoid making the same mistakes.

The teacher's supporting role. Though in this format responsibility for the classroom process is handed over to the student, the teacher should monitor proceedings overall. Sometimes, when it is clear that a presenter is struggling or the audience has not understood something, the teacher can ask a leading question to the presenter. In this way, control is not wrested from the student-presenter. During the discussions, the teacher can also offer to help the presenter by monitoring some of the groups.

CONCLUSION

In summary, this paper suggests that by extending the conventional student presentation to include a discussion and summary section, the presenter is empowered and becomes a facilitator, the audience is more involved, and the learning environment is enhanced. In this format, presentations can create cooperative student-centered classrooms with strong cohesion among participants.

THE AUTHOR

Richard Silver *has been teaching English in Japan since 2003. He currently teaches English in the Economics and Business Administration Faculties of Ritsumeikan University, Kyoto. At present, he is studying for a PhD in Applied Linguistics at Aston University, UK, and lists his research interests as academic writing, teacher cognition, learner autonomy, and technology in the classroom. Email: richinwit@hotmail.com*

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Pragmatics / Discourse

Gesture as a Speech Act Equivalent in English Discourse

Tatyana Vlasova
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia
Maria Dyuzheva
Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok, Russia

Communication is supposed to consist of speech acts. But verbalized messages are not the only component of social interaction. Many scholars claim that nonverbal signs occupy a much greater part in communication and play a much greater role at that. This article deals only with one kind of non-verbal clues, namely, gestures. Gestures are the movements of the head and the hands which are used to convey some communicative meanings. The authors strive to show in what way certain gestures are used instead of verbal messages to express certain communicative meanings, thus becoming non-verbal speech acts, or to be more precise, communicative acts equivalent to speech acts. This study is based on English fictional texts, which are considered to be a reliable source of linguistic information as they reflect real-life discourse and real ways of communication.

INTRODUCTION

"We want to get the nod, but the world keeps shaking its head." (Brosnahan, 1998, p. 57)

Discourse, as well as human behavior in general, can be divided into discrete conventional units. The minimal unit of discourse is a speech act or a communicative act. In the process of interaction, people embody their communicative intentions in communicative actions according to the norms accepted by the given society.

NON-VERBAL SIGNS AS SPEECH ACT SUBSTITUTES

A speech act is one of the key concepts of pragmalinguistics. It is an intentional action which is performed according to the rules of the speech behavior existing in a society. Communicative intentions can be coded not only with the help of the verbal signs, but also by means of the non-verbal ones. In this case, we can say that a non-verbal signal expresses the same meaning as a verbal one.

A non-verbal utterance in discourse is used to realize the communicative intentions of the participants and has an illocutionary force equivalent to that of a speech act for example:

> Seated at the one opposite, Ryder raised an eyebrow in my direction. Perhaps not too clever, darling. (Buchan, 2002, p. 218)
> (The non-verbal sign expresses astonishment of the man at the unreasonable move of his wife in the card game; she perceives it, deciphers it, and verbalizes in her thought).

The interlocutors may even have a non-verbal "dialog" for example:

> Elena *looked at* the teacher *for permission*. The woman *nodded*. (Patterson, 1995, p. 476).
> (The non-verbal discourse consists of a girl's illocutionary act of asking for permission to leave and the teacher's illocutionary act of giving the permission.)

NON-VERBAL SIGN ADVANTAGE OVER VERBAL ONES

Many scholars claim that nonverbal signs occupy a much greater part in communication and play a much greater role than previously thought (Bovee & Thill, 1992; Brosnahan, 1998; Dou, Clark, & Prosser, 2007). This state of affairs is conditioned by the following factors:

1. Continuity of non-verbal communication (it never stops, it can be going all the time)
2. It is expressed via several channels simultaneously (gestures, posture, facial expression, eye contact, etc)
3. Immediate reaction of the partners
4. Spontaneity
5. Simplicity of performance
6. Greater reliability: "Most people can deceive us much more easily with words than they can with their bodies." (Bovee & Thill, 1992, p. 29)
7. Greater effectiveness due to its greater emotional force
8. Non-verbal clues provide five times as much information as verbal ones.

No wonder the authors, striving to reflect the real-life discourse precisely and completely, give such great attention to the description of non-verbal behavior of their heroes for example:

> "All Teresa has to do is call."
> Elena *shook her head*. "She can't." *Her face was tensed*; her *eyes were shut*. The *tears began to run down one side of her face*. (Patterson, 1995, p. 451)
> (The author describes the girl's verbal reaction in one sentence, but the non-verbal ones in four, since they help the author to convey the emotional state the child is in; namely, her despair and fright.)

GESTURES

Gestures are the most commonly used non-verbal means of communication. Words are good for facts and for ideas, but without gestures, human social life would become a cold and mechanical process. Communication doesn't look natural without gestures.

Gestures are the movements of the head and the hands that are used to express and convey certain communicative meanings. They can be used by themselves or can accompany a verbal message. In this case a double, emphatic expression of a certain communicative meaning takes place for example:

> "Do you practice here?" She *shook her head. "Not yet*." (Segal, 1995, p. 49)

The advantage of a gesture over a verbal utterance consists in its greater expressiveness, the simplicity of use and conciseness. In real life discourse, there is no point in using complex verbal construct when we can convey the same meaning instantly with the help of a gesture. Besides, in communication, the reaction to visual signal takes place sooner than to a verbal signal.

There are some communicative situations in which the verbal channel of transmitting information is blocked. In this case a gesture is the only way of conveying illocutionary meanings for example:

> She was talking on the phone but *gestured that I should take a seat*. That meant: long talk. (Buchan, 2002, p. 283)

A GESTURE AS A SPEECH ACT EQUIVALENT

This paper presents an attempt to investigate the possibility of replacing a speech act by a gesture in discourse. Both gestures and speech reflect the work of the human mind. That is why it should be possible to use a gesture to convey the same meaning as a speech act e.g., you can nod instead of saying "Yes." / "I agree." A gesture speaks for itself nevertheless, the author occasionally explains its meaning, thus verbalizing it as an implied verbal utterance. For example:

> He *pressed my fingers* as if to say, "I enjoyed our conversation." (Buchan, 2002, p. 38)
> He *shook his head as if to say*, "Don't. Don't make it worse." (Buchan, 2002, p. 54)
> (Non-verbal signs are deciphered by the author with the help of implicit speech acts.)

In some situations, a discourse participant simply doesn't know what to say, but the discourse is not interrupted and goes on smoothly due to the use of a proper gesture for example:

> Never had he seen Peter so totally devastated. Not knowing what to say, he *gripped Peter's shoulder hard* and they waited silently . . . (Rolls, 2000, p. 277)
> (A touching gesture is used to convey the illocutionary meaning of the partner's support.)

Sometimes people prefer to use a gesture instead of speech, because the latter is characterized by a number of phonetic features that are capable of revealing some information about the speakers they may want to conceal for example:

"I gather I'm not being asked for coffee?" . . . She didn't trust her voice not to betray what she was feeling, so she *merely shook her head coolly*. (Brooks, 2000, p. 125-126)
(The young woman is overcome with emotion, but she doesn't want her passion to show in her voice, she is afraid it will betray her emotional state and her attitude to the partner. Her communicative intention is contrary: she wants to show that she is cool and indifferent, that with her he can't rely on a quick victory. Not trusting her voice, she chooses a negative gesture for a negative answer.)

Thus, gestures can be used to convey the same communicative meanings as verbal signs. It can, therefore, be supposed that they can be used instead of speech acts.

THE SPEECH ACTS PERFORMED BY GESTURES

The task of the authors has been to pinpoint what kinds of speech acts can be replaced by corresponding gestures. To determine the type of the replaced (implicit) speech act and the illocutionary potential of the gesture used instead of the speech act, the authors applied the method of performative transformation. It consists in finding a corresponding performative, that is, a specific kind of a verb, stating which speech act a speaker performs.

The analysis of the gestures allowed the authors to determine the types of speech acts that can be replaced by gestures, with the equivalent communicative meaning:

1. Declaratives. The gestures of this group have the meaning of stating (or declaring) something. The complete semantic structure of the corresponding speech acts include the performative verbs *say/declare/state/inform*, and so on for example:

He *held up a hand* in a mock defeat (Buchan, 2002, p. 36). = I declare that I give up!
"Are you not the famous physicist?" Isabel *nodded* wordlessly (Segal, 1995, p. 138). = I confirm it.
"Has he ever hit you?" he asked. Terri *shook her head* (Patterson, 1995, p. 310). = I deny that.
When Terri asked about the dream, the child *shook her head* (Patterson, 1995, p. 331). = I refuse to talk about it.

2. Directives. The gestures of this group have the illocutionary force of making a partner perform certain actions. Depending on the kind of action required/inspired by the gesture, the declarative illocutionary acts can be divided into orders, requests, invitations, advice, forbiddance and suggestions. The illocutionary type of the directive is determined by the corresponding performative (I) *ask/ request/ advise/ invite/order/ forbid*, and so on for example:

He beamed but she *put her finger over her lips* (Gordon, 2000, p. 154). = I forbid you to talk.
(Having read non-verbal signs in the partner's face, the heroine anticipates his reaction and uses a gesture as the equivalent of the speech act of forbiddance.)

The waiter bowed and *gestured for Jack* to follow him (Cook, 1997, p. 71). = I invite you to follow me.
(The illocutionary act of invitation is expressed by the waiter's gesture.)
He reached into his pocket for money and *motioned to* the waiter that he wanted to pay (Bradford, 2009, p. 289). = I request that you bring me the bill.

3. Verdictives. Their illocutionary meaning is to show the attitude of a discourse participant to the partners as well as their utterances and other constituents of the discourse.

Perceiving the world around us, we evaluate everything we come across (either consciously or subconsciously) and express our attitude to surrounding things. This assessment can be generalized in the words: *good*/*bad* (I) *like*/*dislike* (it) (I) *approve*/*disapprove* (of it). These illocutionary acts, verdictives, are appraisal, approval, disapproval, blaming, justification, reproach, and so on. The performatives indicating the verdictives are: (I) *find*/*reckon*/*consider* (it good/bad)/*agree*/*reproach*/*approve*, and so on for example:

Roy Jr., on his way to lunch with Ray, gave Frank a *thumbs-up* and said, "Good man." (Keilor, 1992, p. 280). = I approve of you.
"You should have that x-rayed," she said. "It might be broken."
He *shrugged*. "I doubt it." (Patterson, 1995, p. 348)
(The communicative act of doubt is performed both verbally (using a performative verb) and non-verbally (using a gesture expressing the same meaning.)
"My dad would never ask me to lie."
Salinas *shook his head in disbelief* (Patterson, 1995, p. 450). = I find it incredible.

4. Expressives. The gestures in this group, as well as the corresponding speech acts, transmit the emotional state of the discourse participants: their anger, irritation, hate, rage, sadness, jubilation, delight, amazement, and so on.

In real-life discourse, emotionally charged situations arise all the time. The partners are obliged to realize the emotive potential of all means of the language, including gestures, which are employed not only to express emotions but also to transmit them. It has been observed, that a person overcome by intense emotions uses a greater number of gestures than a person in a calm state. The authors describing the emotional discourse indicate gestures to reflect the emotional condition; for example:

Lon *rubbed his palms together*. "This is sweet, Archie. This is very sweet" (Stout, 1995, p. 57). = I'm so glad! (joy)
"And when, Ms Warner, did you last see Mr. Arias?"
Warner *twisted her bracelet*. (Patterson, 1995, p. 416). = I'm nervous.
(Touching and unconscious fiddling with objects betray nervousness or agitation of a person.)
"I guess you've been in love with him for years."
Muriel *lowered her head*. "I suppose so" (Segal, 1995, p. 80). = I'm ashamed.
(Making a confession that she knows is painful for her daughter, the woman feels ashamed and sad at the same time.)

5. Contactives. Establishing contact is one of the main functions of communication. Gestures are important means regulating interaction between partners. They are equivalent to greetings, saying “good-bye,” expressing the wish to establish, continue, or interrupt communication for example:

> He saw Cindy, Myron and me . . . and he *lifted his hand to us,* which I pretended not to see. (McCorkle, 1992, p. 106)
> After entering, she forced Jack into a repeat of the *cheek-pressing* routine. (Cook, 1997, p. 255)
> Toby *kissed* Louise goodbye, a careful unmeaning *brush of the lips on her cheek.* (Gregory, 1997, p. 144)

As the examples show, contactives do not serve as transmitters of information, and this absence of meaning is sometimes underlined by the author. Nevertheless, they fulfill a contact-establishing function,which is of great importance for the smooth progress of discourse.

CONCLUSION

Gestures are capable of having the communicative effect and illocutionary force equivalent to those of speech acts. However, the non-verbal way of expressing communicative intentions has its limitations. Gestures cannot entirely replace speech, since the number of meanings they are capable of conveying is far fewer than that of speech. Most commonly, gestures are used in discourse as contactives, declaratives, directives, verdictives, and expressives.

THE AUTHORS

Tatyana Vlasova*, PhD and Associate Professor, teaches EFL at the Far Eastern Federal University, Russia. Her research interests concern non-verbal means of communication, intercultural communication, and EFL methodology. She is the member of the Far Eastern English Language Teachers' Association executive board and FEELTA Newsletter editor. Email: vlasova@vimo.dvgu.ru*

Maria Dyuzheva*, PhD and Associate Professor, is an English professor at the Joint Russian-American Department, Far Eastern Federal University. The sphere of her research interests comprises interrelations between language and culture, and non-verbal communication. Email: Reginald@ephil.dvgu.ru*

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Teacher Development

Critical Friends Groups: An Opportunity to Reflect on Practice

Rob Higgins
Ritsumeikan University, Tokyo, Japan

Teacher development has often been delivered through pre-service or in-service training. This has placed disproportionate responsibilities on experienced teachers delivering a top-down method of teacher training. However, this does not validate the individual identities, experiences, and distributed expertise that many individuals bring to the profession. This study has conducted a small-scale action research project in professional development in a university in Japan. It is based around a collaborative and practitioner-driven emphasis on exploring and analyzing teacher and student learning. This article discusses the theoretical background to this kind of approach. Moreover, it analyzes the dynamics of this kind of practitioner-driven discourse. Furthermore, it explains the specific structure and dynamics of this kind of group characterized by what is called a protocol approach (structured discussion guides). This will enable like-minded teachers to replicate this cooperative approach to teacher development.

REFLECTIVE PRACTICE

Reflective practice in teacher education has been gaining prominence. This has been in part due to the work of Donald Schon (1983), who looked at various professional contexts and problem solving. Recent teacher education discussions have attempted to show why it is that a sociocultural perspective has a promising part to play in teacher education (Johnson, 2009). The term teacher education referred to throughout this paper is not related to pre-service training or in-service training and is very much concerned with the development of teachers in specific collaborative contexts. Furthermore, it refers to a collaborative inquiry and reflection of teaching practice characterized by a lack of hierarchy. The sociocultural paradigm in respect to learning rests on the understanding that human learning is situated in physical and social contexts, involving people, tools, and activities (Johnson, 2009). It is relevant to this discussion to understand more about the nature of teacher education in Japan where this research is based, in order to gain a better insight into the discussion that follows.

Japanese Teacher Collaboration

In the Japanese education system, lesson study has been one salient approach adopted by teachers to work in collaboration. This can be summarized briefly as the bringing together of teachers to discuss a lesson they have first jointly planned in great detail and then observed in the classroom (Fernandez, 2002). This is an example of a collaborative approach to teaching, and Fernandez believes “that what makes lesson study a truly powerful continuous improvement agent is that it is articulated within the Japanese educational landscape to allow for teachers to regularly learn from each other's lesson study experiences" (p. 395). This approach is evident within elementary and secondary schooling in Japan; it has not found any traction within the tertiary sector. It also seems to find favor principally amongst Japanese educators. The examples and models for professional development and teacher education for native-speaking English teachers in Japan are less prevalent. This study will attempt to show how it may be possible to connect these teaching contexts through better understanding of a salient collaborative teaching model.

Teaching Expertise

Some discussions have suggested that teachers have increasingly recognized that validating their prior experiences, interpreting their classroom activities, and the context that shape their work has uncovered some of the complex nature of teaching (Johnson, 2006). This paper will examine these inter-related elements of teacher education through an inquiry and reflection-based approach. As we develop as teachers we can begin to look more closely at our lessons and classroom interactions. It has been noted that this reflection on our experiences "defies explanation:" and is characterized by being able to make intuitive judgments on the basis of prior experiences (Tsui, 2003). It has been suggested that expertise is the critical difference between an experienced teacher and a novice (Tsui, 2003). Many teacher education and development models have recognized this. However, these approaches must also encourage colleagues with distributed expertise to support and collaborate with each other (Curry, 2008). Moreover, the implications of working in isolation are perhaps a fossilization of teaching. The sharing of experiences from the classroom in a critical discourse offers a more reflective and emancipatory model of teacher education. The beliefs and identities that teaching practitioners hold also reveal more about the experimental nature of teacher development.

