

The Asian Conference on Education / ACE 2020

SURVIVING & THRIVING

Education in Times of Change

Book of Proceedings
+ Papers of the Asian Undergraduate Research Symposium (AURS)

Toshi Center Hotel, Tokyo, Japan / March 29-31, 2020



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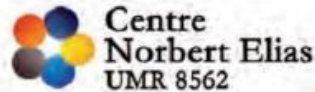
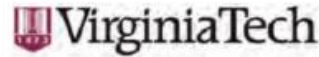
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www.iafor.org/about/partners

IAFOR Global Partners



IAFOR has entered into a number of strategic partnerships with universities across the world to form the IAFOR Global Partnership Programme. These academic partnerships support and nurture IAFOR's goals of educational cooperation without borders, connecting the organisation with institutions that have an international and internationalising profile, and a commitment to interdisciplinary research.

The IAFOR Global Partnership Programme provides mutual recognition and scope for Global Partner institutions and organisations to showcase their research strengths, as well as engage in the development of projects and programmes with IAFOR.

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IAFOR depends on the assistance of a large number of international academics and practitioners who contribute in a variety of ways to our shared mission of promoting international exchange, facilitating intercultural awareness, encouraging interdisciplinary discussion and generating and sharing new knowledge. Our academic events would not be what they are without a commitment to ensuring that international norms of peer review are observed for our presentation abstracts. With thousands of abstracts submitted each year for presentation at our conferences, IAFOR relies on academics around the world to ensure a fair and timely peer review process in keeping with established international norms of double-blind peer review.

We are grateful for the time, effort and expertise donated by all our contributors.

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Surviving and Thriving: Education in Times of Change

In 2017, IAFOR education conferences in Asia, Europe, the Middle East and North America brought together delegates from around the world to consider the theme of “Educating for Change”. The theme was approached from a variety of different perspectives, taking full advantage of the international diversity of the attendees with their myriad experiences. A recurring note throughout the conferences was the reference to the future, be it immediate or longer term, as being uncertain.

The natural resilience and optimism of educators was counterbalanced by apprehension; with hope also came fear.

In the current period of great global political and economic instability, rising inequality and social unrest, the role of education within society has never been more important, but never more vulnerable. This brings us to our conference theme for 2020, which references these inherent vulnerabilities in both educational systems and the individual students and teachers, as well as the necessary resilience needed to not only survive, but also thrive.

How do we as teachers, administrators and policymakers adopt and adapt to change outside our control? How do we nurture and encourage positive change, through the excitement of the imagination, innovation and creativity? How can technologies be better used to help us teach, and to help students learn? How do we sustain and manage change? How can we react positively to negative change? How can we, our institutions and our students survive and thrive in these times of change?

The Local Context: Asia and Japan

The situation of education in Asia reflects the challenges of diversity in Asia itself. There are varied education systems and structures, as well as the wide gap between countries struggling to meet the most basic educational and human security needs, rapidly developing nations vying to compete on the global stage while attending to pressures of a growing population, and advanced economies with shrinking populations among them. The region hosts the world’s top

performers in PISA and TIMSS and some of the most rapidly rising stars in the global university rankings, as well as some of the most underfunded, and underperforming systems in the world. There are many and varied challenges throughout the region that reflect and inform those experienced in other nations throughout this world.

The Asian Conference on Education has chosen a befitting city, Tokyo, Japan, as the venue. It is the seat of one of the oldest and powerful bureaucracies, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), that oversees the education from grade school to university that once symbolised the most desirable model of rapid development and modernisation. Today, the challenges that face the Japanese education system are one and the same as the challenges that face the entire country: changing to survive. Education for the national purpose is no longer working, and yet the institutional inertia hampers efforts to free the system to become effective, dynamic and competitive in the long run. At the forefront of these challenges are the universities that are strong in STEM subjects but widely underperform in global ranking in other areas, but the roots of the problem are to be found in the primary and secondary and tertiary sectors that are still conformist.

Unlike countries like Malaysia and Indonesia, with young and growing populations, Japan's population is now falling, which presents it with a number of problems, but also an opportunity to use its universities and acquired expertise to help play a more active role in regional educational development. For one, while Japan may be unsure how to embrace multiculturalism, universities in particular are pressed to open up their doors to more foreign students to survive financially but more importantly to remain internationally relevant academically. Universities are the microcosmos of Japanese society as they engage with the diversity of a globalising world. As the pinnacle of the Japanese education system the change in the universities is an urgent necessity to inspire primary and secondary sectors as well as other countries in the region. It is a task of historical proportions as the first modern country to emerge from Asia, but one that would impart many important lessons for those who have followed in Japan's footpath.

For our twelfth annual Asian Conference on Education (ACE) in Tokyo, we are looking to confirm our commitment to providing the most engaging platform for exchanging ideas on education in Asia and beyond by bringing together our largest and most diverse group of scholars, educators, and policymakers to date, to exchange ideas, research and practice from their own backgrounds and contexts, and to draw on and be inspired by the local and international body of delegates from 40+ different national backgrounds, as we come together to consider how we not only survive, but positively thrive, in these uncertain and changing times.

Letter of Welcome



Dear Colleagues,

Welcome to The Asian Conference on Education 2020! Welcome to Tokyo!

The Asian Conference on Education (ACE) is IAFOR's longestrunning event, and among our largest. First held in Osaka from 2009 to 2014, and then in Kobe from 2015 to 2017, ACE is now celebrating its 12th anniversary and moving to Japan's capital.

While some conferences claim to be international, with 550 attendees from over 50 countries this year alone, ACE truly is, and it offers an immense opportunity not only to share and test ideas, but also to inform and be informed about those working in different fields and countries, and with differences in contexts and constraints.

The 12th ACE has taken as its theme, "Surviving and Thriving: Education in Times of Change", and this theme offers a good opportunity for educators, academics, scholars and policy-makers to take stock, and look back at what has worked, as well as project forward into the future.

Over the years, ACE has brought together thousands of passionate scholars and educators from around the globe to discuss ideas critical to the development of education in Asia and beyond, making it one of the most respected, and longest-running annual conferences focused on all levels of education in Asia. ACE was the first conference organised by The International Academic Forum (IAFOR) in Osaka in 2009, when the organisation was founded.

Founded in Japan at a time when academic conferences held in English did not exist (outside those organised by professional associations dedicated to English language teaching), IAFOR quickly found support among a growing number of scholars in Japan, Asia, and beyond. Participants came together to make friends, network, and, at a time of rapid globalisation and technological advances, explore the latest ideas. The conferences also encouraged the search for research synergies in the pursuit of addressing many of the myriad and complex challenges presented by the modern world. To date, more than 20,000 academics have presented at an IAFOR conference, whether in Asia, the Middle East, Europe or North America.