A Teaching Philosophy

A conceptualization of teaching is as important, if not more important, than technical aspects of teaching. Influential educationalist Freire believed in problem-posing education in which participants reflect on their education as a collective process and can then become to perceive them as objective-problematic situations (1970). This supports collaborative and critical approaches to problems or issues that teachers want to examine. Furthermore, as an awareness of this has developed through the work of Donald Schon and has "been a rallying point for besieged liberal progressive educators" (Smyth, 1989, p. 2). Schon's work has indeed been instrumental in discussion of practitioner-derived knowledge (Smyth, 1997). This further indicates that teacher development is a rather complex process that is not formulated or finalized by technical or service training. A discussion of praxis as theorized practice is appropriate to the work of Schon and Freire in conceptualizing an approach to teacher education.

Praxis is a fluid concept that furthers our understanding of teaching practice. Freire, by using a banking metaphor, exposed the difficulties a restrictive approach to our teaching philosophy can have. The teacher makes deposits and the students receive, memorize, and repeat (1970). This static and unchanging hierarchy of knowledge does not take into account the development of learning that is influenced by environments and interactions. Teachers or students, or in this discussion, teachers that are learning, do so in the classroom, which suggests that our understanding of this environment is crucial. As stated earlier, this is a conceptualization of teaching that goes to the heart of progressive education. Furthermore, the critical dimension of this is marked by constraint. The constraint has been marked by the interaction, or lack thereof, between teachers and teacher educators or researchers (Elbaz, 1988). The tension between practice and theory has been discussed and articulated over time (Edge & Richards, 1998). If this constraint is indeed based on different practical and theoretical positions and perceptions, it does seem that understanding our teaching practice, and using our understanding to reflect on it, offers an alternative that fits with the teaching philosophy discussed.

In moving this discussion forward and demonstrating how an inquiry-based approach to support a cycle of action research (AR) will broaden the possibilities to replicate this inquiry-based approach. A definition of AR by Burns states that it involves "taking a self-reflective, critical, and systematic approach to exploring your own teaching contexts" (2010, p. 2). This research relates to understanding our own learning environment through our social interaction with colleagues. By extension, exploring our own teaching contexts in collaboration with others can have possible ramifications for the broader context in which the teaching is situated. In order to understand the dynamics of the collaborative model presented in this paper, a theoretical understanding of the sociocultural paradigm will help to integrate theory with practice.

THE SOCIOCULTURAL DIMENSION

The notion that humans can develop as participants in cultural communities has been discussed in the relation to the sociocultural turn and its relationship to human cognition. Johnson suggests that "participation and context are critical to human cognition" (2006, p. 238). This paradigm also expresses that higher-level cognition is socially constructed. This has ramifications for the discourse of teacher development and is broadening sociocultural theory into new areas. This has transformed our understanding of learning and teaching; the most salient aspect is the fluid interaction and reciprocal learning that takes place through dialogue.

Dialogic Mediation

Dialogic mediation has been identified as the primary means by which learners are assisted and supported in their learning. Johnson explains this as "the character and quality of interaction between learners, teachers, and the objects in their learning environments (2009, p. 4). This can be achieved through basic imitation and is discovery-based in its more complex forms. This theoretical understanding helps us to make sense of our experiences in the classroom, and reflect on them, with the intention to improve our practice. An important part of this process involves scaffold learning and assisted performance that can be facilitated through an expert collaborator or teacher.

Sociocultural Learning

Vgotsky's concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) has been widely discussed (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006) and is considered a salient learning development paradigm. Johnson explains that "ZPD is a metaphor for capturing an individual's potential abilities by observing and promoting his or her current performance through social interaction" (2009, p. 99). It is often suggested that an expert can scaffold and model, and thus through this interaction, promote the learners' capacity to improve. Furthermore, research has indicated that collective scaffolding can occur between learners (Donato, 1994). The concepts that bind sociocultural learning together are evident in the teacher education model presented below and this does suggest a prominent role for this theoretical paradigm in teaching praxis in the future.

CRITICAL FRIENDS GROUPS (CFG)

A Critical Friends Group (CFG) model of professional development evolved from the Annenberg Institute for School Reform and is based around a collaborative and practitioner-driven emphasis on exploring and analyzing student learning (Johnson, 2009). It has been suggested that this approach reflects an increasing trend for professional development in which practitioners behave as managers of their own learning (Dunne & Honts, 1998). Moreover, this practitioner-led learning is situated within the same educational institution and promotes collegiality in teacher education. At this time, most studies have been conducted in Western primary and secondary schools (Vo & Nguyen, 2010). In this study, a CFG was established within a department at a university in Japanand involved a very small group of teachers. A clearer understanding of the structure of the CFG and how it works will help with analyzing its particular dynamics.

A CFG contains a group of peers characterized by a lack of hierarchy. This interaction must support a democratic, reflective, and collaborative community of learners according to McKenzie and Carr-Reardon (as cited in Vo & Nguyen, 2010). The structure of discussions follows what is called a protocol approach (structured discussion guides): (a) Present a project plan/discussion; (b) Clarifying questions; (c) Feedback (not involving the presenters in the first instance); (d) Presenters respond (National School Reform Faculty, n.d.).

This is intended to be a non-judgmental exercise. The purpose is to present work-in-progress, or an activity from the classroom, or many other possible issues. The feedback part of this protocol does not involve the presenter(s) at first as the other members of the CFG discuss the presentation. The flexible structure of these protocols is a salient element of this kind of dialogue.

The Protocol

There are a number of protocols available. One characteristic that they share is a simple structure. That is not to say that this structure limits the focus or simplifies the content. The protocols are designed to be used over a short amount of time, in some cases 30-40 minutes. As a result of this, the timeframe can support the busy teaching schedules of most teachers. This simple structure is a deliberate attempt to remind participants to concentrate on the issue (Little et al., 2003). The protocol also creates a safe environment in which to ask challenging questions in a non-judgmental atmosphere.

A Tuning Protocol

The tuning protocol is a good example of how these CFG's can be realized. It is concerned with the triangle of learning: the relationship between student, teacher, and subject matter (Curry, 2008). The presenter(s) take an issue, for example, an activity or project they have used in the classroom. Materials related to this are circulated within the group; through this interaction the tuning of the activity or project is discussed. This means both positive and negative aspects of the activity or project are evaluated. The dynamics of how this interaction manifests itself closely relate to the discussion of sociocultural learning above. As it is, it is possible to understand more about how individuals can learn from each other in a spirit of cooperation. It is also a valuable stage of the action research cycle.

Reflection: A Protocol Approach

The cycle of action research follows a four-part cycle: Planning-Action-Observation-Reflection. The use of a CFG can enable the reflection process to support and possibly improve the research and support the next cycle. This is because the presenter(s) has an opportunity to take a step back from the work and evaluate it in a number of significant ways. This is where the discussion will now turn. A concrete example of how a CFG involving the author was being used as part of an action research cycle for reflective purposes will be discussed. It will demonstrate how a non-judgmental environment through dialogic mediation can bring a collaborative and stimulating dimension to this kind of inquiry-based teacher education.

MOVING BEYOND A DRIVE-BY APPROACH TO TEACHER EDUCATION

Reacting to, rather than reflecting on teaching practice, dominates teacher discussions in many institutions. Typified by a short "drive-by" conversation about how classes are progressing or an interesting teaching idea to try. The disconnection between the realities of classroom practice and the expectations of the administration sector further isolates practitioners. Prioritizing some time in which to reflect on teaching collaboratively is not a common activity. Below is an example of how a core group of teachers established a CFG to meet once a week over lunchtime for a 40-minute session to help to alleviate some of these tensions.

Finding a Focus in a CFG Session

In the first session, the discussion centered on trying to find a focus for future sessions. CFG protocols can cover a range of topics. Examining closely student work, peer observation, and problem-solving (Vo & Nguyen, 2010), it became clear almost immediately that some other participants of the CFG had strong concerns about the content of one of the courses in the department. The focus of the sessions generally develops through dialogue early in the process. The role of facilitator includes preparing some background information on CFGs and also the structure of protocols specifically for the participants.

A Project Analysis Protocol

The structure of a protocol deliberately departs from the flow of ordinary conversation (Warren et al., 2003). The short presentation is followed by Q&A arising from the presentation. The timed segments of the session give it direction, focus, and a democratic orientation. The particular strength of the Q&A follow-up is that in some respects it models the classroom environment. If the participants have trouble understanding elements of the presentation, this might explain why language learners don't understand the instructions in the classroom. This makes sense as it is widely accepted that language is a vehicle for the construction of meaning within learning environments. If very competent speakers of a language don't understand elements of the presentation, it might indicate a wider issue rather than narrow linguistic comprehension.

The next stage of this protocol involves the participants without the presenter(s) entering intoa dialogue regarding the presentation. This allows the presenter(s) to follow the discussion and take some notes. It is also a good idea to record the CFG sessions to reflect on before the next session. It is through this dialogue that both the presenter(s) and the participants can link their experiences to that of the other CFG members. The narrative from the presentation is linked to other experiences and also critiqued. This linkage of narratives and experiences articulates connections and interpretations about teaching and between teachers (Doyle, 1997). This process has some related benefits for the presenter.

Teacher Collegiality

The dialogic nature of a CFG can begin to break down the boundaries of teachers working in isolation (Franzak, 2002). It also enables individuals to share ideas and improve them. It does offer the opportunity of collaborative inquiry that can lead to improved collegiality and take this a step further towards a concept of teacher community. However, to understand how a community is formed is more complex. Westheimer pointed to five characteristics: (a) interdependence, (b) interaction and participation, (c) shared interests, (d) concern for individual and minority views, and (e) meaningful relationships (1998, p. 148).

The term "professional community" is perhaps a problematic term. It is premature to believe that a group of teachers sitting in a room is a teaching community. However, these CFGs are characterized by a degree of interdependency and some shared values and norms (Curry, 2008). The sociocultural learning environment and teacher collaboration are certainly important aspects of this kind of inquiry-based teacher education.

In the final part of this study an evaluation of this action research and its implications for reflective practice will be presented and evaluated, with a tacit understanding that wider implications will be followed-up and considered over a period of time.

WHY A CFG APPROACH?

The first issue to evaluate is the decision to use CFGs. During this research in teacher education, it seemed that the use of teaching groups could be a useful tool to reflect on practice. However, one characteristic of these groups is a lack of clear structure. This flexibility has both advantages and disadvantages for the participants (Farrell, 1998). This was the first attempt to implement teacher education sessions in the university, and it needed some structure. Furthermore, due to the time available, a structured approach seemed paramount.

Protocol Dialogue

As stated earlier, this protocol gives the session direction, focus, and a democratic dynamic. It is important to judge teaching experiences by student learning and the improvements that can be made to this process. Little et al. (3003) rightly acknowledge that “shared inquiry into student learning and teaching practice run against the grain of typical professional talk and counter to the prevailing norms of non-interference” (p. 189). The isolation that teachers can feel is reason alone to challenge this norm of non-interference. The protocol also challenges another norm about how we interact.

Competitive Interaction

At times during the sessions, as with any new approach, participants forgot or reverted to type. This resulted in what seemed like judgmental comments. The normal reaction is to defend your idea or opinion (Edge, 2002). The dynamics of the protocol are overshadowed by a zero-sum exchange of opinions. The opportunity to reflect on this dynamic during the playback of the recorded session is perhaps the most enlightening part of this research, thus far. It is important in this observation stage to gather a range of observable data. The notes from the sessions and the recordings are important to enable an ethnographically oriented approach to the research to build up. This also requires interviews with other CFG members to be carried out.

Sociocultural Learning

During the transcription process, it was found that when there is an opportunity to reflect on the interaction it can influence understandings of teaching practice. It also allows teachers to make connections through dialogue about teaching practice and that of colleagues. Further research is required, but it indicates that a richer level of collaboration can benefit teacher learning and student learning.

Furthermore, the sociocultural dimension to this approach is worth noting. The scaffold learning and modeling that takes place in these sessions can inform classroom practice. The cycle of reflection resulting from dialogic mediation challenges and influences our beliefs and identities as teachers. The construction of knowledge and the situated learning aided by a CFG model develop through the contributions of others (Johnson, 2009).

CONCLUSION

This study was an opportunity to reflect on teaching practice and learn about the richer and reflective nature of collaboration between like-minded colleagues. This comes at some cost in time and also challenges some long-held views on interaction, but without time and effort we are left with the status quo, which is a less desirable state of affairs. It is also worth noting that the Japanese model discussed above in respect of lesson study shares many of the same characteristics of the CFGs. It seems possible, therefore, that with a sensitive approach to different institutional contexts, these models could be integrated to further collegiality. It is through replication and experimentation of these kinds of collaborative teaching practices that teachers can be brought closer together.

THE AUTHOR

Rob Higgins *has been teaching in Japan since 2004 and currently teaches at Ritsumeikan University's College of Information Science and Engineering in Kusatsu. His professional interests include content and language integrated learning, collaborative teacher development, and effective EAP instruction. Email: rob_higgins@hotmail.com*

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Video

The Effective Use of Television in a Listening Class

Dion Clingwall
Fukuoka University, Fukuoka, Japan

As the world of English language instruction searches for ever more unique and innovative methods of instruction, an area that teachers are increasingly turning to is the medium of television. Television has been an available learning resource since the 1950s and 1960s, but it wasn't until recently that its role in the classroom became mainstream. Its virtues of images supported by the spoken word provides instructors with an engaging medium for offering subject-specific class content.

This paper examines the use of television as one of the four components that made up a listening class in an in-service teacher-training program for Korean middle and high school English teachers. The topics considered include the manner in which an English situation comedy was used in the class, how its use was received by the learners, why this particular show was chosen, pros and cons of its use, strategies applied when using the material, challenges faced, what was effective and less effective, learner impressions, and finally, suggestions for use in future listening classes.

INTRODUCTION AND COURSE BACKGROUND

In Korea, there is a strong push by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology to promote English teacher skill development (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2008). To this end, a number of universities around the country offer five-month, intensive teacher-training programs for middle and high school English teachers. These programs are composed of courses in reading, writing, speaking, and listening as well as a variety of other methodology and skill-based classes. The listening course discussed in this paper is an example from one such program.

A typical university course offers students fifteen classes, an hour and a half in length over the course of a five-month semester. In the teacher-training program discussed here, due to its intensive nature, roughly fifty classes, of ninety minutes each, made up the five-month course. This represents more than three times the number of class hours in a typical university course. The large volume of listening classes, coupled with the need to maintain learner interest and motivation, meant that a variety of activities were a necessity. The four main components that made up this listening course for teachers were a high-intermediate listening and speaking textbook, a high-intermediate, personal essay-based listening textbook, a level-four Penguin graded reader that was used as graded listening, and a television program.

The television component consisted of watching and discussing seven episodes of a Canadian situation comedy called *Corner Gas*. The overall goal of the television component was a general increase in English comprehension, increased confidence to converse in English, and an overall increase in confidence to watch English television shows and movies.

LISTENING CLASS: LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

The listening class was taught to groups of 11 or 12 Korean teachers of English (also known as "trainees"). As the learners were middle and high school English teachers their English language levels were generally high-intermediate to advanced. The seating arrangement was a semi-circle facing the screen with the instructor off to the left allowing an unobstructed view of the television show. Various groupings of three or four were also used depending on the pre- or post-discussion which took place.

In order to lower the learners' affective filter and encourage a willingness to communicate, an important goal of the class was to create a supportive, interactive environment in a relaxed setting. The TV show itself is set in the fictional community of Dog River, a slow-paced, rural Canadian farming town. In choosing this particular show, the instructor hoped to foster a classroom atmosphere that reflected the relaxed feel of the town and the easygoing nature of the show's characters.

TV was included as a component of this listening course because it represents an interesting change from more traditional book-based activities that use either cassette or CD support (although it should be noted that some textbooks such as the *NorthStar* series, also include a supplemental video component). Television as a medium of instruction targets a variety of skills and thus promotes complementary learning. It stimulates both the visual and aural senses simultaneously and brings the learner closer to authentic English conversations than written dialogue. It also targets both bottom-up (the sounds and the words) and top-down (background knowledge and cultural discussions) language skills. The inferences and guessing which grow out of the use of television, ultimately lead to a clearer, overall understanding of the story.

Sherman (2003) suggests that "video brings us all kinds of voices in all kinds of situations, with full contextual back-up" (p. 2). In so saying, she is emphasizing that TV is useful for language learning because it challenges comprehension in a number of ways. It has a "high verbal density," and often includes conversations, phrases, or "words which don't match the action" - for example, a dinner setting (p. 15). There exists a "high degree of naturalism in the speech," such as people talking at the same time, characters mumbling, and background noises. Furthermore, characters often use dialects, regionalisms, or both (p. 15). This particular show mentioned ice hockey (an uncommon sport in Korea) and liquorice (a common candy in Europe and North America, but generally not found in Korea).

TV offers many helpful points for comprehension (Sherman, 2003). There are clear actions, such as pumping gas, buying food, or fixing a car. It often utilizes clear and easily understood storylines, such as friends discussing things over coffee or families having dinner together (p. 15). The actors often use a standard form of English that is clear with comprehensible pronunciation (p. 15). Finally, subtitles or dubbing are often provided to support viewer understanding (Vanderplank, 2010).

Pre-test, Post-test

For this particular component of the listening course, there was neither a formal pre-test nor post-test. This was done to lower the learners' anxiety levels, raise the learners' comfort levels, and help to create a positive, less-formal classroom setting. Regularly throughout the five-month duration of the course, both male and female teachers of all ages commented positively about the experience of having the television show to look forward to at regular intervals.

Reasons for TV and *Corner Gas*

In choosing an appropriate television show, there were a number of considerations the instructor needed to keep in mind. To begin with, because of the challenging nature of television programs for English learners, the show needed to be a manageable length. Also, it needed to offer a unique enough storyline that viewers would remain interested for the entire episode. Finally, a show was needed that offered the opportunity for language learning to occur. With these factors in mind the Canadian situation comedy *Corner Gas* was chosen. Each episode generally ran for about 20 minutes, which is a length that doesn't become a burden for learners. It also provided a unique enough storyline that the learners remained engaged for the duration of each episode. The individual episodes also allowed for focused study on the language and content of that particular show. As well, although the story of one episode might not appeal to all students, there was enough variety throughout the seven shows that at least one episode might. In every episode, there were comic and cultural components which would be engaging for all the learners regardless of language level. Furthermore, because the majority of the dialogue was spoken in an informal style, it offered an example of language use that most learners had seldom come into contact with previously.

There were also a number of specific qualities about this show that made it particularly appealing for an intensive listening class. As is the case with most situation comedies, the setting, themes, plot, and character relationships remained constant through all seven episodes. This continuity created familiarity with the program and comfort with the stories and their characters. Furthermore, the characters were accessible because they were normal, everyday people with everyday jobs and everyday lives. They were people who the learners could relate to and identify with in their own lives. These unassuming, disarming characters reflected life in a more realistic manner, which added to the interest level of the show. The rural setting with easily understood storylines offered a small-town lifestyle that trainees could understand. Finally, because the show was set in small-town Canada it was an example of the instructor's home culture and language style. This allowed for first-hand anecdotal storytelling, which enhanced the learning experience, helped build class rapport, and invited discussions between the instructor and the trainees.

RESOURCE STRATEGIES: USING THE TELEVISION SHOW *CORNER GAS*

The trainees were given a range of materials to prepare them for the viewing. Among the materials were pre-viewing vocabulary lists. A question booklet that included roughly 20 content and 20 cultural questions for each episode was distributed prior to the beginning of the course. Most importantly, at the outset of the course, the trainees were given a script booklet that contained all of the scripts for the seven episodes, as well as short overviews of the main storylines for each show. An important point to consider is that in order to properly prepare this material, particularly the transcriptions of the seven episodes, a large time commitment was required by the instructor prior to the beginning of the course. However, the productive outcome and positive trainee responses made the effort more than worthwhile.

Television Show Components: A Short Overview

1) *Script Booklet, 97 pages:* Given out at the beginning of the course, it offered trainees the opportunity to read through each episode in advance and prepare any questions they might have. With each episode being roughly twenty pages of script it also gave the trainees experience with reading dialogue in script form. The reason that trainees were encouraged to read the script beforehand was that in-class reading of the script with the accompanying discussions and questions required too much class time.

2) *Question Booklet, 20 pages:* For each episode, this booklet contained both cultural- and content-based questions. It allowed trainees the opportunity to consider the details of the episode beforehand and examine important instructor-identified points. Furthermore, it gave the instructor a useful tool for highlighting culturally specific scenarios, settings, and humor that might prove to be challenging for non-Canadian viewers. Additionally, the booklet was used to point out the contextualized use of unique or difficult language that reinforced words from the vocabulary lists.

3) *Vocabulary Lists:* These were distributed the week prior to each in-class viewing. Although the lists were instructor-generated, the trainees often brought up other words they found challenging or confusing. These lists allowed students the opportunity to consider and learn difficult words beforehand and to deal consistently with the challenges of cultural terminology, the local dialect, and unfamiliar idioms.

4) *DVD and Website Access:* At all times the trainees had access to the television show either by borrowing the DVDs that were kept in the instructor's office or by using the website "babelgum.com". Having these resources available allowed learners the opportunity to watch the episode again at their own convenience and to focus on the areas that they felt they needed to review or practice. During the course of the program several students suggested watching each episode twice, but unfortunately, not enough time was available for more than one viewing.

There were a variety of strategies applied in the use of *Corner Gas* as a listening resource. The trainees were given a chance to consider and understand the show's content via the use of pre-readings (the episode scripts, vocabulary lists, and consciousness-raising questions) which were then followed up with pre-viewing discussions. Due to the fact that the material, by its authentic nature, was occasionally linguistically dense, culturally new and, at times, challenging content-wise, the main priority when using the material (besides learner understanding) was to keep the tasks simple.

Additionally, as a class and in groups, plot, character, and content discussions were carried out. Activities that took place included character role-plays, up-coming scene anticipation, writing imaginary dialogues, developing other potential characters and scenes, and discussing what life would be like as an English teacher in this community. These tasks were designed to get the trainees into the minds and personalities of the characters and into the life of the town. One of the final activities undertaken was creating a Korean version of the show. The trainees discussed what would be similar and different, as well as what aspects of life would be easy and difficult.

Various things were done to ensure that using a television show was a success. At the start of the program, a detailed schedule was provided for the trainees so that they would know well in advance exactly what preparations needed to be made for the watching of each episode. The content of each episode was taught in a variety of fashions, including pre-teaching the vocabulary, identifying important plot-lines, and discovering unique cultural content. Depending on time available, a partial or complete script read-through would take place. On occasion while viewing, the episode would be paused and the class would read through portions of the script in order to clarify particularly challenging scenes. Following each episode, a post-viewing discussion was held that would include some or all of the following topics - the vocabulary, content and cultural questions, the characters and any specific language nuances, and finally, any trainee observations, thoughts, or questions. Finally, in order to emphasize the English within *Corner Gas*, all of the shows were viewed entirely in English without subtitles.

WHAT WAS EFFECTIVE VS WHAT WASN'T EFFECTIVE

Before discussing the effective and less-effective aspects of the class, there is one important factor that needs to be mentioned - age range as it correlated to English ability. In this particular program, despite the fact that the trainees were all English teachers, there were a variety of English levels. Based on the pre-test for the overall program (one was not administered for just the listening component), the age break-down as it correlated to English ability was roughly as follows:

Under 30 yrs of age: advanced
30 to 35 yrs: high-intermediate to advanced
35 to 40 yrs: high-intermediate
40 to 45 yrs: intermediate to high-intermediate
45 and over: low-intermediate to high-intermediate

Although this English ability breakdown chart generally held true, there were exceptions at each age range. Some trainees under 30 years old seemed to be low-intermediate. Conversely, some trainees who were over 50 years old seemed to be advanced (based on a sample size of around 250 participants who took part in the university's intensive teacher training programs over a one-and-a-half-year period).

Some of the general challenges faced during the television component that made even the most successful aspects sometimes seem difficult were the unfamiliar words and cultural references that could not be explained quickly and thus required long explanations. As an instructor, another challenge was trying to balance the various desires of the trainees, who are experienced teachers themselves, regarding their preferred order of classroom activities, for example, when to study the vocabulary, when to answer the content and cultural questions, or when to have the episode discussion. And finally, the trainees occasionally found it difficult to grasp the jokes even with a detailed background explanation, because humor is often culturally dependent, and thus potentially different from one country to another.

The television component was a successful resource in the listening course. The vast majority of trainees stated that they enjoyed the show, felt that their English understanding was improving, and commented that their overall English confidence had increased. Despite the continuous positive feedback, there were a few activities that proved to be less effective than others. While using *Corner Gas* as a resource, on the occasions when there was little or no pre-discussion, the trainees indicated that watching the show without a pre-discussion hampered their understanding and thus lessened their interest and enjoyment. Two other activities that the trainees suggested to avoid when using a TV show were going through and discussing in one class either (a) the entire script or (b) all of the challenging vocabulary. They felt it was simply too much information to digest in one sitting. Their consistent suggestion was to vary from class to class the discussion points built around the main task of watching the television show.

A wide range of points were effective when using *Corner Gas* as a listening resource. To begin with, although not directly related to the TV show itself, the luxury of many classes, in this case fifty-one, was extremely helpful. It gave the flexibility to try a variety of activities in order to determine the most effective mix of tasks. It also created anticipation for upcoming episodes and a personal affinity for the characters amongst the trainees. One of the most important and effective things done with this course was to distribute the scripts, questions, and vocabulary lists in advance. By giving them an understanding of the story and its English in advance, the trainees' confidence to listen to English rose, their desire to watch the episode grew, and their depth of English and Canadian knowledge increased. An example of the trainees' increasing interest level was the enthusiasm with which they would talk about the characters during episode discussion times. The trainees expressed this affinity towards the *Corner Gas* characters by making reference to members of their own families or friendship groups amongst the cast members. Another very positive part of using this particular show is that it allowed for fruitful cultural discussions, both linguistic and societal in nature. Through enquiry, repetition, clarification, and content discussion, the trainees came to see the English language and Canadian society through the eyes of the people in the TV show. The breadth of content encountered throughout the seven episodes gave the group many opportunities to move between teachable cultural moments and teachable language-feature moments. For example, it became common among the trainees to use specific scenes from the rural, small-town setting of Dog River, Saskatchewan to highlight, discuss, or compare with Canada, aspects of Korean life, society, and families.

Some of the other positive aspects of the television component were things such as the course not being officially graded (there was however an overall program post-test), nor having exams, which helped to lower participant anxiety levels. Surprise quizzes were completed in groups and answered as a class. Group listening aims were developed as a basis for creating useful activities that the trainees could apply in their own classes. A variety of surveys were carried out, and then the results were discussed as a class. Surveys were conducted on: individual and class goals for the course; learning environments at the teachers' schools listening topics that teachers are (a) interested in personally and (b) would like to use in their own classes participant "evaluation of listening activities" and the Order of Activities survey (see Appendix A). The Order of Activities questionnaire was possibly the most instructive survey carried out during the course. It was designed to determine the participants' preferences about the order of classroom activities. The five basic classroom activities used for each episode included discussions on vocabulary, content questions, and cultural questions, as well as watching the episode a first and a second time. The survey simply asked the teacher participants their preference for the order in which these activities were presented for each episode and whether they had any other activity suggestions. The preferred order was as follows: (1) vocabulary, (2) watch the episode for the first time, (3 & 4) content and cultural questions were tied, and (5) watch a second time. (See Appendix A for the Order of Activities survey, and Appendix B for a summary of the Order of Activities survey results.)

There was incidental learning of discrete elements observed which included cultural details, episode-specific vocabulary, and highlighted grammar points. Finally, accompanying the use of this television show, the trainees' showed an increased willingness to speak in English, which reflected their growing overall English confidence.

LEARNERS' IMPRESSIONS AND OUTCOMES

At the end of the five-month session, a survey was given to the participants, and they were asked to give their impressions of the course. Specific to the television component, the feedback was overwhelmingly positive. The feedback suggested that learners not only enjoyed the experience, but felt that their English listening skills had improved, their cultural knowledge of Canada had grown, and they would have liked to watched more episodes. In fact, twelve trainees of the final group of thirty three, indicated that they would continue watching episodes on their own for personal enjoyment.

There were a number of notable highlights in the surveys. As the class moved from episode to episode, the teachers indicated that the familiarity with the characters, the interactions, and the relationships lead to better anticipation of both storylines and dialogue. This in turn made the TV shows easier to understand and enjoy. The relaxed and encouraging atmosphere of the learning environment, coupled with the positive nature of the program, contributed to the learners' understanding by lowering their stress, anxiety, and frustration levels. This became particularly evident as the learners watched more and more episodes. Additionally, the familiarity with the setting, buildings, and town environment allowed the learners to better empathize with the characters and more easily grasp the nature of the conversations, dialogues, and relationships.

Despite no television-show-specific pre- or post-test, various examples of learning were noted. Incidental learning was observed during cultural discussions which compared Canadian families, Canadian society, and aspects of Canadian rural life with those of Korea. During these discussions, particularly towards the end of the five-month program, learners would make references to show details or use specific vocabulary that had been discussed as part of earlier episodes. In classes other than the listening class, numerous instances occurred where the program participants made unsolicited, spontaneous use of words, slang terms, or idioms that they had learned while watching the television program (fill 'er up, Jack-ass, eh). Furthermore, the listening and other program instructors made note of trainees referencing specific content or images from the television show during other classes or unrelated program activities. Finally, an end-of-course game show activity that used content and cultural questions based on the television show solicited only correct responses.

An interesting survey question asked simply whether the learners were happy with the television component of the course. The most common answer was that the listening classes using TV as their focus were more exciting than the classes that used textbooks. Ultimately the trainees indicated that they wanted listening taught in a challenging, interesting manner with lots of practice and they felt that the use of the television show *Corner Gas* gave them this.

CONCLUSION

By attempting to offer English teachers a learning experience that was both new and challenging, using the television show *Corner Gas* kept the participants both motivated and interested. Using resources such as the script and question booklets or the vocabulary lists was highlighted as very helpful for participant understanding. The pre-viewing discussions were identified as a necessity for fostering understanding and interest levels. All trainees reported that they enjoyed at least one episode of the TV series. They were encouraged to discover that through regular contact with the authentic English found in a TV program, their confidence to use English had increased and their listening ability had improved.

This course strove to provide a learning experience that was both useful and unique for participants: an English listening component that, although challenging, leads to an increase in English ability and consistent motivation. With *Corner Gas*, the participants' feedback suggests that this was in fact the case.

THE AUTHOR

***Dion Clingwall**, a Canadian by birth, has lived in Sweden, Germany, Korea, and Japan. He has taught EFL at all educational levels, and his current ESL efforts focus on course development for listening and speaking classes, and health care-oriented ESP. Presently, he lives in Fukuoka and works full-time at Fukuoka University. Email: dclingwall@gmail.com*

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APPENDIX A

Order of Activities Survey

1. The order of activities -Please put the class activities in the order you would prefer when using a TV episode.
   Vocabulary, Cultural Questions, Content Questions, Watch first time, Watch second time, (Any other activity?) .

   a. b. c. d. e. f.

2. Please explain why you made this choice:

3. Is there anything else you'd like to do: A) "Before" B) "During" C) "After" the video? Please explain:

4. Any additional comments, please write them here:

APPENDIX B

Order of Activities Survey Results

1. Order of Activities

Vocabulary:	a. 17	b. 8	c. 2	d. 3	e. 1	
Cultural Questions:	a. 6	b. 5	c. 8	d. 8	e. 5	
Content Questions:	a. 0	b. 2	c. 11	d. 9	e. 8	
Watch 1st time:	a. 9	b. 13	c. 8	d. 1	e. 0	
Watch 2nd time:	a. 0	b. 1	c. 3	d. 11	e. 17	
Watch 3rd time:	a. 0	b. 0	c. 0	d. 0	e. 1	f. 3

2. Other Suggestions

- Mix up the order
- More vocab time
  - ○ Vocab makes it easier to understand the questions
- Less time on vocab
- Focus more on specific expressions: practice activities
- Watching to discover meaning is useful
  - ○ No explanation beforehand
  - ○ More explanation is helpful
- Watch more often: 3 or 4 times
- Watch with stops/pauses
- More culture explanations
  - ○ Culture makes it easier to understand the vocab
- Less work on questions: too much discussion is boring
- More of Dion's explanations: Colourful, energetic, lively, useful stories
- More group work: discussion and presentations
- Watch with script
- Watch without script
- Divide the episode into parts
- Shadowing activities

3. Watching beforehand or not?

4. Why no vocab/expression handouts?
   a. Episode 10 -over 90 words/expressions
   b. Self-learning preceded/followed by contextualized explanation

5. More quizzes?

6. More variety vs. Repetition?

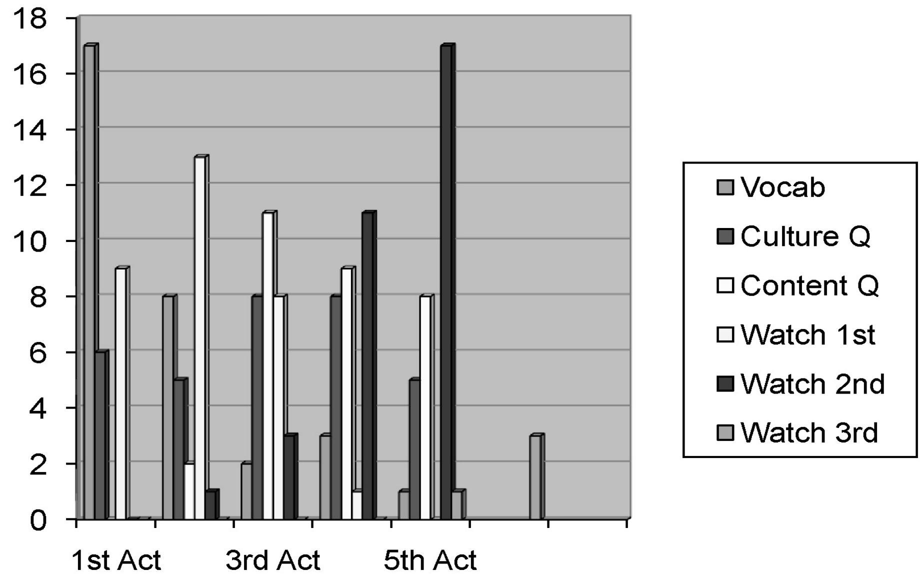

FIGURE 1. Number of responses from the Order of Activities survey results, represented in graphic form, for preference of each of the five activities to be the first activity, second activity, third activity, and so on of each episode of the program.