IAFOR now has Global Partners around the world, counts some of the world's foremost intellectuals as advisers, and boasts an interdisciplinary research centre in the Osaka School of International Public Policy (OSIPP) at Osaka University. The OSIPP-IAFOR Research Centre now runs two major research initiatives: The Silk Road Initiative, directed by Professor Georges Depeyrot of the ENS-CNRS in Paris, and The Innovation and Value Initiative, which was launched at the United Nations Headquarters in New York. We now publish ten

internationally recognised Open Access peer-reviewed journals, including the excellent IAFOR Journal of Education (edited by Dr Yvonne Masters who succeeded Dr Bernard Montoneri), and THINK, an engaging and provocative online magazine. We also organise international awards in haiku and in documentary photography, helping nurture a new generation of artists and photojournalists. This is in addition to a conference programme that spans three continents!

As we celebrate the 12th ACE, I would like to acknowledge the following friends and colleagues, without which this remarkable event and organisation would not have developed. Their knowledge, belief, dedication and hard work has helped direct, shape and build IAFOR.

The success of IAFOR would not have been possible without the support and guidance of the late Professor Stuart D. B. Picken, a dear friend and academic mentor whose belief and experience helped the organisation grow. He served as the founding Chairman of IAFOR, until he passed away in 2016. In 2017 IAFOR founded a fund aimed at doctoral candidates and early career academics to give financial awards to support excellence in scholarship and encourage attendees who might otherwise be unable to come to conferences. Since its inception, more than a hundred scholarships have been awarded. The most prestigious, are known as “Picken Scholars”, and will ensure that name is not forgotten.

Professor Sue Jackson, former Vice-President of Birkbeck (University of London), was instrumental in shaping this conference and its global sister events in Europe, North America and the Middle East, as the Director of Programme and then Vice-President for Education, until her retirement last year. I thank her for leadership and vision. I also recognise Professor Barbara Lockee of Virginia Tech, who succeeded Sue in this role, and has continued to be ever more ambitious with our global education programme. Since 2016, ACE has also included the Asian Undergraduate Research Symposium (AURS), which was founded and continues to be directed by Professor José McClanahan (Creighton University) and Dr Yvonne Masters (University of New England). As part of our commitment to nurturing the next generation of academics, this programme has gone from strength to strength, and this year welcomes around 90 students from 20 different countries. I would like to thank them for their continued enthusiasm and dedication. Professor McClanahan and Dr Masters also serve on the ACE2018 Organising Committee alongside Professor Tien-Hui Chiang (Zhengzhou University), Dr Paul Lai (Nagoya University), Dr Tzu-Bin Lin (National Taiwan Normal University), Dr Zachary Walker (UCL IoE), and Justin Sanders (Osaka University), and under the excellent chairmanship of Professor Ted O'Neill (Gakushuin University).

I would like to recognise the work of the IAFOR Board of Directors and Executive Committee: Professor Haruko Satoh (Osaka University); Dr Grant Black (Chuo University); Professor Donald Hall (Rochester University); Professor James W. McNally (Michigan Ann Arbor); Professor Barbara Lockee (Virginia Tech.); Professor Ted O'Neill (Gakushuin University); and His Excellency Professor Toshiya Hoshino, Japanese Ambassador to the United Nations. Last, but by no means least, I must thank my colleague and dear friend, Professor Steve Cornwell,

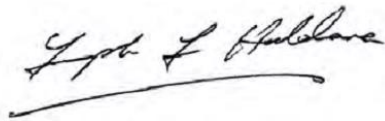
the President of IAFOR, and Chairman of the Academic Governing Board, who I first met at the ACE conference in 2009, and with whom I have continued to work closely. We are lucky to work with such great colleagues, all of whom share the ambition to drive positive change within the organisation, and increase its reach and impact in realising our mission of “encouraging interdisciplinary discussion, facilitating intercultural awareness, and promoting international exchange”.

From being a startup, or upstart organisation at the time of ACE 2009, to organising events in the Japan’s capital, supported by the Prime Minister’s Office and the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT), IAFOR has come a long way. We still have so far we can go, and if you are not a member of IAFOR yet, I would encourage you to sign up, get involved, and be a part of our future.

It remains for me to thank the Keynote and Featured Speakers, the conference reviewers, and the hundreds of speakers and attendees from across the globe.

In a divided world, IAFOR’s founding principles of nurturing ideas, individuals and research projects across barriers of nation, culture, and discipline are more timely than ever. Here’s to Surviving and Thriving, over the next few days of this tenth Asian Conference on Education, and beyond!

I look forward to meeting you all.



Dr Joseph Haldane
Chairman and CEO, IAFOR



Become an IAFOR Member

IAFOR provides an excellent personal and professional environment for academics and scholars of all ages and backgrounds to come together and exchange the latest ideas, and inform each other's perspectives through their own cultural and disciplinary background and experiences. We are able to do this thanks to the exceptional network of individuals and institutions around the world who support our work and help shape our exceptional events globally. We emphasise the nurturing and supporting of young academics from different backgrounds, providing mutual advice and guidance, and offer more senior academics the chance to forge working relationships outside of their traditional networks.

In a world where division and strife are underlined and played up in national and local contexts, and political posturing frequently seeks to ostracise and demonise, IAFOR is committed to working across cultural and national borders, and to work to bring people together. We believe that mature human interaction and academic and cultural exchange are essential to offering positive versions of the future, where cooperation happens with individuals and institutions who share a commitment to bridge divides, to being good global citizens, and to making the world a better place.

By becoming a member, you will become a stakeholder in the IAFOR mission of facilitating international exchange, encouraging intercultural awareness, and promoting interdisciplinary discussion in the hope and expectation of generating and sharing new knowledge. Join us now in this growing global organisation, and help make a difference today.

To learn more about IAFOR membership, please visit:
www.iafor.org/membership



About IAFOR's Conferences on Education

The International Academic Forum (IAFOR) promotes and facilitates new multifaceted approaches to one of the core issues of our time, namely globalisation and its many forms of growth and expansion. Awareness of how it cuts across the world of education, and its subsequent impact on societies, institutions and individuals, is a driving force in educational policies and practices across the globe. IAFOR's conferences on education have these issues at their core. The conferences present those taking part with three unique dimensions of experience; encouraging interdisciplinary discussion, facilitating heightened intercultural awareness and promoting international exchange. In short, IAFOR's conferences on education are about change, transformation and social justice. As IAFOR's previous conferences on education have shown, education has the power to transform and change whilst it is also continuously transformed and changed.

Globalised education systems are becoming increasingly socially, ethnically and culturally diverse. However, education is often defined through discourses embedded in Western paradigms as globalised education systems become increasingly determined by dominant knowledge economies. Policies, practices and ideologies of education help define and determine ways in which social justice is perceived and acted out. What counts as "education" and as "knowledge" can appear uncontested but is in fact both contestable and partial. Discourses of learning and teaching regulate and normalise gendered and classed, racialised and ethnicised understandings of what learning is and who counts as a learner.