Movie Making in the ESL Classroom

Han Seo
Gyeongsangbuk-do, Korea

This paper discusses the use of movie making within the English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom. It provides evidence for its use as both a motivator and a tool for fostering self-determination in students. Classroom implications are discussed, including those of scriptwriting, rehearsal, learning, and the limitations of the technique. Also discussed are a number of other benefits that such an unconventional teaching method can provide within an ESL classroom.

INTRODUCTION

Movie making provides a valuable venue for ESL (English as a Second Language) students to learn the elements and patterns of the English language in an ESL classroom. This venue can generally be seen in the two stages of making a movie: scriptwriting and rehearsal. The scriptwriting stage consists of three sub-stages: pre-writing, scriptwriting, and post-writing, and allows the process of movie making to function as a medium between two things or ideas. Throughout the three sub-stages, the praxis of scriptwriting subtly generates distinct roles for movie making. In the pre-writing sub-stage, movie making roughly functions as a medium between the writer's visualization and its connection to the English language. In the scriptwriting sub-stage, however, movie making functions mainly as a means of providing or finding the relationship between the perceived idea and its written form. In post-writing (i.e., editing), movie making functions as a medium relating actual text to the context of its narrative. The second stage, the rehearsal stage, can be viewed via the actor-character duality, and body language makes movie making function as a means of seeing and feeling the connection between explicit language (the printed text) and implicit language (body language). Movie making creates and uses the link between the spoken language and the language of action. This paper examines the implications and limitations on the praxis of movie making for the ESL classroom, especially for second language students. It also explores, within the context of movie making, the correlation between the first language (Korean) and the second language (English).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Rebecca Lee (2006), in her article "Effective learning outcomes of ESL elementary and secondary school students utilizing educational technology infused with constructivist pedagogy," discusses the various media forms or technologies widely used in the contemporary ESL classroom. These include computer software programs such as Once Upon a Time, Oregon Trail, and Widget Workshop. Once Upon a Time allows users to select characters and objects, and eventually create a setting or narrative for their own story. Furthermore, the visual element characterized in the software program allows users to visualize the form and content of their own narrative. Another salient feature of Once Upon a Time is its audio component in which users are able to hear the name (and how it is pronounced) of the characters or objects being selected. In the process, images and words are intricately intertwined; thus, objects are named. These visual and auditory features that the software program offers to its users, particularly to English as a second language (ESL) students, can be invaluable in a language learning setting.

Also known as electronic texts (e-texts), software programs are uniquely contrasted to printed texts. Ulmer (as cited in Lee, 2006) describes e-texts as anarchic since students simultaneously control information and edit it. On the other hand, printed texts are hierarchical and static since they only contain textual and/or visual components. Thus, e-texts are dynamic tools in that they provide information to multiple human senses. Like Once Upon a Time, other media forms or technologies are currently being explored and introduced into ESL education, as they can facilitate language learning for non-English speaking students.

An ESL teacher from Princeton, New Jersey, Donna Clovis largely employs videos and movies to teach ESL to her non-English-speaking students. According to Clovis, these media forms are effective tools in language acquisition for ESL students (as cited in Lee, 2006). Clovis has a particular strategy that she uses in her teaching that engages the student in the language learning process. At some point in the film, during a particular scene or episode, she stops the film in order to ask her class a pointed question. This immediately initiates a dialogue between the teacher and the students, as they begin a discussion about character, plot, problem resolution, and so on. Besides improving their analytical skills, which is in fact secondary in an ESL class, the students practice their oral skills, vocabulary, and linguistic or syntactic abilities - all in the second language.

What is quite interesting in Clovis's teaching strategy is her utilization of TPR, or total physical response. Her students actually clap their hands, stomp their feet, and perform other body movements whenever they see a key vocabulary word on the television screen (Lee, 2006). One of her favorite strategies is using closed captioning, a feature that exhibits the written text at the bottom of a screen. Students verbalize a particular word while the video being played is muted. Similar to Once Upon a Time, TPR allows the students to construct the meaning or relationship between electronic texts and printed texts. LeLoup and Ponterio (2005) further substantiate that oral language skill for ESL learners is of prime importance. LeLoup and Ponterio state that ESL students need to study and acquire oral language proficiency since they will use English most in its oral form. Peregoy and Boyle (2008) concur that oral skills are more essential for day-to-day life since that will be the most commonly used form of communication (as cited in LeLoup & Ponterio, 2005).

Martha Pennington (2003) observes that present-day technologies - both hardware and software technology - play an important role in the ESL classroom. She notes that printed texts are no longer used in the exclusive manner they once were. Pennington (2003) says that computers have changed not just the writing tool but the communications medium as well," particularly in the field of education. Lee (2006) discusses some factors concerning the effects of technologies or media in education. There is considerable concern about the "digital divide" - the imbalance of computer distribution or access in schools of various countries is strikingly apparent. Primarily due to economic factors, many schools and classrooms around the world lack technological hardware and software.

Current research concerning the importance of media application to the ESL classroom focuses primarily on the vitality of computer technologies. However, specific studies involving television or video or movie presentations in the field of ESL education are astonishingly lacking. As discussed earlier, ESL education involves the acquisition of all kinds of language skills, particularly oral skills. Television and other video-related media are important tools that provide the necessary auditory input for the ESL student. What is the key role of this medium in the ESL classroom? How is movie making a critical part of this teaching tool? These questions are dealt with next.

CLASSROOM IMPLICATIONS

Of Scriptwriting

Scriptwriting is, undoubtedly, at the center of movie making. Screenwriters or scriptwriters are required to create and form the content of a story. Commonly called the pre-scriptwriting sub-stage, scriptwriters undergo a systematic process of inventing and shaping a movie narrative. This initial sub-stage of writing is a challenging one for the writer because it is the very beginning of a creative process that needs to travel a long distance before reaching its final stage. Pre-writing is basically where ideas spring from. Moritz (2001) views the concept of idea as nuclear since it entails a part meant to receive additions. Besides being nuclear, the concept of an "idea" - a prerequisite for pre-writing - is also, by nature, unclear (Moritz, 2001). It is interesting to note that non-English-speaking scriptwriters who write in English essentially encounter two worlds as they attempt to visualize their narrative. Pre-scriptwriting for ESL writers creates complexities and subtleties when trying to relate the second language to specific imagery, both to a character and to the setting in which the character is placed.

Equally perplexing is the process of putting ideas onto paper (or onto the laptop). In the stage of scriptwriting, ideas or concepts flow: they are unclear (in Moritz's terminology), but they are constantly being shaped and reshaped. To transform a specific idea into written text is not without impediment. The unwritten form and written form are essentially different, although related, concepts. Once transcription takes place, the subtleties of relating English as a second language to a particular object or image becomes more visible. Some languages (e.g., Korean) are starkly different from English, in terms of structure and sound. For instance, Song (2005) observes that the Korean language has freer sentential word order without causing a semantic change, than the English language does. Thus, an ESL scriptwriter with Korean as their L1 will encounter difficulty as they attempt to transform an idea into a written text in English while the English native speaker will have a more intuitive feel for subtext. Of course, also of importance is the writer's language proficiency and understanding of linguistic nuance.

After completing the script, the ESL scriptwriter reviews and edits their piece. Editing printed text is a significantly complex task and may require multiple revisions. However, as with other kinds of writing, editing of the script is imperative in order to have a professional, smooth end product. Most importantly, the ESL scriptwriter edits for grammatical correctness and appropriateness word choice. To some extent, an ESL writer, in this case a Korean L1 writer, translates their own cultural context into English-based lexis. Fundamentally, words or language are shaped and reshaped based on the writer's social and cultural background. A non-English-speaking individual becomes immersed in a world that is strikingly different from the world they are most used to. The process of writing and editing text into a second language is fashioned by the ESL writer's original linguistic paradigm.

Of Rehearsal

Once the printed text is complete, rehearsal follows. DeKoven (2006) describes rehearsal as the taking of the printed text from the page and breathing life into it. Obviously, the actual reading of a script and acting, or playing a role based on specific lines, are two different acts. The contrast between reading and acting is that the former is a mind-oriented activity while the latter incorporates all types of mind and body skills. ESL actors playing a particular role from a native English speaker-generated script may find it difficult to lift the text off the page. Most apparent factors could be the accent or pronunciation of the lines. In lifting the text off the page, the ESL actor also brings in their own racial or ethnic language, both oral and contextual. Song (2005) notes that almost all second language students initially want to import their native or near-native accent into the second language that they are studying; this implies that ESL students seek a comfort level in the language they are studying. Consequently, non-native English-speaking actors who recite or memorize their lines face the challenge of proper oral delivery.

Once an ESL actor becomes familiar with their lines, they eventually become comfortable with the specific role they are playing. A successful ESL actor recognizes the importance of correct oral recitation or utterance while performing as a certain character in a movie. Imagine, for instance, Hollywood star Jung Ji-Hoon (Rain) playing the role of an English gentleman. Or imagine superstar Jackie Chan playing the role of an American cowboy. Language, including accent, fashions the character or nature of the character in the movie. While the ESL actor delivers their lines in English, the character being portrayed somehow morphs into a non-English - or, in this case, an Asian - personality. This is the greatest challenge for an ESL actor, to construct and deliver the language according to a natural way of speaking. When trying to make this character as real as possible, the trick is to make the delivery as close to native in construct and culture as possible. Furthermore, a non-English actor who memorizes lines may alter them just incidentally; editing the character’s actual lines can better fit the language directly into the role being played.

Just as any professional actors do, ESL student actors attempt to imagine themselves as someone other than themselves. A non-English-speaking student will place oneself, at least mentally, into another persona. In movie jargon, there is a dilemma called dualism of actor and character. This dualism refers to a problem concerning the distinction between the actor, who plays a particular role, and the character being depicted in the script (Riis, 2009). Applying this dilemma in the context of ESL education, what can happen is that a second language student may be faced with the difficulty of portraying an English-speaking character, while they are not a native English speaker. Two contrasting entities - one, a fictional character, and the other, a non-fictional actor - are merged into one through the praxis of movie making. Obviously, there can bea sharp distinction between an English-speaking character and the non-native English-speaking actor. The problem is another type of dualism: How does the ESL student/actor accurately play the part of the character they are assigned to? During rehearsal, the ESL actor essentially becomes the spectator or critic of their own performance. Here, the dualism is based on how such an actor becomes the character without being the character per se. Evidently, imagining this transposition is insufficient; practice, on the other hand, makes this characterization plausible.

Furthermore, body language is an essential component for ESL actors or students to perfect, in addition to understanding the words that they utter. With the accompaniment of body movement, the non-English-speaking student, consciously or unconsciously, becomes intimate with the words used. Body gestures generally show a direct relationship between the language spoken and the speaker himself. Words become flesh, so to speak; and bodies become language. In some non-English-speaking countries (e.g., Thailand), body language is a significant part of the culture. Without using any verbal language, body movements become practically a visual language. The rapid movements of the eyes, the gestures of the hands, and other body language mannerisms convey a message without orally expressing it. Among Koreans, however, body language is more subtle; perhaps because of cultural traits. Most Korean films are almost silent movies. Verbal communication, for one thing, is notably short; and movements, if there are any, are slow and mellow. Nonetheless, the seemingly static bodies of Korean characters do not imply that body language is disregarded. In fact, the mild movements of the actors subtly represent the inner feelings or psychological thoughts of the characters. Thus, body movements - whether rapid or mild, whether visible or near invisible - connote the intimate connection between words and actions.

Of Things Learned

From scriptwriting to rehearsal, movie making can play a key role in the language acquisition of ESL students. Scriptwriting activity, for one thing, permits second language students to think about the relationship between thoughts and words. In the process, ESL students notice the finer distinctions between the context and the text. Moreover, they learn that ideas dramatically change when translated into words - especially when the words used fail to satisfy the perceived story. Such change or alteration, although unintended, prompts the second language learners to comprehend the need to refine the text. Conversely, ESL students are able to shape and reshape their narrative through a better understanding of the words (i.e., its meaning and etymology) used in such text. In general, the essence of scriptwriting as an activity provides the language learner with the opportunity to explore the accuracy of the lexis of their narrative. Concerning rehearsal, ESL students inevitably learn the importance of speech or accent when reciting lines in English. Words in the text become spoken words; and second language students learn the relevance and impact of oral language either in movie making or in everyday life. The ESL actors' speech needs to be in congruence with the roles they are playing. Besides speech skill, the listening skill of these students is also substantially enhanced. While rehearsing their lines, ESL students are able to clearly hear themselves; thus, they consciously learn the rhythm and sound of their own voices. The conscious awareness of hearing one's speech provides distinct feedback for enhancing and improving speech. Generally, movie making is very useful to ESL students, mainly because such activity integrates the multifaceted skills of second language learners, providing the potential to improve their oral and written skills.

Of Limitations

The success of the movie-making process for ESL students depends, to a certain extent, on the individual's capacity. People in general have varying degrees and styles of learning capacities. In general, the learner's cognitive capacity fundamentally defines their understanding and capacity for language acquisition. (This paper, however, is not intended to explore the nature of learning and neuroscience.) On the other hand, it must be noted that for ESL students, this is at least the second time they are learning a language. In acquiring their first language, these same students also acquired the patterns or systems pertinent to that language. Therefore, their capacity or ability to learn English heavily depends on these L1 linguistic patterns or systems. An important factor in learning a second language is motivation: when a student learns a second language, how great a factor is this in developing oral speech? Undoubtedly, ESL students are considerably motivated, for various reasons. With their linguistic limitations and diverse capacities, second language learners need great motivation to learn.

CONCLUSION

Movie making plays a vital role in the ESL classroom. From scriptwriting (i.e., pre-writing) to editing (i.e., editing during/after rehearsal), the practice of movie making largely contributes to the learning of second language students. There are three notable functions of movie making in the scriptwriting stage: (a) it permits ESL students to perceive the relationship between the idea or imagery and the second language; (b) it allows second language learners to understand the process of transforming a perceived idea into a written text in English; and (c) it permits second language students to see the correctness, or near-correctness, of the printed text in relation to the perceived idea or narrative. Movie making functions as a medium that enables ESL students to visualize images and understand how they relate to the second language being used. Language (i.e., systems and structures) affects the person's visualization or imagination. Movie making also allows learners to see the transformation or metamorphosis of a context into a text. In formalist literature, a specific printed text defines and confines a particular idea or thought. Finally, movie making as a medium permits students to see the relationship of text to idea. A second language student understands the need for words to be appropriate to a narrative.

Movie making in the stage of rehearsal facilitates: (a) the ability of ESL students to recognize the value of oral delivery using the second language; (b) noticing in second language students, enabling them to see the relevance of changing a particular scripted line or text to fit the context of the story or narrative; (c) noticing in allowing ESL students to perceive the importance of imagination when playing an assigned role; and (d) the connection of words to body language in second language learners. In summary, in the context of ESL education, movie making functions as a medium in which second language students are able to learn the value of the English language in itself along with its practical and creative applications.

THE AUTHOR

Han Min Seo *is currently pursuing his master's degree through the University of Birmingham. He has years of experience working on films, TV, and documentaries, which he applies to his teaching. Han is currently pursuing a career in Korea as an English teacher while trying to reconnect with his Korean heritage. Email: Han.seo@gmail.com*

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Writing

How Anonymity Affects Feedback in the Peer Review Process

Richard Silver
Ritsumeikan University, Kyoto, Japan

Matthew Coomber
Ritsumeikan University, Kyoto, Japan

Standard use of peer review entails students giving each other face-to-face feedback. Through this process, learners provide mutual scaffolding that can promote language learning. While this social interaction can be stimulating, anonymous peer review may be more appropriate among groups of students who display an unwillingness to comment on written work. Learners' identities are particularly vulnerable during the language learning process and can be at risk if students are exposed to direct criticism or forced to be critical of their peers. This paper compares anonymous and face-to-face peer review by analyzing university students' feedback and revisions in both types. It shows both that during anonymous peer review the student reviewers gave significantly greater amounts of constructive feedback and that the anonymously reviewed final drafts displayed more instances of successful uptake.