In many educational settings and contexts throughout the world, there remains an assumption that teachers are the possessors of knowledge which is to be imparted to students, and that this happens in neutral, impartial and objective ways. However, learning is about making meaning, and learners can experience the same teaching in very different ways. Students (as well as teachers) are part of complex social, cultural, political, ideological and personal circumstances, and current experiences of learning will depend in part on previous ones, as well as on age, gender, social class, culture, ethnicity, varying abilities and more.

IAFOR has several annual conferences on education, exploring common themes in different ways to develop a shared research agenda that develops interdisciplinary discussion, heightens intercultural awareness, and promotes international exchange.

Submit your research to the
IAFOR Journal of Education

The IAFOR Journal of Education is an internationally reviewed and editorially independent interdisciplinary journal associated with IAFOR's international conferences on Education.

Editor: Dr Yvonne Masters, University of New England, Australia
ISSN: 2187-0594
Contact: publications@iafor.org

Aims & Scope

The IAFOR Journal of Education is an Open Access, peer-reviewed, international and intercultural journal. The journal encourages interdisciplinary research, with the primary focus being on addressing critical issues and current trends and research in education. Papers submitted by academic researchers, theorists, practising teachers, policy-makers and educational administrators are welcomed. All papers published in the journal have been subjected to the rigorous and accepted processes of academic peer review. Submissions should be original, previously unpublished papers which are not under consideration for publication in any other journal. We also accept reworked versions of previously published, related IAFOR Conference Proceedings if the version submitted to the journal is revised and differs from the previously published article by a minimum 70 percent new material. All articles are submitted through the submission portal on the journal website and must conform to the journal submission guidelines.

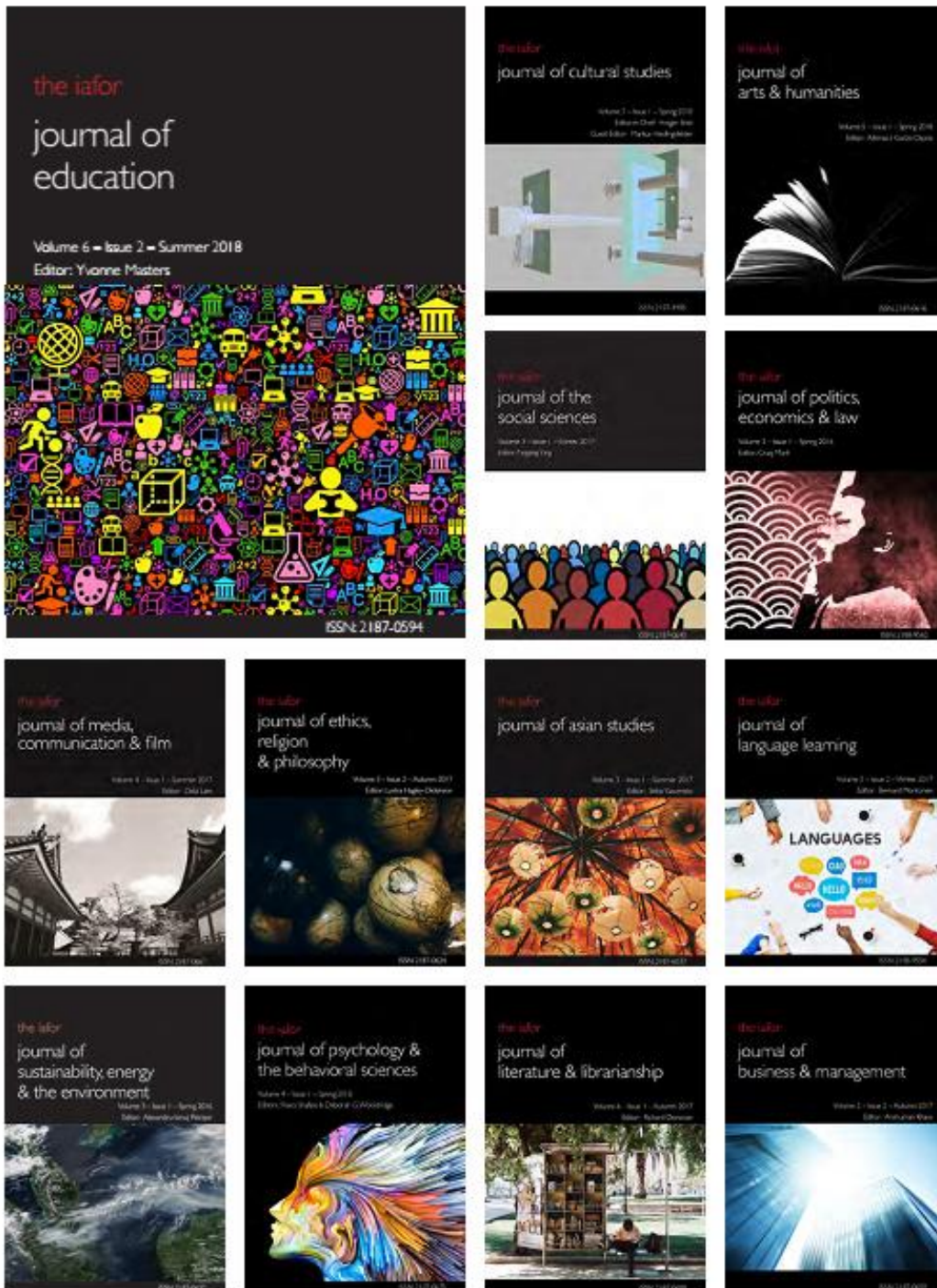
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IAFOR Commitment

IAFOR believes in "Open Access" publishing, and since 2009, has been committed to maintaining an online searchable research archive that offers free access to anyone, anywhere, where there is Internet access, regardless of institutional affiliation or scholarly rank. IAFOR publications are accessible on the website (Open Access) to researchers all over the world, completely free of charge and without delay or embargo. Authors and contributors are not required to pay charges of any sort towards the publication of IAFOR journals.

For more information please visit:
www.ije.iafor.org

Other IAFOR Journals



Book of Proceedings

Difference between L1 and L2 Language Processing in the Use of Subcategorization Information Evidence Form Syntactic Priming

Chie Nakamura
Massachusetts Institute of Technology, USA
Manabu Arai
Seijo University, Japan
Yasunari Harada
Waseda University, Japan

日本人英語学習者の曖昧文理解における動詞下位範疇化情報の使用—統語的プライミング効果に見られる母語話者との違い

中村智栄
マサチューセッツ工科大学／日本学術振興会
新井 学
成城大学
原田康也
早稲田大学

はじめに

人間の文理解では時間軸に沿って入力される言語情報から正しい統語構造を構築することが必要とされる。これまでの研究から、このプロセスには語彙情報、意味的整合性、文脈情報など語の入力と共に得られる様々な種類の言語情報が利用されることが明らかとなっている。さらに、文理解においてこのような情報が即時に処理される、つまり漸次的処理 (incremental processing) によって、時として統語構造の一時的な曖昧性とそれに伴う誤分析が生じることが知られている。このように統語構造解釈の過程で誤った初分析と再分析が生じる文の代表的な例としてガーデンパス文が挙げられる。

母語話者を対象としたガーデンパス文処理プロセスの研究では、文の構造的曖昧性が解消される以前に行われる初分析プロセスとその後に続く再分析プロセスの観測から様々な文処理モデルが提案されてきた。一方、第二言語習得分野の文理解を対象とした研究では、成人の外国語学習者が学習対象言語の文を理解する際に語彙の意味や文脈情報といった言語情報を母語話者と同じように用いて文構造解釈を行っていることが明らかとなる一方 (Juffs and Harrington 1995, Juffs 1998, Juffs 2004, Roberts and Felser 2011, Rodriguez 2008), 統語情報の処理については母語話者と学習者の間で異なることが示されている (Clahsen and Felser 2006a, 2006b, Felser and Roberts 2007, Marinis et al. 2005, Nakamura et al. 2013, Roberts et al. 2008)。

これらの研究は、学習者の文理解でも入力される情報が即時に利用され漸次的処理が行われる一方、母語話者と学習者の文理解において作業記憶の容量などの量的違いでは説明できない処理プロセスにおける質的差異があることを示唆している (Roberts 2007)。母語話者と学習者の文処理プロセスにおける質的差異を明らかにするためには、学習者が対象言語の文法体系について持つ知識の

確認に留まらず、学習者が文理解を行う際にどのような言語情報を実時間上の処理プロセスの中でどのように使っているかを明らかにする必要がある。これまでの母語話者を対象とした研究では、直前に処理した統語構造が後続の文処理に影響を与えるという統語的プライミングと呼ばれる現象を用いた研究により、言語使用者のメンタルレキシコン内に貯蔵される統語情報が言語使用の際にどう活性化するかが明らかにされてきた (Pickering and Branigan 1998)。中でもガーデンパス文を読む際の統語的プライミング効果を検証した実験からは、一時的曖昧性に伴って生じる初分析や再分析のプロセスがプライミング効果として後続の文を処理する際にも影響を与えることが明らかとなっており、その解釈について複数の文処理モデルから説明が試みられている (Van Gompel et al. 2006, Chang et al. 2006)。第二言語習得分野においては、バイリンガルを対象としたものも含め外国語学習者の文理解についてプライミング手法を用いた研究が多くある一方で (レビュー論文として Van Gompel and Arai 2018 を参照)、その多くが言語産出に焦点を当てており (e.g., Shin and Christianson 2012)、第二言語学習者の文処理モデルに言及したものは数少ない。それゆえ、第二言語学習者のガーデンパス文の理解において誤分析と再分析プロセスが後続文の統語処理にどう影響するのかについては明らかにされていない。そこで本研究では日本語を母語とする成人の英語学習者と英語母語話者を対象に統語的プライミングの手法を用いた実験を行い、母語話者と第二言語学習者の間で英語ガーデンパス文を理解する際の文構造の誤分析プロセスが後続文処理に与える影響がどう異なるかを検証した。

母語理解における漸次的処理プロセス

文理解を対象とした研究における重要な問題の一つとして、人間の持つ限られた記憶容量や認知機能の中で言語情報処理がどのように行われているかという問いがある。この問題を明らかにする上で、母語理解を対象としたこれまでの研究では、統語構造に一時的曖昧性を伴う文について実時間上の漸次的処理プロセスを解明することが目標とされてきた。例えば、While the man hunted the deer ran into the woods. という文の理解において、読み手は通常、動詞huntedに続く名詞句 the deer を見た時点でそれを動詞の直接目的語として理解する (the man hunted the deer)。

しかし、その後続く主節の動詞ranを見た時点でこの理解に矛盾が生じるため統語構造の再分析が生じ、最終的に the deer を主節の主語とする再分析が行われる。つまり、ranを読む際に生じる処理負荷は文構造の曖昧性を解消する情報が現れる以前に読み手が誤った統語構造理解を行っていた証拠として捉えられ、これにより文理解における統語構造の構築は最終的な文構造を確定する情報の入力まで保留されるのではなく、入力される情報を順次用いて行われることが示された。

このような文の漸次的処理プロセスにおいて、統語構造の曖昧性を解消する情報を受け取る以前に構築される初分析が後の文の再分析にどう影響を与えるかについて、これまで様々な文処理モデルが提案されてきた。例えば、文の統語解析において読み手は一度に一つの構造分析しか考慮しないと仮定するガーデンパス理論に代表されるシリアルモデルでは、選択可能な構造のうち最も節数が少ない句構造が選好されるという minimal attachment や、構造的な複雑さが同等の場合入力された情報は最も新しい句に付加されるという late closure などの文法的原理に則って初分析の構造が決定され、文の曖昧性が解消される情報を受け取

った時点で初めて再分析の必要性が生じ、文構造の再解釈が行われると考えられる (Frazier 1987)。

この文処理モデルによれば、誤りであると判明した初分析の解釈は文の再分析プロセスによって新しい解釈に置き換えられるため (Fodor and Inoue 1994), 棄却された初分析は再分析後の最終的な解釈には影響しないことが想定されていた。しかし最近の研究からは、ガーデンパス文の理解において再分析後に正しい解釈に行き着いた後でも初分析の誤った解釈を完全には消去できていないという事象が報告されており、このことから、ガーデンパス文のような初分析の段階で誤った解釈を強く活性化する文の処理においては、たとえ再分析により文の再解釈が完了した後でも初分析での誤った文解釈が保持されたままであることが示されている。この解釈は、人間の文構造処理が常に完全ではなく、時に部分的に誤った意味解釈を保持したまま最終的な文解釈を形成するという不完全な文構造の表象 (good-enough representations) の存在を示唆しており、統語レベルでの完全な解析を仮定する言語処理モデルに対する重要な反証となった (Ferreira 2003も参照)。

この不完全であるが意味を理解するためには十分とされる文の表象, good-enough representationsの存在を最初に報告したChristianson et al. (2001) の研究では、実験参加者は

- (1a) のような一時的な構造的曖昧性を伴う文と、
- (1b) のように構造的曖昧性を伴わない文のいずれかを理解した後に、
- (2) のような誤った初分析理解に対する質問に答えた。
 - (1) a. While Anna dressed the baby played in the crib.
 - b. While Anna dressed, the baby played in the crib.
 - (2) Did Anna dress the baby?