INTRODUCTION

Peer review has become an established writing activity in language learning classrooms, especially among those teachers that employ process approaches to writing. In their 2006 review of research into feedback in second language writing, Hyland and Hyland say that peer review receives positive feedback in L1 and L2 contexts, both in terms of increasing student autonomy and by providing an authentic audience for students' writing. Having a peer as the reader, as Penaflorida (2002) points out, can make students focus more on the content and the quality of their writing. In situations when a teacher may have limited time and opportunity to offer feedback, it can be the most efficient way for students to receive critical input that might lead to reflection and aid redrafting. At the same time, it can also improve group cohesion in a class and increase a student's ability to self-monitor (Harmer, 2007). Johnstone (2001) echoed the view put forward elsewhere (Jacobs, Curtis, Braine, & Huang, 1998; Tsui & Ng, 2000) that peer feedback and teacher feedback have complementary roles.

In spite of the widely stated positive effects of peer review as an activity, Hirose (2008) points out that the connection between peer review and better quality writing is not clear cut and remains a controversial topic. Hirose's own study in a Japanese university context found no significant improvement over a semester. However, her students both enjoyed the exchange of writing in general and, it seemed, wanted to receive feedback and correction from their peers. At the same time though, they felt that they were not able to help their peers because of their lack of ability, a finding confirmed with another group of Japanese university students by Coomber and Silver (2010).

There are other criticisms of the use of peer review in the L2 classroom. Connor and Asenavage (1994) found that the amount of uptake of a peer's feedback was minor compared to the teacher's feedback. Possible explanations for this finding include the perception in some cultures of the authority of the teacher and concerns about the quality of peer feedback. Hyland and Hyland (2006) also draw attention to issues of students in peer review concentrating on surface changes and resorting to formulaic uses of language in their feedback. Reid (1993) points out that a lack of "fluency, experience, and knowledge of academic reader expectations" (p. 208) is likely to hinder peer review and that students must be taught to respond. Berg (1999) agrees, concluding in her study that training had a positive effect both on the type of revision that students made and the quality of their texts. But in a further twist Hyland (2000) found that teacher-devised peer review sheets that took control out of the hands of the students resulted in the activity being less useful, suggesting too much teacher input can be negative.

When pairing up students for peer review, a teacher makes judgments about what will be most effective based on his or her knowledge of individual students. However, because the deeper social dynamics in a class are unlikely to be on view, the teacher must decide what appropriate pairings are. The effect of interpersonal relationships on the peer review process was explicitly linked to certain cultures by Carson and Nelson (1994), who stated that Japanese and Chinese students would avoid making changes to their peers' work because of the collectivist group culture.

How interpersonal relationships affect peer review was more fully investigated by Amores (1997), who found that perception of status within a group of students affects the peer review process. While some students, notably the stronger ones, felt able to adopt the role of teacher during the process and thus offer a lot of critical feedback, this sometimes resulted in their partner feeling as though they were in a weaker position. Similarly, students felt less positively inclined towards the activity when paired with somebody they perceived as weaker. In conclusion, Amores felt that peer review was a negative experience for the person being reviewed, but a positive one for the reviewer in terms of learning. Her suggestion that students peer edit the work of somebody not in the class seems to solve the problem of interpersonal relationships but at the same time cancels out many of the other benefits.

Another solution which tries to reduce the negative influence of interpersonal relationships is the use of anonymity in peer review. Although anonymity comes with the loss of oral feedback and so possibly also the benefits related to negotiation of meaning and class cohesion, in cases where pairings have the potential to create inequality between the two students, it would seem preferable. Japanese students in a small scale study by Hosack (2003) overwhelmingly said they preferred peer review in which feedback was given anonymously, as did a significant minority in a larger study by Coomber and Silver (2010). However, neither study sought to investigate how this preference affected the feedback that was provided.

This current paper investigates the effect that anonymity has on the type and amount of feedback given during anonymous peer review by comparing the feedback generated during anonymous peer review with that generated by the same group of students during face-to-face peer review.

METHODS

Participants

This research took place at a large private university in western Japan. The research was carried out in a course entitled Communication and Writing One (CW1), which is one of four compulsory courses taken by first-year students, meets once a week for 90 minutes, and focuses on academic paragraph writing. For the other three courses, class sizes are between 28 and 36 students; however, for the CW1 course, each class is divided in two, resulting in groups of 14 to 18. This research looks at data obtained from six such groups (A1-C2), totaling 70 students (25 female, 45 male).

Procedures

The Peer Review Process. During the course, students were required to write three assessed paragraphs of 160-200 words. The first of these was not peer reviewed and received feedback only from the teacher. The second and third paragraphs were peer reviewed and re-drafted, prior to submission to the teacher for summative feedback and grading. Before attempting their first peer review, students completed practice exercises in order to train them in feedback provision.

As previous research has shown, learners benefit from experience in peer review, which will be likely to influence the number of comments they write. In order to negate any influence this may have had on the results, the research made use of a counterbalanced design: three classes, A1, B1, and C1, undertook anonymous peer review for their second paragraph, while the other three, A2, B2, and C2, peer reviewed this paragraph face-to-face. For the third paragraph this was reversed; thus, all students experienced each type of peer review once.

Both paragraphs were written as homework and were required to be typed in order to preserve anonymity. During the anonymous peer review session, all paragraphs were collected by the teacher and then redistributed for review. Given the small size of the classes it was possible to ensure that students sat far enough apart that they were unable to see the paragraphs their classmates were working on. In face-to-face peer review, students sat next to their partner and switched their paragraphs directly. In both sessions, students had thirty minutes to read and write comments on their classmate’s work. The face-to-face review also included an oral feedback session after this, during which students could discuss their reactions to each other’s writing.

Analysis of Feedback. For each paragraph, students were asked to submit both a final draft and the peer-reviewed first draft. Not all students remembered to submit their first drafts; moreover, others had been absent for one or another peer review session. From those students who had taken part in both types of peer review and submitted all four drafts, 80 paragraphs were selected for analysis: 40 of these had been reviewed anonymously, 40 had been reviewed face-to-face; 40 belonged to students from the A1, B1, C1 group, 40 to the A2, B2, C2 group.

All the feedback comments written on the 80 first drafts were counted by one researcher and categorized in two ways: according to type and usefulness. First and final drafts were then compared and revisions categorized and tallied. Table 1 shows how the feedback on the first draft and revisions on the final draft were categorized. Intra-coder reliability was checked and resulted in an acceptably high figure (0.85).

TABLE 1. Categorization of Feedback and Revisions

Division One: Type of Feedback	Division Two: Utility of Corrective Feedback	Division Three: Revisions
1) Direct correction	1) Appropriate correction	1) Successful revision due to written feedback
2) Indirect correction	2) Problem correctly identified but incorrect solution	2) Unsuccessful revision due to written feedback
3) Praise	3) Problem identified where none existed	3) Written feedback ignored
		4) Revision not resulting from written feedback

When dividing feedback according to type, all positive comments were identified as praise: a relatively straightforward task. Comments pointing out problems or making suggestions for change were divided according to whether the peer reviewer made a suggestion as to how to change the point (direct correction), or simply indicated that change was needed (indirect correction). For example, a word crossed out and replaced with an alternative would be classed as a direct correction; a word simply underlined or with a question mark next to it would be classed as an indirect one.

Longer written comments were divided into the maximum number of constituent parts. For example, "This paragraph is very interesting, but there are lots of spelling mistakes and you need to add a concluding sentence" would be counted as three pieces of feedback: one item of praise, one indirect correction, and one direct correction. However, if the reviewer had also provided direct correction of the spelling mistakes in the text, then the indirect correction ("there are lots of spelling mistakes") was not counted. The classification of the final part of this comment as direct correction also requires clarification. The researchers worked on the principle that a comment as direct as could reasonably be expected in relation to a problem was counted as a direct correction: of course, it was not the role of the reviewer to provide an actual concluding sentence in this case; however, rather than simply writing "you should change the ending," they have given specific advice on how to do so.

Division Two, as shown in Table 1, further analyzes the corrective feedback (i.e., direct and indirect corrections, but not praise) according to whether or not it would have been of use to the writer in revising their composition. Thus, a comment that correctly pointed out something which could be improved was classified as an appropriate correction, regardless of whether it was direct or indirect. Comments that correctly pointed out problems but suggested incorrect solutions were classified separately. Although they have the potential to lead to an improved final draft simply by drawing the writer's attention to a problem, the presence of an inappropriate suggestion for change clearly makes them less useful than the comments in the first category. Finally, some feedback comments suggested problems existed where in fact none did, thus potentially resulting in revisions detrimental to the writing.

The third, and final, division considers the uptake of feedback. A successful revision was considered to be one that improved upon the first draft, even if the final version was still not perfect. Unsuccessful revisions were those that resulted either in no improvement or a change for the worse. Revisions which could not be identified as resulting from the written feedback on the first drafts were counted separately.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Amount and Type of Feedback

TABLE 2. Categorization of Feedback by Type

	All (N = 80)	Face-to-Face (n = 40)	Anonymous (n = 40)
Total feedback	627	266	361
1) Direct corrections	334	124	210
Direct corrections as % of total feedback	*53.27*	*46.62*	*58.17*
2) Indirect corrections	127	51	76
Indirect corrections as % of total feedback	*20.26*	*19.17*	*21.05*
3) Praise	166	91	75
Praise as % of total feedback	*26.48*	*34.21*	*20.78*

Table 2 shows the amount of feedback of different types generated by the anonymous and face-to-face peer review sessions. In face-to-face peer review, 266 comments in total were written on the 40 papers, an average of 6.65 comments per paper. Compared to this, anonymous peer review resulted in considerably more feedback overall: 361 comments at an average of 9.00 per paper.

When the feedback is broken down into different types, further differences become apparent. Papers reviewed anonymously received 86 more direct corrections than those reviewed face-to-face: an average of two more comments per paper. A Chi-square test showed this difference to be significant at the 0.05 level ($c^2 = 22.14$, df = 1, $p < 0.0001$). The number of direct corrections was greater in not only absolute, but also relative terms, accounting for almost 60% of all feedback provided anonymously, as opposed to less than 50% of that provided face-to-face.

It can also be seen from Table 2 that anonymous feedback generated almost 50% more indirect corrections than did face-to-face. Although the difference here is not as large as that found for direct correction, it is still a significant one ($c^2 = 6.05$, df = 1, $p= 0.027$). Indirect corrections constituted a similar proportion of total feedback, around 20%, in both forms of peer review.

In contrast to the above, face-to-face peer review generated more comments praising the compositions, although the difference here was not a significant one. Nevertheless, praise accounted for over a third of all the feedback written during the face-to-face peer review, compared to only around a fifth when students were writing anonymously.

Viewed as a whole, the figures in Table 2 show that anonymity exerted a major effect on both the amount and the type of feedback this group of learners provided their peers: not only did they write more comments when anonymous, but they also had a greater willingness to offer constructive criticism than was the case when partners were known to each other. One possible explanation for this could be Carson and Nelson's findings (1994), which concluded that Japanese students may hesitate to offer critical or corrective feedback for fear of offending their partner. Despite this, many other studies (Coomber & Silver, 2010; Manglesdorf, 1992; Nelson & Carson, 1998) have found that learners not only recognize the benefits of corrective feedback in improving their writing, but also prefer receiving it to positive feedback. Hirose (2008) found that while students wanted peer reviewers to identify problems in their work, the same students were less comfortable providing this service for their classmates. Anonymous peer review may provide a means to resolve this dilemma, giving learners greater freedom to offer an authentic response to a piece of writing without unduly (and seemingly unnecessarily) worrying about offending the writer.

Utility of Corrective Feedback

TABLE 3. Categorization of Feedback by Utility

	All (N = 80)	**Face-to-Face (n = 40)**	**Anonymous (n = 40)**
Total corrective feedback	456	173	283
1) Appropriate corrections	**322**	**120**	**202**
Appropriate corrections as % of total corrective feedback	*70.61*	*69.36*	*71.38*
2) Inappropriate corrections (problem identified but wrong solution)	**38**	**13**	**25**
Inappropriate corrections (problem identified but wrong solution) as % of total corrective feedback	*8.33*	*7.51*	*8.83*
3) Inappropriate corrections (no problem existed)	**96**	**40**	**56**
Inappropriate corrections (no problem existed) as % of total corrective feedback	*21.05*	*23.12*	*19.79*

Positive comments on L2 compositions may fulfill important long-term functions, including assuaging a writer's doubts, confirming their strengths, and boosting their motivation to express themselves in English. With regard to the short-term goal of improving the composition in question; however, it is corrective feedback that is likely to offer the greatest benefit. Not all corrective feedback, though, will necessarily help the writer; that which offers faulty advice may even have a detrimental effect. Thus, it is important to consider not only the quantity of direct and indirect corrections, but also the quality: it is of no benefit if one method of peer review generates a greater amount of feedback than another unless that feedback is of use to the writer.

Table 3 shows that anonymous peer review provided these learners with a greater number of appropriate corrections than the face-to-face method, with the difference of 82 representing an average of two extra pieces of useable corrective feedback per paper. This was a statistically significant difference ($c^2 = 20.88$, df = 1, $p < 0.0001$). Moreover, the percentages shown in the table indicate that anonymity did not affect the proportions of appropriate and inappropriate corrections. A potential criticism of anonymous peer review is that an increased quantity of corrective feedback may come at the expense of a reduction in quality: if students are more willing to write critical comments when anonymous it is conceivable that these comments may also be more likely to be erroneous; the figures in Table 3, however, indicate that this was not the case. Not only did students receive more corrective feedback from anonymous reviewers, but the proportion of this feedback that was potentially useful to them was in fact very slightly higher.

Number and Type of Revisions

TABLE 4. Categorization of Revisions

	Total (N = 80)	**Face-to-Face (n = 40)**	**Anonymous (n = 40)**
Total revisions due to written comments	317	121	196
1) Successful revisions	**243**	**88**	**155**
Successful revisions as % of total revisions	*N/A*	*72.72*	*79.01*
2) Unsuccessful revisions	**74**	**33**	**41**
Unsuccessful revisions as % of total revisions	*N/A*	*27.27*	*20.92*
3) Feedback not taken up	**128**	**50**	**78**
Feedback not taken up as % of total corrections	*28.07*	*28.90*	*27.56*
4) Revisions not due to written feedback	**114**	**50**	**64**

As Ellis (2008) points out, to assist students in revising the text they are currently working on is not the sole goal of feedback. Arguably more important is Ellis's second, longer-term goal of promoting language acquisition. Indirect feedback, in particular, can promote language acquisition by forcing students to process and evaluate the comments they receive (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). The effect of written corrective feedback in aiding language acquisition, however, is difficult to measure, resulting in conflicting research findings (Guenette, 2007), and beyond the scope of this study. It seems likely, though, that feedback which is both accurate and acted upon by the writer will have a beneficial effect on L2 proficiency. Thus, the final yardstick by which this research attempts to evaluate the effectiveness of anonymity is its influence on the revisions students made to their drafts.

Table 4 shows that the final drafts which had been reviewed anonymously contained 155 successful revisions which could be identified as having resulted from a written feedback comment, whereas those that had been reviewed face-to-face contained only 88, a significant difference (c^2 = 18.47, df = 1, $p < 0.0001$). In view of the significantly greater amount of appropriate feedback provided during anonymous review, it is not unexpected that these drafts also contained more successful revisions.

Rather more surprising is that the opportunity for oral feedback afforded by face-to-face peer review appears to have had little effect on the revisions made. When reviewers are able to explain and clarify their written comments verbally, it would be reasonable to expect that this would result in feedback being better understood by writers, and hence more likely to be successfully incorporated into final drafts. However, Table 4 shows that this was not the case: in fact, a slightly higher percentage of peer-directed revisions were successful in the anonymous format. Furthermore, the proportion of comments that were not acted upon by writers is almost the same in both formats: thus, it seems that the oral feedback sessions had no effect on the rate of uptake of written feedback. However, without investigating the nature of the oral interaction, which must also be affected by the relationship between the peers, conclusions cannot be drawn about this.

It is of course possible that during the oral feedback, students offered useful suggestions unconnected to those that they had written down. To take into account the possible effect of this, revisions that could not be connected to any written comment were also counted. It should be noted that there is no way to determine the source of these revisions: they may be peer, teacher, or self-directed. However, the fact that anonymously reviewed drafts were found to contain slightly more of these unattributable revisions suggests that oral peer feedback was not a major source.

Limitations of This Study and Future Areas for Research

The scale and scope of this study was deliberately limited to what was achievable by a pair of teacher-researchers during a semester. Though compared to other research into peer review in writing where the samples were quite large, it has to be accepted that there are many hidden dimensions concerning the interpersonal relationships of the participants that could not be analyzed. In addition, the short-term nature of the study meant that making use of information rich sources of data, such as interviews and student diaries that would have offered an insight into the thoughts of the students involved in the study was not possible. Certainly, as has been mentioned in various reviews of research into writing in the past few years, there is a place for longitudinal studies that can determine the underlying causes of learner behavior that this study found.

CONCLUSION

Peer review as a classroom activity has many perceived benefits, most notably (a) as a source of feedback to aid writing revision and (b) offering students an alternative audience to the teacher. It also promotes students' ownership of their writing and increases opportunities for autonomy and cooperative learning. This research, while accepting the benefits of peer review as an activity, sought to offer a further insight into how it can be implemented in the classroom. Given the complex nature of interpersonal relationships in any formal educational establishment, the teacher must think carefully about the way in which classroom interaction is managed and be aware that conventional face-to-face peer review may not always be appropriate or most effective, a view that this study supports.

In summary, this research showed clear benefits for using anonymous peer review over face-to-face peer review with a mixed gender but culturally homogenous group of students divided into groups of approximately the same proficiency. The advantages were apparent in two ways: first, overall, during anonymous peer review the students reviewing the paragraphs gave significantly greater amounts of constructive feedback. Second, the final drafts also displayed a greater amount of successful uptake and had thus been improved to a greater degree than the face-to-face reviewed paragraphs. Though the exact source of the revisions cannot be assumed to have been the peer review process, the greater tendency to give and act upon feedback in the anonymous groups suggests that in certain teaching contexts students will benefit from peer review in this form. Furthermore, while this study did not focus on the nature of the interpersonal relationships in these groups, and so cannot draw conclusions about why anonymous feedback was preferred, it suggests that by using anonymity, the interpersonal issues that may affect a person's willingness to offer feedback could be simplified, and students might become more inclined to comment on or criticize their partner's work.

THE AUTHORS

Richard Silver *has been teaching English in Japan since 2003. He currently teaches English in the Economics and Business Administration Faculties of Ritsumeikan University, Kyoto. At present he is studying for a PhD in Applied Linguistics at Aston University, UK, and lists his research interests as academic writing, teacher cognition, learner autonomy, and technology in the classroom. Email: richinwit@hotmail.com*

Matthew Coomber *has been an EFL teacher in Japan for the past ten years and is currently teaching at Ritsumeikan University in Kyoto. He holds an MLitt from the University of St. Andrews and is at present studying for a further graduate degree at the University of Leicester. His professional interests include academic writing and materials development. Email: mcoomber@hotmail.com*

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Workshop Reports

The Instructional Conversation: Using Instructional Conversations to Share Cross-cultural Teaching Expertise

Julie Ciancio
California State University, San Bernardino, USA

Lynne Diaz-Rico
California State University, San Bernardino, USA

This workshop focused on Instructional Conversation (IC) as a dynamic method to stimulate authentic oral interaction in the language classroom. This student-centered technique, in which 6-8 participants sit in a circle to discuss a shared prior reading, was first proposed by Goldenberg and Gallimore (1991). The IC contains five Instructional Elements and five Conversational Elements that the facilitator must observe in order for the conversation to be deep and lively. The prompt for discussion was "When to Tell a Little White Lie."

INTRODUCTION: THE ROLE OF DISCUSSION IN COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING (CLT)

The ongoing challenge in communicative foreign language teaching is finding classroom discussion methods that engender authentic conversation. The best of such discussions use meaningful topics that are at the same time challenging to the speakers and comprehensible in content and vocabulary. Interactive and freeform, conversation is a dynamic exchange in which the interlocutors take self-initiated, impromptu turns, using linguistic and paralinguistic features (word choice, topic focus, gestures, tone of voice) that are understandable and interesting to other participants. To date the field of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) has lacked adequate models that adapt appropriate conversational characteristics to the foreign-language classroom in a format that permits ancillary and accompanying instruction about the verbal and nonverbal elements.

This presentation features one such model that has been used effectively for several years at the American Culture and Language Program (ACLP) at California State University, San Bernardino. The discourse format, the Instructional Conversation (IC), is used as a platform for communicative events that allow discussion of engaging aspects of cross-cultural understanding in a conversational setting under the guidance of facilitators who are familiar with the format. Each conversation is opened by a three-part introduction, followed by a semi-structured body of conversation, and ended by the facilitator in a three-step close.

As part of the training for the IC, the discussion may take place in a "fishbowl," with seven discussants led by the facilitator surrounded by other participants who track the conversation as viewers/listeners. After the discussion, the external "viewers" may add comments at two levels: first, they can add insights to the topic of the conversation itself, and second, they may add "meta-comments" about the IC format and its implementation. In the *results* section below, we will recap the conversation that took place during the PAC/KOTESOL presentation and indicate some of the comments and meta-comments that were made by those who sat "outside the fishbowl" to view the actual conversation.

WHAT IS AN INSTRUCTIONAL CONVERSATION (IC)?

The Instructional Conversation (IC) is a structured discourse format first proposed by Goldenberg and Gallimore (1991; see also ERIC Digest, 1992). The format features both instructional and conversation elements (see Appendix A) that will be described in greater detail below. In a typical conversation, 6-8 participants sit in a circle to discuss a shared prior reading. A facilitator—who may be a classroom teacher, but who can also be a peer—moderates the conversation and interjects or mediates instructional information when needed (see Appendix B). Literature that has been read by the group members serves as the discussion prompt. (Unlike the "grand conversation" format used in literature classrooms, the discussion is not the source of subsequent writing about the literature source: the conversation serves as an end in itself.)

The IC works best when the topic, as evoked by the prompt, is relevant to students' lives, so the conversation can be student-centered. The IC fosters critical thinking and an understanding of the relationship of language to logic, which leads to the ability to analyze, criticize, and advocate ideas, to reason inductively and deductively, and to reach factually-based conclusions and inferences. Because it is centered on a literature prompt, it remains instructional in nature and does not serve as a "rap session" about student problems or personal psychodynamic issues. Students may, however, volunteer their own experiences to illustrate a point that ties to the prompt.

As was instantiated in the PAC/KOTESOL conference, the IC had eight participants: seven volunteers from the session participants and Dr. Diaz-Rico as the facilitator. The participants were issued stick-on nametags and asked to write their first name and put on the nametag so it could be viewed by others in the circle. Other participants sat in a circle ("outside the fishbowl") around these eight discussants to add their comments after the IC. As discussion leader, Diaz-Rico passed out a half-sized sheet of paper containing the prompt, *When to Tell a Little White Lie* (see Appendix C) to the IC interlocutors (as well as to the observers) and gave the group about three minutes to read it.

Then as a part of the structured introduction sequence, Diaz-Rico pronounced the names on the nametags in greeting and thanked the group members for volunteering. She then recapped the gist of the prompt orally; and, as a third standard element of the introduction, asked the group if there were any vocabulary words in the prompt that needed clarification (this is more useful in the actual EFL classroom than it was in the professional conference setting). Then she invited the discussants to comment on the prompt. The flow of the conversation, the development of the theme, and ideas about the format are offered in the section to follow.

THEORETICAL ORIGINS OF THE IC

The goal of learner-centered interaction stems from the sociocultural framework promulgated by Vygotsky (1982), who proposed that learning develops from social interaction (Moll & Whitmore, 1993). Anton (1999) and others have emphasized the importance of Vygotsky's framework in developing student oral proficiency, building on the importance of interaction and output in general (Williams, 2001; Swain, 2002; Tsang & Wong, 2002; Shumin, 2002) to add emphasis on the cognitive growth possibilities when such classroom talk is enhanced with structured interaction with a more advanced "other."

Goldenberg and Gallimore (1991) based their research on the IC as a classroom discourse model on the idea that classroom talk is the source of students' learning to improve not only their oral proficiency, but also their thinking skills, borrowing the term "Instructional Conversation" from Tharp and Gallimore (1988). Goldenberg has promoted the IC in particular as a reading comprehension tool, a way of moving students beyond "decoding" to a more integrated and thoughtful depth of understanding of what is read. Diaz-Rico (2008) reported on the use of IC in a university-level oral communication development context, similar to the approach presented at this conference.

WHAT MAKES AN IC DIFFERENT FROM AN ORDINARY CONVERSATION?

The IC is successful largely because of three aspects. First, the discussion starters, or "prompts," are carefully tailored to the developmental level and interests of the group. For example, in one such prompt used for a university intensive (pre-collegiate) preparation program, an international student is faced with a typical intercultural situation: a repair man comes to the student's apartment and refuses to remove his shoes when requested. This type of prompt is based on common situations faced by the interlocutors, and thus, everyone can chime in to the discussion with opinion.

Second, the format anticipates that some instruction may be necessary, and even though the facilitator can interact as a discussant, he or she can also step in as instructor to inform or update the group's perceptions about the topic at hand. The five instructional features (thematic focus, activation and use of background knowledge and relevant schemata, direct teaching, promotion of more complex language and expression, and elicitation of bases for statements or positions) as well as the five conversation features (open-ended format, being responsive to participant contributions, promotion of rich discussions, use of connected discourse, and general participation, including self-selected turns see ERIC, 1992) serve as guidelines for participation as the conversation unfolds. Third, the facilitator is trained in adapting the IC to the needs of English learners, and has a structured way to educate the participants on ways to obtain a self-nominated turn. This helps participants to make a transition from discussions in which they are forced to participate toward situations in which they must actively solicit and obtain a conversational turn (see *Get Your Turn*, Appendix D).

THE CONFERENCE DISCUSSION

Participants read over the prompt, *When to Tell a "Little White Lie"?* and listened to the oral recap from Diaz-Rico. After a brief pause, one person offered a personal anecdote about Thanksgiving "get-togethers" at his wife's parents' house during which time his sister-in-law tells lies that aggrandize her or her children. Participants commiserated and talked over what they might do in such a circumstance. Another person suggested that the "white lie" was an ego-saving mechanism, designed not only to spare the feelings of the lied-to, but also to save face on the part of the liar. In general, participants agreed that the emotional investment in the relationship of liar and lied-to, as well as the consequences of the lie, played a role in each situation.

Several participants noted that some cultures seemed to employ white lies more than others, depending on the high- or low-context of the culture. Verbal white lies seem to be more necessary in low-context cultures that depend on words to negotiate situations, whereas in high-context cultures, words are not as necessary or as successful when pretense must be managed or misunderstandings repaired. Overall, the theme that emerged pertained to the ethics and purpose of lies or of social duplicity in general.

After the conversation, the observers had their own opinions about the topic, white lies, and the underlying theme(s). Several people noted that the verbal participation, although uneven, was distributed, and nonnative speakers of English seemed to be able to obtain an adequate number of turns. One observer mentioned how smooth and interesting the conversation was, based on a human experience that was common to all. Another observer's opinion was that the prompt engendered much more genuine conversational give-and-take than the hackneyed discussion themes of "the ethics of euthanasia and capital punishment." Another observer was, however, skeptical that beginning-level students could benefit. Participants agreed that the IC was better aimed at classes of intermediate fluency and above.

Overall, the IC that took place at the conference was interactive, participatory, and of general interest. Much of the success of the technique depends upon the relevance of the prompt to the developmental level of the class. Sample prompts for the intensive-English program (IEP) level are available from the authors.

THE AUTHORS

Lynne Diaz-Rico *is Professor of Education at California State University, San Bernardino where she coordinates the M. A. in Education, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) program. Dr. Diaz-Rico currently serves as president-elect of the professional organization California Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages. Her research interests include innovative practices in teacher education, equity in education, and intercultural education. She is the author of texts such as Strategies for Teaching English Learners (Pearson). Email: ynnediazrico@yahoo.com*

Julie Ciancio *is the director of the TESOL programs in the College of Extended Learning, California State University, San Bernardino, where she manages the special sessions TESOL master's program, TESOL certificate programs, and Intensive TESOL Teacher Training programs. She is adjunct faculty for the CSUSB College of Education. Email: jciancio@csusb.edu*

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APPENDIX A

Elements of the Instructional Conversation

Instructional Elements

- Thematic focus: The prompt (or prior reading selection) presents a topic, but the conversants are free to develop an underlying theme on which to focus the discussion.
- Activation and use of background knowledge and relevant schemata: The facilitator is able to provide participants with pertinent background knowledge and schemata necessary for understanding a text, weaving the information into the discussion.
- Direct teaching: When necessary, the facilitator provides direct teaching of a skill or concept or asks others in the group to do so.
- Promotion of more complex language and expression: The facilitator elicits

more extended participant contributions by inviting speakers to expand their responses, or by restating what has been said to focus the discussion.
- Elicitation of bases for statements or positions: The facilitator can promote participants' use of the prompt or text or other input to support an argument or position, by referring the group members to the text to substantiate statements made during the discussion.

Conversational Elements

- Open-ended format: Many issues raised during the course of the discussion have more than one correct answer, rather than there being one correct solution.
- Being responsive to participant contributions: Although the facilitator has an initial plan and maintains the focus and coherence of the discussion, the leader also models responsivity to participants' statements, using these ideas as the basis for discussion rather than dominating the discussion with previously prepared gambits.
- Promotion of rich discussions: The talk is challenging but is balanced by a positive tone. The facilitator is a collaborator rather than an evaluator, and participants are challenged to take responsibility for co-constructing meaning.
- Use of connected discourse: The conversation is characterized by connected turns, in which each utterance builds upon and extends previous contributions.
- General participation including self-selected turns: Participants are encouraged to volunteer to speak; the facilitator does not hold exclusive right to determine who talks.

APPENDIX B

The Role of the Discussion Leader/Facilitator

During the discussion, participants take turns without needing permission from the leader. There are no right or wrong answers. Any idea is welcome. The facilitator redirects the conversation subtly if it goes off the topic, using such phrases as "Let's return for the moment to the idea that _____ had."

The purpose of the facilitator is *not* to introduce to the group a series of topics. Rather, the facilitator *waits* for a group member to introduce a potentially complex idea and leads the group to explore that idea more fully. In this way, there is no predicting the course of the discussion. The group members achieve complex ideas in their own way.

The leader responds directly to a group member who asks for information, such as the meaning of a word or a cultural reference. This is known as "direct teaching." The leader may also ask group members occasionally to respond to ideas. However, the leader tries not to insert a series of ideas. If silence falls, the facilitator may let the group sit quietly until someone volunteers the next idea.

Before the Discussion

- The facilitator welcomes the group, sees that everyone has a nametag, and pronounces everyone's name.
- The facilitator reminds the group: "No one needs permission to speak. All opinions are welcome as we explore the topic. There are no right and wrong answers."
- After everyone has read the prompt (if one is used), or if the group has done a shared prior reading, the facilitator retells the story briefly.

During the Discussion

- Now and then, the facilitator takes a turn as a participant; for example, stating his or her opinion in a controversy. However, it is not wise for the facilitator to offer a "solution" or introduce a series of new ideas; it is preferable if these come from the participants.
- The facilitator can summarize one or two people's opinions, using their names;
- If the group might have misunderstood a participant, the facilitator might try to clarify what was said.
- If someone goes far off-topic, the facilitator can find one or two relevant words in what they said to use as a bridge to return to the main discussion.

Ending the Discussion

After 20-30 minutes have passed and the topic has been richly explored, the facilitator closes the discussion by summarizing the main points and thanking everyone.

After the Discussion

If someone in the group has taken too few turns the facilitator may refer the participant to the sheet Get Your Turn and review the turn-taking devices.

APPENDIX C

Discussion Prompt:

When to Tell a "Little White Lie"?

Devin feels like a liar when people ask his opinion about his feelings about American culture, about how they look in the clothes they wear, about the way they raise their children... He tries to be as truthful as he can. In his country, people offer frank and honest advice when it is solicited. Unfortunately, people in the United States never seem to want the truth. He feels that he was constantly being asked to lie to avoid hurting people's feelings. This has become so confusing that he wants to say, "Don't ask me unless I can tell you what I honestly think!" How can he avoid this confusion?

APPENDIX D

Participant Handout

Get Your Turn

Even when you have something to say, it is sometimes hard to get a turn in the conversation.

➜ Two ways to get a turn:
- Non-verbal
- Verbal

Non-verbal
- Make eye contact with the current speaker.
- Lean forward as if you will be next.
- Interrupt in a small way and then stop.
- Be ready to start your turn at the slightest pause.

Verbal

➜ When your idea is *connected* to the current speaker:
- I'd like to add to that…
- Oh, yes, and besides…
- Yes, and…
- Well, I see it like this…

➜ When your idea has *no connection* to the current one:
- Here's a different idea…
- I see things a little differently…
- Going back to what ______ said …
- Changing the topic somewhat, I'd like to mention…

Using Argument Genres to Teach Academic Spoken English

Damian Lucantonio
University of Electro-Communications, Tokyo, Japan

Using theory to better inform our teaching practices is an important way of advancing ELT in the global context. The purpose of this workshop was to show how a genre-based syllabus has been designed to teach academic spoken English. The syllabus focuses mainly on argument genres and how they can be used to develop presentation skills. Following a brief rationale, the concept of genre was defined (Martin, 1985; Martin & Rose, 2003). The syllabus was then introduced, describing the social purpose and generic structure of each genre. Participants then analyzed sample outlines of student arguments and student presentations, illustrating how learners have used argument genres to make academic presentations. A general discussion followed, focusing on the issues of scaffolding and formal teacher training.