結果として、質問に対して誤ってyesと回答する割合が、

(1b) を読んだ後よりも (1a) を読んだ後の方が有意に高いことが示され、これにより一時的曖昧性を伴う文の処理において、たとえ文構造の再分析を行った後でも初分析の理解を完全に棄却できず、最終的に行き着いた正しい解釈と初分析時の誤った解釈の両方を保持していることが示された (Christianson et al. 2006も参照)。

一方でこの研究では、実験参加者が (1a, b) の文を読んだ後に

(2) のような初分析解釈に直接的に言及する質問をしているため、ここで得られた効果は初分析の誤った解釈が質問文によって恣意的に再活性化されたものである可能性が指摘されていた。この問題に対し、Van Gompel et al. (2006) は統語的プライミングの手法を用いることで再分析後の初分析保持の現象について検証を行った。統語的プライミングとは、特定の統語構造を経験した後では、次に続く文産出で同じ統語構造を使う確率が高くなるという文構造のレベルで起こるプライミング現象を指す (e.g., Bock 1986)。Van Gompel et al. (2006) では、構造的曖昧性を伴うプライム文 (3a) と、動詞の後のカンマによって構造的曖昧性が存在しないプライム文 (3b) のいずれかを呈示後、(4) のような未完成文を完成させる課題を参加者に行わせることで、実験参加者が直前に読んだ文構造が産出文に与えるプライミング効果を調査した。

- (3) a. While the man was visiting the children played outside. b. While the man was visiting, the children played outside.

(4) When the doctor was visiti..... 結果として、構造的曖昧性を伴う (3a) をプライム文として読んだ後の方が、構造的曖昧性を伴わない (3b) を読んだ後に比べ他動詞文を産出する確率が高いことが示された。この結果は、プライム文理解の際に初分析の段階で構築された統語構造の表象が、再分析の際に誤りであることが判明するにもかかわらず活性化されたままその後の言語使用に影響を及ぼすことを示しており、このことから、ガーデンパス文の理解において文の統語的曖昧性が解消された後も初分析の心的表象が残存していることが明らかとなった。さらに、ガーデンパス文処理の検証からは、再分析のプロセスによって引き起こされる潜在的な学習効果が後続の文理解に影響を与えているという現象が注目を集めている (Chang et al. 2006)。

この現象を実験的手法により示した一つの例として Fine et al. (2013) では、主語に続く動詞が関係節の動詞として使われる文 (5b) を実験内で繰り返し経験することが、後続文の処理にどう反映されるかを検証した。その結果、関係節構造である (5b) の文を読む際に文構造の曖昧性が解消される情報 (conducted) で生じる処理負荷 (読み時間) が、実験内で読んだ関係節構造の数に反比例して減少する統語的プライミングの効果が示された。それに対し、第一動詞が主節動詞として使われる文 (5a) ではそのようなプライミング効果は観測されなかった。このことから、文構造の学習は、関係節構造のように統語上の一時的曖昧性から初分析と再分析のプロセスが生じる文でのみ起きることが明らかとなった。

(5) a. The experienced soldiers warned about the dangers before the midnight raid.

b. The experienced soldiers warned about the dangers conducted the midnight raid. Fine et al. (2013) の結果は、読み手が予測とは異なる構造を受け取った場合、その誤った予測の間違い (エラー) を補正する結果として次に同じ構造を予測する確率が高くなることを示しており、統語構造の経験による潜在的な学習効果が次に読む文における構造の予測に反映され、結果的に後続文における処理負荷の軽減につながることを実証している。この結果は、経験に基づく文構造予測理論 (expectation-based theory) や surprisal 理論に代表される、確率に基づく予測的な文処理方略を想定する文処理モデルの考え方も合致している (Levy 2008, Hale 2001)。

これらの理論によれば、文処理においてそれぞれの語句が処理される際に、語彙情報に限らずそれまでの言語使用の経験に基づく頻度情報を利用して次に来る言語情報の予測確率が計算され、その確率に基づき実際に出現した情報を処理する際の処理負荷の大きさが定義される。これらの研究からは、統語的プライミングの現象は文構造の短期的な記憶から生じる効果ではなく、予測のエラーによる潜在的な学習を反映したものであることが明らかとなっている (Bock and Griffin 2000 も参照)。

第二言語における漸次的処理プロセス

外国語学習者が学習対象言語における文法的知識を実時間上でどのように用いて文構造の処理を行っているかについて、これまで様々な言語を母語とする実験参加者を対象に研究が行われてきた。その結果、漸次的処理という観点からは第二言語の理解においても認識された言語情報が遅延なく即時に利用されることが明らかとなる一方、母語話者と学習者の間における情報処理方略の差異については研究によって結果に相違が見られる。学習者も母語話者と同様の、つまり native-like な文処理をする結果を示した研究の例として、Roberts and Felser (

2011) は (6) のような文を用い、ギリシャ語を母語とする英語学習者を対象に自己ペース読み実験を行なった。

(6) The journalist wrote the book/the girl had amazed all the judges. その結果、最初の動詞wroteに続く名詞句が動詞の直接目的語として意味的に自然な条件 (wrote the book) の方が、不自然な条件 (wrote the girl) よりもamazedでの読み時間が長いことが示され、学習者が母語話者と同様に語の意味情報を用いて順次統語構造を形成し、その結果として初分析が誤りであることが判明した際に再分析に伴う処理負荷を生じることが明らかとなった。この研究からは、第二言語の文理解においても漸次的処理が行われていると共に、語彙の意味情報、意味的役割、意味的整合性等の言語情報が実時間の文処理においてどのように使われるかについて母語話者と学習者の間で違いがないことが示唆される (Frenck-Mestre 2002, Frenck-Mestre and Pynte 1997, Hoover and Dwivedi 1998, Juffs 1998, Juffs 2004, Juffs and Harrington 1995, William et al. 2001も参照)。その一方、動詞の語彙情報の使用や前方照応代名詞の処理については学習者に特有の結果が数多く報告されており、母語話者と学習者では統語情報の使われ方が異なることが示されている (e.g., Clahsen and Felser 2006a, 2006b, Felser and Roberts 2007, Marinis et al. 2005, Roberts et al. 2008, Nakamura et al. 2013, Jegerski et al. 2011, Sorace and Filiaci 2006)。興味深いことに、これらの結果は学習者の母語の違いや学習到達レベルに関わらず第二言語学習者という枠組みで一貫して報告されており、このことから、文法知識をオンラインの統語分析にどう用いるかという半無意識的に行われるプロセスにおいて、母語話者と学習者の間では決定的な違いがあることが示唆される (Roberts 2007)。