INTRODUCTION

The University of Electro-Communications (UEC) is a national science university in Tokyo, Japan. The genre-based English syllabus analyzed in this workshop is part of the university's ongoing curriculum reform and was implemented at UEC in the 2010 academic year.

The syllabus covers the first- and second-year compulsory English courses, focusing on introducing and developing the academic spoken and written skills necessary for students at UEC. The focus of this workshop, however, is on the spoken component of the first-year program. Through an understanding and use of argument genres, students can develop skills such as formulating propositions, arguing for or against propositions, supporting their claims with sources and supporting evidence, recognizing bias and weak arguments, and drawing logical conclusions. Skills such as these are considered necessary for making academic presentations as well as developing the academic skills of critical thinking.

RATIONALE: WHY GENRE?

The workshop commenced with a rationale to explain why a genre-based syllabus was chosen at UEC. While it was considered important to provide some explanation of the theory that underpins the syllabus, it was considered to be more useful for the participants to keep the focus of the workshop on the practical classroom applications of the genre syllabus rather than risk getting bogged down on the theory that underlies it.

One of the main reasons given by the presenter for the genre-based syllabus was that it integrates theory with practice, being underpinned by the theoretical framework of systemic functional linguistics (SFL; Halliday, 1985b). This model of language is used to guide and inform teachers' views of how language works, and therefore, how language should be taught. These include functional views (Halliday, 1985b; Slade, 1996) and sociocultural views of language (Halliday & Hasan, 1985), focusing on the purposes for which language is used in society (Martin, 1985, 1992; Eggins & Slade, 1997; Lucantonio, 2009). Furthermore, an SFL model of language accommodates both spoken and written language (Halliday, 1985a), which can assist teachers in making choices about what is and what is not appropriate in spoken contexts as well as written. It was argued that teaching practices in a genre-based syllabus are thus based on a solid linguistic theory that describes how language works rather than views of language that are either anecdotal or intuitive.

The rationale then focused on two points: (a) a "whole" language approach to teaching and (b) consistency, yet flexibility, in syllabus design.

It was explained that the teaching goal in a genre syllabus is on constructing whole texts rather than just parts of one. A student presentation was given as an example of a whole, spoken text. A text was defined as an extended piece of spoken or written discourse (Halliday, 1985a), of any size (Derewianka, 1990), often with a beginning, middle, and end (Slade, 1996) that represents a particular social purpose (Martin 1985; Martin & Rose, 2003). In a genre-based syllabus, a text is considered the basic unit of meaning (Feez & Joyce, 1998; Paltridge, 2001; Hyland, 2004), not the sentence. Learners are assisted through teaching techniques such as modeling (Lucantonio, 2009) and scaffolding (Vygotsky, 1978; Gibbons, 1999, 2002) to go beyond the level of a sentence and produce a whole text (DSP Literacy Project, 1989; Lucantonio, 2009).

Secondly, it was explained that a genre-based approach allows for consistency, yet flexibility, in syllabus design. Consistency is maintained by specifying the genres to be taught in the respective courses. Flexibility is maintained by allowing teachers to have the freedom to choose such pedagogical issues as the content to be taught (science topics versus general global issues), the teaching methodology to be used (teacher-centered versus student-centered), the degree of mother-tongue support to be given (English-only versus Japanese mother-tongue support), the sequencing of the genres to be taught (needs-based versus a prescribed order), and the teaching materials to be used (textbook materials versus teacher-produced or authentic materials). At UEC, these issues are decided according to the teaching philosophies of the individual teachers. This recognizes the need for consistency in a large-scale language program, yet allows for teacher flexibility and creativity in areas such as content selection and teaching styles.

DEFINITION OF GENRE

It was explained that a genre was a type of text, used to achieve a particular social purpose (Martin, 1985; Martin & Rose, 2003). It was defined as a staged, goal-oriented, social process (Martin, 1985, 1992; Martin & Rose 2003).

The term "staged" was explained as the patterning of a text, or the steps a text works through, to achieve its purpose (Eggins & Slade 1997; Martin & Rose

2003). For example, the staging of an argument in most English-speaking cultures is to usually start with a proposition, then to give reasons and evidence to support the proposition, and finally to draw a logical conclusion (Derewianka, 1990). The staging or patterning of a text, which is formally referred to as generic structure (Martin & Rose, 2003), varies according to the social purpose for which the genre is used (Eggins & Slade, 1997).

The term “goal-oriented” was explained as the purpose or goal of the text. For example, the purpose of an argument is to present an opinion or point of view, whereas the purpose of a narrative is to tell a story. Because the purpose of the two texts is different, so too is the way in which they are staged or patterned.

“Social process” was explained as an activity that is conducted in a particular culture or society, which has been formalized or institutionalized over a period of time (Thornbury & Slade, 2006). It was explained that, within this theoretical framework, genres evolve as part of a social process of language in use. Some elements, such as the “reasons” section of an argument, may be more compulsory, while others may be more optional. This allows for a certain degree of flexibility in how genres are used in society, and consequently how they are described and taught in the classroom. Hence, it was suggested that genres should not be viewed as prescriptions or formulas, but as part of a social process involving the use of language.

WORKSHOP TASK: THE ROLE OF ARGUMENT GENRES IN DEVELOPING PRESENTATION SKILLS

The syllabus of the Academic Spoken English course for first-year students was then distributed to the participants. Participants were asked to analyze the syllabus document by identifying the argument genres to be taught, the social purpose of each of the genres, and the generic structure of each. These were described in the syllabus document. The discussion focused mainly on the descriptions of generic structure. Issues such as the meaning of the linguistic symbols used were discussed (^= followed by), as well as the patterning of each genre. For example, the generic structure of a two-sided argument for presentations was described as: Background Information ^ Thesis Statement ^ Reasons For ^ Support ^ Reasons Against ^ Support ^ Conclusion ^ Recommendations (DSP Literacy Project, 1989; Derewianka, 1990; Lucantonio, 2009). The reasons for the patterning were given as well as the meanings of the terms used.

Following this, participants were then given a sample lesson plan to analyze for an Academic Spoken English (ASE) class, designed by the presenter. This was done to give participants some practical ideas as to how genres could be implemented in a classroom situation. The goal of the lesson was to teach a spoken, two-sided argument on the topic of child labor. Participants were asked to analyze and discuss the following issues: the lesson goal, the role of the model text in the initial stage of the lesson, how pop culture had been used to provide sources to build arguments both for and against the issue being examined, and the role of the homework and the “mingle” activity in the students’ independent construction of the genre. Discussion focused mainly on the issues of modeling and scaffolding in the design of the lesson plan. That is, how the lesson plan had been designed to initially provide students with a model of the genre, illustrating the social purpose and generic structure of a two-sided argument; then, to give students the opportunity to construct their own opinion, together withthe teacher, by identifying reasons for and against the prevention of child labor; and then to finally remove the teacher assistance (scaffolding) and allow students the opportunity to independently construct their own two-sided argument for homework, to be presented orally at the beginning of the next class (DSP Literacy Project, 1989).

Participants were then shown samples of student homework (Appendix A). These were outlines of a two-sided argument. Participants were asked to examine how students had used the basic generic structure of a two-sided argument (Thesis Statement ^ Reasons For ^ Support ^ Reasons Against ^ Support ^ Conclusion) to independently construct their own opinions, using various reasons and sources. Discussion by the participants focused on how the generic structure was the same in each sample and was explicitly foregrounded by the students, but the opinions presented and the reasons and sources that were used were quite different. This suggested that the students were not just copying the model, but were drawing from its generic structure and applying it as a kind of scaffold in the construction of their own opinions.

Finally, participants were shown samples of student presentation outlines (Appendix B). These were independently constructed, two-sided arguments on a variety of topics, designed for a five-minute presentation. Participants were asked to examine how students had drawn from the basic pattern of a two-sided argument, and developed it into a more formal structure for the presentation. Discussion focused on how students had used the generic structure as a kind of scaffold to construct their texts, and had made their arguments more academic in style by adding the optional elements of "Background Information" and "Recommendations," as well as adding research data such as graphs, sources, and a list of references, to support their claims.

DISCUSSION

The workshop concluded with a general discussion by the participants, focusing on the issues of scaffolding and formal teacher training.

The issue was raised of how much teacher assistance is required before students are able to independently construct their own texts. It was explained that this assistance, known as *scaffolding* in sociocultural learning theory (Gibbons, 1999, 2002; Lucantonio, 2009), varies according to the needs of the learners. It was explained that the assistance needed should be gradually removed so that students can eventually be given the opportunity to construct their own text (Gibbons, 1999, 2002; Lucantonio, 2009). However, judging when and how assistance is required, as well as when and how it is not, is a complex decision and is not necessarily an easy thing for teachers to do (Lucantonio, 2010), as it will vary according to the teaching contexts and learners' needs.

Some participants also expressed concerns that a lack of a formal background in genre theory would restrict them from using a genre-based syllabus, particularly in relation to identifying generic structure. However, it was explained that, while a formal background would be beneficial, it was not essential. It was considered to be more important for ELT teachers to possess professional training in language and how it works at a holistic level, regardless of the theoretical perspective, rather than rely on anecdotal views of language or native speaker intuition. Professional training gives teachers the knowledge and the "tools" to analyze language at a holistic level and make informed judgments about how texts work (Gibbons, 1999; Lucantonio, 2009). While generic structure analyses may vary from teacher to teacher, professionally trained language teachers can make informed judgments about how a text is organized and use whatever functional labels he or she feels are appropriate. In most cases, this would be sufficient.

In conclusion, there was a general consensus that, by drawing on theory, a genre syllabus can give students an understanding of how texts work and what they need to do in order to communicate more effectively. By analyzing samples of student work, participants were able to see the practical applications of a genre-based syllabus and how students had been empowered to go beyond the level of a sentence to independently construct whole texts.

THE AUTHOR

Damian Lucantonio *is Associate Professor at the University of Electro-Communications in Tokyo. He has worked in English language education in Australia, Indonesia, and Japan as a teacher, teacher trainer, director of studies, and researcher. He has a PhD in language education and his research focuses on applications of genre theory to language education. Email: damian@bunka.uec.ac.jp*

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APPENDIX A: SAMPLE STUDENT HOMEWORK: OUTLINE OF A TWO-SIDED ARGUMENT

Topic: Can child labor be stopped?

Main Opinion: I think child labor cannot be stopped. I have 2 reasons for this opinion.

Reason 1: First, there is not enough information about child labor.

Support 1: According to "The Japan Times", Gap yet uses some child labor to produce Gap clothing and Gucci whose parent company PPR uses India suppliers with poor labor records. But we don't know this fact. We don't know what products are made by child labor, what products are not. So it is difficult for us not to buy products made from child labor.

Reason 2: Second, profits are more important than child labor for companies.

Support 2: According to "The Japan Times", Nike has a policy against home-based setting because of the potential for underaged workers and the inability to ensure safe working conditions. The companies think they sell cheaper but make much money, so they use cheap child labor. They only care about their profits, not care about human rights.

On the other hand, there are 2 reasons against this opinion.

Reason 1: First, the governments could enforce strict child labor laws.

Support 1: Most countries have the Labor Standards Law, but this standard is different for each country, so international treaty is not made clearly. As a result, according to ILO (the International Labor Organization), two hundred twenty million children work in the world.

Reason 2: Second, we can use or buy products not made from child labor.

Support 2: Kanye West insists in "Diamonds of Sierra Leone" that we must stop the business of child labor and we should purchase conflict free diamond. The products having "Fair Trade" logos help us not to buy products made by child labor.

Conclusion: After considering both sides, I think child labor cannot be stopped.

APPENDIX B: SAMPLE STUDENT PRESENTATION OUTLINE

Topic: Can child labor be stopped?

Background Information: According to an estimate of UNICEF, at least 25% in children of 7 years old to 14 years old who live in Afghanistan are child laborers.

Only half of them can go to school and about 70% of students quit school.

In Cambodia, the number of child laborers is about 2,276,000 people. There are 246,000,000 child laborers in the world (Graph 1). ILO office in Japan shows 70.4% of children engage in agriculture, hunting, forestry and fisheries (graph 2).

Main Opinion: I think child labor cannot be stopped. I have 2 reasons for this opinion.

Reason 1: Firstly, many people think profits are more important than child labor.

Support 1: According to Dr. Lucantonio's class notes, child labor is very cheap and businesses do not care about human rights. For example, Japan Times says, Nike made underaged workers work in dangerous working conditions. And some children were enslaved to produce Gap clothing.

Reason 2: Secondly, it may be impossible to stop poverty and ignorance.

Support 2: According to "Stolen Childhoods" ABC TV 2005, children cannot go to school, so they cannot receive an education. In short, they cannot change their life that poverty and ignorance (graph 3).

However there 2 reasons against this opinion.

Reason 1: Firstly, these days, there are many approaches to abolish child labor.

Support 1: According to ILO office in Japan, the day to abolish child labor was established in 2002. Also JILAF manages unregular schools in Nepal and India as measures to stop child labor. And they started ten new schools in Nepal and India. Now, there are children who go to university.

Reason 2: Secondly, we could enforce strict child labor laws.

Support 2: According to Mr. Lucantonio's class notes, most countries have these laws, but they do not follow them strictly. Also, according to ACE, more countries ratified Convention 138 because worldwide public opinion about child labor has risen from 1999.

Conclusion: After considering about both sides, I think child labor cannot be stopped.

Recommendations: I have 2 recommendations.

Firstly, the law for child labor should be reinforced. The law doesn't protect children exactly from child labor. It should be enforced strictly.

Secondly, we should reinforce education. If education systems could attract more children, the number of child laborers would decrease.

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Challenges Annex
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Conference Overview

Presentations of

2010 PAC-KOTESOL

The Pan-Asia Conference and The 18th Annual KOTESOL International Conference

Advancing ELT in the Global Context

October 16-17, 2010 Seoul, Korea

The PAC 2010 / Korea TESOL Conference Committee gratefully recognizes the following individuals for presenting research papers, conducting workshop sessions, and leading discussions at the 2010 PAC-KOTESOL International Conference.

Assessment and Testing

Gunther Breaux	How to Easily and Accurately Grade Speaking, With and Without a Speaking Test.
Liying Cheng	Teachers' Grading Practices: Influencing Factors, Meaning, and Values Assigned
Neil Heffernan	Testing the Four Language Skills in a University-wide Program
Shaun Justin Manning	Investigating Group Discussion Tests: Improving Performance Through Feedback
Hue Nguyen	Measuring Students' Progress by Using Canadian Language Bank Benchmark (CLB) in TESOL
Michael Rodgers	Testing the Tests: A Procedure for Validating Television Comprehension Tests
H. Douglas Sewell	Teacher Trainee Reflections on Poor Exam Results: Study Orientation Insights
Bita Tangestanifar	Alternative Assessment: Thinking Outside the Box

Classroom Management

Will Lingle	Reducing Student Embarrassment: Teachers' Uses of "Hygiene Resources"
Paul Nadasdy	Group Dynamics in Language Classrooms
Nopporn Sarobol	Implementing Cooperative Learning in the Classroom

Content-Based Instruction

Bryon Bissell	Christian Teaching in Practice: Resources for Christian English Teachers
Virginia Hanslien	Christian Teaching in Practice: Resources for Christian English Teachers

Nam-Joon Kang	Why Not CLIL or CBELT or Immersion but SBLT for an EFL Setting?
Heidi Vande Voort Nam	Christian Teaching in Practice: Resources for Christian English Teachers

Corpus-Based Linguistics

Tyler Barrett	Using Corpus as a Means to Promote Authentic Language in English Textbooks
Trudie Heiman	Going from Print to Digital Interactive and Online
Trudie Heiman	Online and Interactive Corpus-Based Courses
Doug Huffer	Corpus in the Classroom
Hsing-Chin Lee Lee	Application of Data-Driven Learning Approach in Taiwan EFL Teaching

Conversation, Pronunciation, and Listening

Andrew Blyth	A Qualitative Study of How Teachers Currently Teach Listening in Japan
Junko Chujo	Incorporation and Evaluation of Jazz Chants in Japanese University English Class
Daniel Evans	Rightside-up Answers to Pan-Asian Pronunciation Challenges
Don Makarchuk	Oral Dialogue Journals: Theory and Implementation in the Classroom
Emilie Masson	Developing Students' Speaking Ability with Weekly Online Diaries
Tim Roberts	The Dongguk Integrated Course Experiment: Conversation

Course / Materials Design

Peadar Callaghan	Comics in the Classroom
Shuchen Chang	Types and Consequences of Information Control in Short-Story Simplification
Khacheenuj Chaovanapricha	Developing Policy and Strategies for Improving Teaching English at Primary Levels in Thailand
Kanjana Charttrakul	Developing Policy and Strategies for Improving Teaching English at Primary Levels in Thailand
Matthew Coomber	Adding a Piece to the Puzzle: Three Dimensional Jigsaw Reading
Kristin Dalby	Negotiating in the Korean University ELT Classroom
Gavin Farrell	Storytelling Across the Curriculum for Young Learners
Lyndon Hott	The Dongguk Integrated Course Experiment: Reading and Listening
Nathan Paul Krug	Peer Teaching with Authentic Materials in University English Courses

John Angus MacCaull	The Dongguk Integrated Course Experiment: Grammar and Writing
Ross Miller	Passport to Study Abroad: Preparing Students for the Journey of a Lifetime
Maria Pinto	The Dongguk Integrated Course Experiment: Course Design and Proposal
Todd Thorpe	Passport to Study Abroad: Preparing Students for the Journey of a Lifetime
Frank Tucker	Peer Teaching with Authentic Materials in University English Courses
John Wendel	The Dongguk Integrated Course Experiment: Working with the Administration
Raymond Wong	Peer Teaching with Authentic Materials in University English Courses

Critical Thinking

Sebastien Muncaster	A Better Way of Collaboration for Higher Level of Thinking
Jin-kyu Park	A Better Way of Collaboration for Higher Level of Thinking
Jennie Roloff	World Politics in the Classroom: Why Should We Bother?