また、母語話者と学習者の間で統語構築に用いられる動詞情報の使われ方が異なることを示した研究の一つとしてNakamura et al. (2013) が挙げられる。この研究では日本語を母語とする成人の英語学習者を対象に、学習者がガーデンパス文を理解する際の動詞の下位範疇化情報の影響を検証した。実験結果から、日本人英語学習者は動詞の種類に関わらず自動詞と他動詞両方の文で動詞直後の名詞句を動詞の直接目的語として処理していることが示され、他動詞文でのみガーデンパス効果を生じる母語話者とは対照的に、自動詞文でも他動詞と同様に後続の名詞句を動詞の直接目的語として誤った文解釈を行っていることが示された。この結果についてNakamura et al. (2013) は第一言語獲得の分野で提唱される言語獲得モデルに基づいた解釈を提案している。過去の研究から、英語では、他動詞情報は動詞全体に適用されるカテゴリー一般的知識として保持されているのに対し、自動詞情報は個々の動詞別に語彙レベルでの学習が必要であることが指摘されている (Van Gompel et al. 2012)。

それゆえ、言語習得過程にある子供の発話ではしばしば“Don't giggle me”のように自動詞を他動詞構造で用いる過剰一般化エラー (overgeneralization errors) が観測されることが知られている (e.g., Braine and Brooks 1995)。Nakamura et al. (2013) の結果の解釈でも、これと同様に、対象言語環境にさらされる機会が少なく、語彙固有の自動詞用法を十分に獲得していない第二言語学習者の文理解において、自動詞文を読む際に他動詞構造分析を当てはめる過剰一般化エラーが起きたという可能性を提案している。

語彙固有の統語情報、特に下位範疇化情報を獲得するには個々の動詞に対する経験を蓄積する必要があるという解釈は、Tomasello (2003) による用法基盤モデル (usage-based model) の考え方と合致する。また、Pinker (1991) の

dual route modelにおいても、不規則活用をとる語彙固有の動詞形態情報の獲得は、個々の動詞の経験に基づく記憶の強化によることが指摘されている（Pinker and Prince 1988, Pinker and Prince 1994, Prasada and Pinker 1993も参照）。動詞の下位範疇化情報の知識が特定の動詞が現れる統語構造の経験により形成されるものであるならば、頻度の低い自動詞構造情報は他動詞構造情報に比べて統計的な蓄積量が小さいことが予測され、それは対象言語のインプットが少ない成人の英語学習者においてより顕著であると考えられる。それゆえ、個々の自動詞が自動詞構造で用いられる用例への接触が少ない日本人英語学習者では、語彙レベルの統計的情報として自動詞構造が蓄積される量は圧倒的に少ないと考えられ、このことが日本人英語学習者が漸次的処理において自動詞の下位範疇化情報に基づいた統語分析を行えない原因の一つである可能性が指摘できるだろう。

総合考察

本研究では第二言語学習者の構造的曖昧文理解における統語的プライミングの影響を調べるため、英語母語話者と日本人英語学習者を対象に読み実験を行い、動詞の下位範疇化情報の使用に基づく初分析と再分析の影響が後続文の処理にどう反映されるか検証を行った。その結果、まず英語母語話者のプライム文の読み時間では動詞の下位範疇化情報が初分析の時点で使われることが示され、多くの過去研究と同様に、英語母語話者の文理解では各動詞に固有の統語情報が即時に用いられ、この情報が次に来る名詞句を直接目的語として分析するか主節の主語として分析するかを決定する要因として働くことが示された。さらに、先行するプライム文において再分析が起きる条件を読んだ後では後続の文の構造的曖昧性が解消される情報での処理負荷の軽減が見られ、直前の文処理での再分析プロセスが潜在的学習効果として後続文処理に影響を与えることが示された。また、ターゲット文の構造的曖昧性が解消された後のリージョンでは先行文の初分析で誤った直接目的語分析を行った際の解釈が読み時間の増加として反映され、先行文処理における初分析保持の効果が後続文の構造的曖昧性解消後に影響を与えている可能性が示された。このことから、英語母語話者の文理解において、先行文処理時のエラーによる潜在的学習効果は後続文の構造的曖昧性が解消される時点で処理負荷の軽減として反映されることが明らかとなった。また、初分析保持の効果についてはこれまでの研究で文産出と質問文への解答でしか観測されておらず、このことから初分析保持は文全体の表象を形成するかなり遅い段階で影響を与えるために、文を読んでいる間の漸次的処理プロセスで影響が見られるかは不明であった。これについて、本実験の母語話者の読み時間からは、プライム文を読むことによる初分析保持の効果がターゲット文を読む際の再分析後の文全体の意味を構築する段階で読み時間に影響を与えている可能性が示唆された。

一方、日本人英語者の結果からは、プライム文の読み時間において動詞の下位範疇化情報に基づいた統語処理プロセスは観測されず、日本人英語学習者は自動詞条件と他動詞条件の両方で構造的曖昧性による処理負荷を生じることが示された。続くターゲット文の読み時間では、プライム文で他動詞+曖昧条件を読むことによるエラーに基づく学習効果が動詞直後のリージョンで観測された。

他動詞構造を予測したことによるエラーに基づく学習効果が他動詞条件でのみ観測されたことから、日本人英語学習者が動詞の下位範疇化情報を区別した処理を行なっていることが示された。このことから、プライム文で観測された処理負荷は自動詞と他動詞を混同していることから発生したものではなく、別

の処理プロセスから引き起こされていることが明らかとなった。他動詞文では動詞を見た時点で他動詞構造を予測し、文構造の曖昧性が解消する時点で処理負荷が発生する。それに対し、自動詞文で見られた処理負荷は他動詞構造予測によって発生したものではなく、動詞直後の名詞句を見た時点で自動詞構造への予測が棄却され他動詞構造解釈に上書きされてしまったことによって引き起こされたものであると考えられる。これにより、他動詞文では主節動詞において他動詞構造予測が誤りであると判明する時点でエラーによる学習効果が発生し、後続文の処理に影響を与えた。その一方、自動詞文の処理負荷は動詞を見た時点での他動詞構造予測から発生したものではないため、エラーによる学習効果が発生しなかった。この考察は、実験で用いられた動詞に対する日本人英語学習者の下位範疇化情報知識を調べるための文完成課題の結果からも裏付けられた。文完成課題を行なった結果、日本人英語学習者は個々の動詞について正しい下位範疇化情報知識を持っていることが示された一方で、動詞と名詞句が続けて呈示された場合には、自動詞でも直後の名詞句を動詞の直接目的語として分析し誤った他動詞構造で用いやすいことが明らかとなった。これにより、日本人英語学習者は動詞と名詞句が続けて入力された場合、学習者が持つ動詞に対する下位範疇化情報知識の中で自動詞に分類される動詞についても、より頻度の高い他動詞構造を適用してしまうことが示された。さらに、自動詞用法と他動詞用法の両方で文を完成させることが可能な他動詞条件の未完成文についても他動詞構造の文が多く産出され、日本人英語学習者の他動詞用法に対する強い選好性が明らかとなった。