Cross-cultural / Intercultural Factors

Hiroko Arao	A Study of Cultural Factors in Junior High School English Textbooks Approved in Korea and Japan
Jody Barron	Cultural Conceptions: Recognizing and Integrating Culture into Classes
Grant Black	Assessing Intercultural Experience and Achievement in At-risk Language Learners
Kip Cates	The Asian Youth Forum: English for Inter-Asian Understanding
Kip Cates	Language Learning in Asia: The Students' View
Julie Ciancio	The Instructional Conversation: Using Intercultural Conversations to Share Cross-cultural Teaching Expertise
Tim Dalby	Team Teaching in Public Schools in Korea: Some Principles, Practices, and Ideas
Kyle Philip Devlin	Students Teaching and Learning About Their Own Culture
Lynne Diaz-Rico	The Instructional Conversation: Using Intercultural Conversations to Share Cross-cultural Teaching Expertise
Carl Dusthimer	The Asian Youth Forum: English for Inter-Asian Understanding
Carl Dusthimer	Language Learning in Asia: The Students' View
Xing Fang	"Have You Eaten Yet?": Reappraising Pragmatics in China's English Education

Michael Hood	Raising Voices, Crossing Boundaries: Japanese Students in American Universities
Robert Kienzle	Cultural Conceptions: Recognizing and Integrating Culture into Classes
Maiko Kimura	A Study of Cultural Factors in Junior High School English Textbooks Approved in Korea and Japan
Scott Menking	Thai Students' Views of International Communication: Pedagogical Implications
Heebon Park-Finch	Adapting Teaching to the Cultural Context
John Peloghitis	Assessing Intercultural Experience and Achievement in At-risk Language Learners
Kartika Anindya Putri	The Asian Youth Forum: English for Inter-Asian Understanding
Kartika Anindya Putri	Language Learning in Asia: The Students' View
Eric Reynolds	Kimchee Smiles and Freedom Fries: Disentangling Cross-cultural Emotional Communication
Stephen M. Ryan	Culture Experience Programmes: Language Teaching by Stealth
Peter Wanner	Language Learning in Asia: The Students' View

ESP / EAP

Kai-chong Cheung	Teaching Business English at theGraduate Level
Miyuki Nakatsugawa	Operationalising the SSARC Model in an Academic Language Course
John Peloghitis	Projects for Teaching Business English
Craig Smith	The Development of EAP Vocabulary Learning Materials for University Students

Ethics

Kara MacDonald	NESTs of Korean Heritage: Coming to Terms with Being NESTs of a Lower Worth
Carl Phillips	EFL Education in South Korea and the Phenomenon of Shame

Feedback

Matthew Coomber	How Anonymity Affects Feedback in the Peer Review Process
Richard Silver	How Anonymity Affects Feedback in the Peer Review Process
Jennifer Yphantides	Talking It Through: Students Discuss Reformulations of Their Short Stories

Genre Studies

Joshua Davies	Talk Like TED: Analyzing What Makes Great Speeches Great
Damian Lucantonio	Using Argument Genres to Teach Academic Spoken English

Global Issues

Joseph Hosbach	Enticing the Interests of EFL Students to Think Globally: Authentic Texts
Mark Wright	Enticing the Interests of EFL Students to Think Globally: Authentic Texts

Grammar

Roger Fusselman	Getting L2 Learners of English to Form Grammar Rules Inductively
Kate Kim	Building Fluency and Accuarcy Through Grammar
Hyunkyoung Shin	How Can Korean Teachers Make Grammar Classes More Interactive Using CCQs?

Identity and Autonomy

C. Craig Bartlett	Autonomy and Motivation: A Tale of Two Learners
Daniel Broudy	Transforming Apathy into Activeness: TBLT with Self- and Peer- Evaluation
Sara Davila	Who We Are: Task-Based Activities to Develop Learner Identity
Thomas Farrell	Constructing Your Professional Identity Through Self-Reflection
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John Haggerty	The Polarizing Effect of High-Stakes Testing on Young ELLs
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Charlotte Murakami	Transforming Apathy into Activeness: TBLT with Self- and Peer- Evaluation
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Chris Valvona	Transforming Apathy into Activeness: TBLT with Self- and Peer- Evaluation

Learning Style Preferences

Richard Lemmer	Student Reading Habits and Perceptons: Before and After Extensive Reading
Ingrid Zwaal	Practical Roleplay in the Classroom

Literacy Reading

Wei Yang Dai	Constructing a New Binding Theory and Practices in English Reading Instruction
Dean Dawson	Increasing Reading Comprehension: A Dramatic Approach
Aaron D. Jolly	Growing Extensive Readers: From Kindergarten to Middle School
Scott Miles	Book Circles and Extensive Reading
Scott Miles	Book Circles and Extensive Reading (Continued)
Rocky Nelson	The ER Program at Pusan University of Foreign Studies
Rob Waring	Setting Up and Running an Extensive Reading Program
David Williams	Students' Reactions to Literature Circles in the Content-Based Classroom

Management

Rachel Heppner Kroeker	A Balance to Be Reckoned With: Two Studies on ELT Management
Justin Kroeker	A Balance to Be Reckoned With: Two Studies on ELT Management

Multiple Skills

Rusty Hitt	Toastmasters: For Teachers and Students
Robert Kienzle	Toastmasters: For Teachers and Students
Bridget Ashley Megon McGregor	Practical Solutions to Plagiarism
Roger Palmer	Bringing Blended Learning into Mainstream ELT
Irene J. Park	Practical Solutions to Plagiarism
Brian Rasmussen	Embracing Product and Process in a Task-Based Approach to Teaching Writing
Richard Silver	How Presentations Can Teach Students to Be Facilitators in the EFL Classroom
Tim Thompson	Tools to Keep Students Active and Involved Outside the Language Classroom
Grace H. Wang	Embracing Product and Process in a Task-Based Approach to Teaching Writing

Pragmatics and Discourse Analysis

Julian Chapple	Raising EFL Teachers' Awareness of Pragmatic Elements of L2 Teaching
Maria Dyuzheva	Gesture as a Speech Act Equivalent in English Discourse
Shoichi Matsumura	Raising EFL Teachers' Awareness of Pragmatic Elements of L2 Teaching
Colin Skeates	Examining Teaching Practice Through Questions
Tatyana Vlasova	Gesture as a Speech Act Equivalent in English Discourse

Professional Teacher Development

Andrew Finch	Reflecting on Teaching: Looking at Beliefs and Perceptions
Rob Higgins	Critical Friends Groups: An Opportunity to Reflect on Practice
Mark James	The Art of Presenting an Effective Poster
Quint Oga-Baldwin	Do I Have to Do This? Peer-Supported EFL Teacher Reflection
Lesley Painter-Farrell	Innovations in Online Teacher Training Practica
Ksan Rubadeau	Part of the Solution: Involving Expat Teachers in Helping Emotionally Distressed Students
George Scholz	Supplementing Learning and Training Materials: A Global Perspective
David E. Shaffer	Reflecting on Teacher Development

Second Language Acquisition

Anne C. Ihata	EFL Reading with Illustrations: Greater Connectivity Potential Than We Thought?
Kyungjin Joo	The Effects of Meaning Negotiation, Feedback, and Uptake on SLA.
Chia-Ti (Heather) Tseng	How Do Good Language Learners Learn English in Taiwan?
Jin-Suk Yang	A Vygotskian Perspective on Good Language Learners: A Case of Four ESL Learners

Sociolinguistics

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Geoffrey Goodman	Encouraging Communicative Competence for Korean Students Through Culturally Pluralistic Texts and Media
Layne Hartsell	Imperialistic Influences in English Teaching
David Leaper	Putting Students in Their Place: An Analysis of a Commercially Produced Placement Test

John McGaughey	Controversies in English Education: Language Policy and EFL Textbooks in Korea
Ubon Sanpatchayapong	World-Class Standard School Project: An Innovation or a Challenge?
Heejin Song	Controversies in English Education: Language Policy and EFL Textbooks in Korea

Technology in the Classroom / Computer-Assisted Language Learning

Becka Barker	Comparing Online Social Networks in an EFL Learning Context
Daniel Beck	Online Animations for Language Learners
Nicholas Bovee	E-learning on a Shoestring
Ian Brown	Easy Online Presentations with Voicethread
James Life	Applying the Organic ESL Classroom in the Twenty-First Century
Stafford Lumsden	Evaluating CALL Materials: How About an iPhone?
Jeffrey Stewart	E-learning on a Shoestring
Montri Tangpijaikul	Fine-Tuning Discourse in EFL Electronic Discussion
Tory Thorkelson	Webgems: Resourcing Your Classroom on the Internet

Video

Taher Bahrani	The Effect of Exposure to Mass Media on Speaking Fluency
Adam Boothe	More Than Entertainment: Interacting with Video in the Elementary Classroom
Dion Clingwall	The Effective Use of Television in a Listening Class
Justin McKibben	Digital Storytelling: A Way to Get Students to Express Themselves and Learn
Han Min Seo	Movie Making

Vocabulary

Allison Bill	Vocabulary Learning: More Than Just Memorization
John Honisz-Greens	Using Lexical Profiling to Aid Student Fluency and Vocabulary Acquisition
Yu-cheng Sieh	Best Predictor of English Vocabulary Learning Among Taiwanese Young Learners

Writing

Sergey Butakov	Finding Our Way: Plagiarism, the Internet, and an MATESOL Program
Bryan Fox	Beyond Brainstorming: Using Color-Coding to Organize Student Writing

Eric Gondree	Re-reading and Re-reading Charts as an Integral Part of Teaching Writing
Susan Kelly	Updating the Research Paper: New Approaches in Academic Writing
Noriko Kurihara	How Does Collaboration Influence Students' Development of Writing Skills?
Yiu Nam Leung	English Composition in an EFL Context in Taiwan: A Pedagogical Consideration
Alan Maley	The Power of Creative Writing
Marilyn Plumlee	Writing It Up: What Research about Research Writing Reveals
Heather Pokotylo	Error Logs: Helping Students Monitor and Improve Their Writing
Eric Reynolds	Finding Our Way: Plagiarism, the Internet, and an MATESOL Program

Organizational Partner Presentations

Gabriel Allison, E-Future	A Friendly Guide to Paragraph and Essay Writing
Gabriel Allison, E-Future	Easy Reading and Long-Lasting Vocabulary
Ken Beatty, Language World	Starship English: A Better Way to Teach and Learn
Marshall Brewer, SIT Graduate Institute	Keeping Teaching Fresh: Characteristics of Teachers Who Learn
Michael Cahill, Cengage Learning	Five Steps to Academic Reading Success
Michael Cahill, Cengage Learning	How Do We Teach the New Literacies?
Michael Cahill, Cengage Learning	Weaving Critical Thinking into Our Reading and Writing Classes
Michael Cahill, Kyobo ELT	Bringing Culture into Your Classroom
Michael Cahill, Language World	A Content-Rich Solution to Middle School Motivation
Justin Chang, Oxford University Press Korea	Read Your Way to Better English with *Dominoes* and The Oxford Bookworms Library!
Justin Chang, Oxford University Press Korea	Have Fun Digitally with the *Let's Go* iTools
Andy Curtis, Cengage Learning	From Video Input to Verbal Output: Listening and Speaking, Language and Culture
Alison Davis, Pearson	Language Central: English Through the US Curriculum
Alison Davis, Pearson	Reading Street and the Teaching of Thinking Readers

Gilly Dempster, Macmillan Korea	Bringing the "Real-World" into the Classroom
Gilly Dempster, Macmillan Korea	Personalization and Skills Building
Robert J. Dickey, TALL English Solutions	Technology-Assisted Language Learning (TALL): Using Technology to Extend the Classroom
Carl Dusthimer, E-Future	International-Minded Readers with *IB Journeys*
Rebecca Elliott, Kyobo ELT	Supplemental Activities That Work
Rebecca Elliott, Kyobo ELT	Making Grammar Fun
Rebecca Fletcher, Oxford University Press	Skills for Success: Eloquent and Expressive English Language Learning
Rebecca Fletcher, Oxford University Press	Tried and True Teaching Methodology with New Digital Support: A Winning Combination!
Rebecca Fletcher, Oxford University Press	Active and Accurate: Grammar for Young Learners
James Forrest, Cambridge ESOL Korea	The CELTA
Sue Garton, Aston University	Where Next with Your Professional Development?
Ray Graham, TALL English Solutions	Elicited Imitation Revisited as a Technique for Measuring Oral Language Proficiency
Patrick Hafenstein, Macmillan Korea	The Green Teacher Is a Digital Teacher
Patrick Hafenstein, Macmillan Korea	Are You Getting Paid for Lesson Preparation Time?
Chanmi Hong, Bridge Learning Ltd., Korea	Building Vocabulary from Word Roots
Chanmi Hong, Bridge Learning Ltd., Korea	Comprehensive Solution for Evaluating Written Work
Julie Hwang, Oxford University Press Korea	Speaking Activities and Stories for the Kindergarten Classroom!
Julie Hwang, Oxford University Press Korea	Fabulous Language Skills Training with American Family and Friends!
Aaron D. Jolly, E-Future	International-Minded Readers with *IB Journeys*
Gemma Kang, E-Future	Art Classic Stories Are Specialized in Arts and Classic Stories.
Gemma Kang, Neungyule Education	Wright Right: How to Build Basic Writing Skills
Donald Y. Kim, Cambridge University Press	Do It Yourself, or with Others: Making Your Courses Digital
Geo Kim, E-Future	Effective Phonics in the Era of Digital Education
Kate Kim, Compass Media	Building Fluency and Accuracy Through Grammar

Peter Kim, EduCherry Inc.	ProofWriter™: A New Online Service from ETS
Sarah Kim, Language World	Making Fluent Readers with Technology-Blended Instruction
William Kim, Kyobo ELT	Comprehension Skills Through Nonfiction Articles
Ellen (Haerim) Lee, Australian Embassy	Study TESOL in Australia
Sunny Lee, E-Future	Easy and Fun Speaking Practice
Jessica Magnusson, Oxford University Press	Skills for Success: Eloquent and Expressive English Language Learning
Jessica Magnusson, Oxford University Press	Interactive and Visually Stimulating Dictionary Teaching Resources
Jessica Magnusson, Oxford University Press	Read and Discover the World Through Non-fiction Readers
Casey Malarcher, Compass Media	Have Your Students Just Speak Up!
Anders McCarthy, Pearson Longman	What Can CALL Do for Vocabulary Learning?
Scott Miles, Pearson Longman	What Can CALL Do for Vocabulary Learning?
Paul Nation, Compass Media	What Are the Ten Most Effective Vocabulary Activities?
David Nunan, Pearson Longman	Engage Me: 21st Century Learners and Technology
William Packard, Houghton Mifflin Harcourt	Using Basal Readers for Young Learners: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt *Journeys*
Lesley Painter-Farrell, The New School	The New School MA TESOL: Keys to Effective Online Learning
Kostas Paixos, Bridge Learning Ltd., Korea	Incorporating New Technology in the Classroom
Kostas Paixos, Bridge Learning Ltd., Korea	The Ideal Course Book for Young Learners
Anna HJ Park, Compass Media	How to Have Fun and Teach Your Students at the Same Time
Linda Warfel, Language World	Dramatically Increase Literacy Skills Using Award
Soo Ha Sue Yim, Cambridge ESOL Korea	TKT: An Opportunity for Professional Development