第二言語の理解において学習者の第一言語がどのように影響するかという問題は第二言語習得分野で問われる中心的な問題の一つであり、本研究で示された日本人英語学習者に特徴的な文処理方略を解釈する上でも日本語の文処理モデルの関与を検討する必要があるだろう。伝統的な第二言語習得研究においては第一言語における言語特性が学習言語の習得に影響することが示される一方（Gass 1981, およびレビュー論文としてLuk and Shirai 2009を参照）、漸次的処理における言語情報の影響を調べた研究では第一言語で使われる文処理方略がそのまま学習言語の文理解に当てはめられるという直接的な言語転移を示したものはむしろ少ない。さらに、主要部前置型言語である英語とは対比的に、日本語では動詞が文末まで現れないため動詞情報を文の統語構造予測に用いることができないという決定的な違いがある。もしもこの原則が日本語を母語とする学習者の英語理解にそのまま転移するのであれば、日本人英語学習者は文構造処理において動詞の語彙情報に依存しないことが予測され、それに従い下位範疇化情報を含む語彙情報は正確に獲得されない可能性が高いだろう。

しかしながら、本実験の結果では文完成課題において日本人英語学習者が各動詞に対して正しい下位範疇化情報を保持していることが示された。さらに、読み実験で自動詞でも処理負荷が生じるのは、自動詞と他動詞の区別がついていないからではなく、自動詞を見た時点での自動詞構造への予測が動詞に続く名詞句の入力によって破棄され、他動詞構造解釈へと上書きされるためであることが示された。これらの結果は、日本人英語学習者が英語を理解する際に母語では用いない動詞情報を使っていることを示しており、日本語処理時とは別の解析装置が想定されている可能性を示唆する。

その一方で、日本人英語学習者が動詞直後の名詞句を受け取る際に自動詞構造への予測を他動詞構造解釈に変えてしまう原因としては、日本語におけるヲ格をとる名詞句の処理方略が影響している可能性は否定できない。日本語では

ヲ格をとる名詞句のあとに動詞が来た場合、名詞を動詞句内の目的語として即時に意味役割を割り当てる傾向があることが明らかとなっている (Nakamura and Miyamoto 2013)。さらに別の先行研究では、「小学生がシャンパンを持っているサラリーマンを見つめた」のような関係節文の理解において、「小学生」を主語とした主節の目的語として次の名詞句を想定するために、「シャンパンを」が入力された時点で意味的齟齬を原因とする処理困難が生じることが示されている (Arai et al. 2014, Nakamura and Arai 2016, Nakamura et al. 2012)。これは、日本語理解において主語の後にヲ格をとる名詞句が現れた場合、その時点でその次に現れる動詞が想起され、名詞句をその動詞句内の目的語として分析していることを示している。

それゆえ日本人英語学習者が英語を読む際の統語理解では日本語使用時の処理方略が影響し、目的語が現れると個々の動詞の下位範疇化情報に関わらず自動的に動詞構造を構築するという言語転移の可能性があることは否めない。

また、過去研究の中にはワーキングメモリの容量がガーデンパス効果の大きさに影響することを示したものがあり (e.g., Christianson et al. 2006)、本研究においてもワーキングメモリの容量の違いが英語母語話者と日本人英語学習者の差に影響した可能性が指摘される。しかしながら、英語母語話者と日本人英語学習者の両方でガーデンパス効果の大きさについて分析した結果 (プライム文 Region 4 の他動詞条件の読み時間における実験間の比較)、母語話者と日本人英語学習者の間では読みのスピードに違いがある一方で、ガーデンパス効果の大きさについては差がないことが示された (脚注1参照)。

このことから、本研究の対象となった英語母語話者と日本人英語学習者の間ではガーデンパス効果の大きさに反映されるような明らかなワーキングメモリの差はないと言うことができ、本研究で観測された母語話者と英語学習者の読み時間の違いはワーキングメモリの容量の差によるものではなく、日本人英語学習者に特徴的な文処理方略を反映したものであると考えられる。

本研究の結果から、日本人英語学習者も母語話者と同様に動詞情報を用いた統語構造予測を行い、予測エラーの大きさが潜在的な学習効果として後続の文理解に影響を与えることが明らかとなった。さらに重要なことに、母語話者と日本人英語学習者ではエラーに基づく学習効果が観測されるリージョンが異なり、潜在的な学習から引き起こされるプライミング効果の影響に違いがある可能性が示された。Chang et al. (2006) によるエラーに基づく学習モデルを含め、各語句における予測確率から処理負荷の大きさが決定されることを想定する文処理モデルでは、次に続く情報への予測は過去の言語使用経験で蓄積された頻度情報から計算されると考えられている。

これに基づくと、対象言語のインプットが母語話者よりも少ない学習者は各動詞に対する文構造情報の蓄積が少なく、それゆえ特定の動詞に対する一回の再解釈の経験が母語話者よりも強く影響すると考えられる。本実験において、他動詞構造に対する経験の蓄積が母語話者に比べて少ない日本人英語学習者では、他動詞が自動詞構造で使われた経験の影響が母語話者よりも大きく、これによりエラーに基づく学習効果が母語話者と学習者では後続文の異なるリージョンで観測され流という結果となった。これらの結果は、第二言語学習者においても予測に基づくエラーへの補正とそれに伴う学習効果が見られることを示すと同時に

、文構造の予測が過去の言語使用の経験から蓄積された情報に基づいて計算されることを想定する文理解モデルに対する重要な証拠となった。

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A Teacher Friendly Process for Evaluating and Selecting ESL/EFL Coursebooks

Jon Shave

Alpha Beta Piccadilly, Bolzano, Italy

This article demonstrates a simple and effective coursebook evaluation process suitable for all teaching professionals regardless of workload or experience. Existing evaluation methods (Cunningsworth, 1995; McGrath 2002 etc) often require considerable time and experience for effective use. An authentic example is used to model this simple and effective analysis process which examines the teaching situation and coursebook characteristics in order to enable appropriate selection and effective use of materials.

Introduction

This article is intended to help language teachers and departmental heads make suitable decisions when choosing a coursebook. As teachers, we know that selection of a suitable coursebook is vital, as coursebooks can provide a structure from which the process of language learning can begin (O'Neill, 1982: 110-111). A logical decision-making process rather than purely instinctive selection ensures a reliable decision is made without entering into impractical and lengthy evaluation research which may not be possible for many teachers due to time constraints or lack of experience, as well as the number of variables involved (Cunningsworth, 1995: 5).

In this article, an efficient evaluation process is demonstrated in order to provide an example which may be helpful to other teaching professionals. The process can be used to evaluate several coursebooks comparatively (as in this example) for selection purposes or with individual coursebooks in order to maximize effective teaching and learning. The first step in the selection process involves analyzing (or reanalyzing) the situation in which the coursebooks will be used, and comparing this information with the intended teaching/learning situation as stated by the publishers. The next stage analyzes the methodology and syllabus of the materials. Next, using selected comparable units, the main teaching points are identified and strengths and weaknesses evaluated. A single selected exercise can then be trialled with the learners to gain further insight.

Step 1: Who Will Use the Coursebook? In What Situation?

As materials can only be meaningfully evaluated in relation to their intended teaching situation (Richards, 2001: 256), the first stage of the evaluation involves assessing (or reassessing) the unique situation in which the materials will be used. In order to gather information on the specific learning context, a comprehensive, yet lengthy, published questionnaire which required a high level of theoretical knowledge (Cunningsworth, 1995: 6) was adapted and condensed into two equally important and codependent sets of questions.

The Learning/Teaching Situation

What are the overall aims of the English programme? What are the specific objectives for this course? Is there a detailed syllabus or will the coursebook provide the syllabus? How long is the course? How many learners are there? What resources are available in the class? Will progress be measured? How?

The Learners and Teacher

How old are the learners and what is their level of English? Are they all the same age and level? What type of language learning experience, if any, do they have? What do they expect from the classes? How do they like to learn? Are they motivated? What is their

motivation? What are their interests and values? What is the role, experience and teaching style of the teacher? Are they free to adapt materials?

All teaching/learning situations are unique (McGrath, 2002: 10) and the above questions provide data relevant to the specific investigation in question (ibid. 25-27). No pre-prepared set of questions will be completely suited to a real classroom (Cunningsworth, 1996: 5). For this reason, questions can and should be revised to meet the needs of the specific evaluation in order to best identify the actual teaching/learning situation.

In the example situation the following characteristics were identified:

- Adult learners aged 50+
- Intermediate to Upper Intermediate level.
- Learning English for social personal motivation rather than academic or business reasons.
- Learners tend towards Authority Oriented (they prefer the teacher to explain things) and Concrete Learning (they prefer to play games and work in pairs) styles (Nunan, 1999: 57).
- Group 11 students, 100 minutes per week
- Experienced teacher. Free to adapt materials.

Following analysis of the actual learning situation, a comparison can be made with the intended learner/teaching situation as stated by the publishers. This is often found in the introduction of the teacher's book or in the coursebook. A summary of the intended learner/teaching situations as stated by the publishers in the example materials is shown below:

Coursebook Y (the old/existing coursebook)

- For use by adults and young adults
- Provides fun user-centred lessons
- Prepares learners to begin FCE course

Coursebook X (the new/replacement coursebook)

- For use by adults and young adults
- Uses a communicative approach to teaching
- Is intended to cover B2 level of the Common European Framework

In our example we see that the coursebooks are suitable in terms of learner age, level and desire for a communicative learning situation. Points of divergence include; preparation for FCE which is not the course aim, and an absence of reference to the social aspect of the learning situation. Following the first stage of our evaluation we can see that the intended learning situation in both coursebooks is compatible with the actual situation, and we are already starting to get an idea of what areas of the coursebook might need to be adapted.

Step 2: Analysis of the Methodology and Syllabus

After identifying the learning situation, we can begin to think about what type of methodology might be suitable. Inexperienced teachers may lack extensive knowledge of methodological theory but can still consider what type of teaching is appropriate. Possibilities include a traditional teacher centred methodology, a communicative approach or task based learning. Whether a structural, functional or other type of syllabus is suitable can also be considered. The most appropriate methodology and syllabus will depend on the group.

A starting point for identification of methodology might be claims made in the teacher's book. The teacher can then look in the coursebook in an attempt to verify these claims (Cunningsworth, 1995: 97-108). In the case of the example, the coursebooks both claimed to use a communicative approach, which, although it cannot be clearly defined as

a unified methodology, can be characterized by authenticity, real world simulation and meaningful tasks (Brown, 2001: 39). Analysis showed that not only was language usage taught, but was also combined with varying degrees of opportunity for use, which does imply perspectives based on communicative methodology (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 123). However, the unit structures observed in both coursebooks implied a more traditional methodology.

In order to analyse the syllabus, a simple list of the sequencing of language items or uses can be made. Both coursebooks devoted each unit to the presentation of one or (a small selection) of grammatical structures, which were sequenced according to complexity, learnability and usefulness, which implies a traditional structural influence to syllabus design (Cunningsworth, 1995: 55). The sequencing was arranged reflecting a common 'simple to complex' pattern (Richards: 2001, 150). The courses covered structures which upper intermediate level students would be familiar with, such as past simple and continuous, and progressed to less frequently occurring, more complex or more difficult to learn structures. This sequencing of units determined by linguistic complexity is a characteristic typically associated with an Audio-Lingual methodology (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 67).

The second step has revealed through observation that Coursebook X and Coursebook Y tend towards more traditional types of methodology and syllabi. Judgment can now begin to be made as to whether this is appropriate for the group.

Step 3: A Closer Look at Individual Units

Having established the needs of the learners and the methodologies of the coursebooks, open and unbiased closer analysis of the materials is now beneficial. In this stage, single units are evaluated, as how a unit presents language can indicate the strengths and weaknesses of coursebooks. However, remember that one unit may not reflect the whole coursebook (Cunningsworth, 1995: 2). Following analysis the teacher can again reflect upon which coursebook seems most appropriate.

In the case of this example, comparable units presenting the narrative tenses were selected, as an accurate and increasingly fluent use of the narrative tenses represents the transition from Threshold to Independent user, (Association of Language Teachers in Europe, 2002: 6-10). The selection of unit depends on the unique situation and should be decided by the evaluating teacher.

In the Contents section of the students' book, Coursebook Y lists the following areas of language covered in five student book pages, plus two extra pages for vocabulary and writing, two additional photocopiable activities and three workbook pages.

Coursebook Y Main Teaching Points

- Narrative tenses and past perfect continuous
- Common verbs which are often confused
- Pronunciation of regular and irregular past tenses
- Telling an anecdote
- Reading mini sagas and authentic materials in the form of newspaper articles
- Writing a story (short and long)

Coursebook X Main Teaching Points

- Narrative tenses and past perfect continuous
- Phrasal verbs
- Reading and listening to urban myths
- Telling stories in the form of urban myths

In summary, the main teaching points of the units are grammatically similar although in terms of vocabulary, the units each cover different areas. Coursebook Y appears to be more suitable for the learners in this example.

Step 4: Evaluation Strengths and Weaknesses of each Unit

In this stage, a subjective evaluation of the strengths and weakness of the coursebooks is made. In order to systematically evaluate strengths and weaknesses, a process of selecting and rating criteria can be used (McGrath, 2002: 56). Use of some academic evaluation techniques may require extensive experience or post graduate theoretical knowledge. In order to make the process suitable for all professionals, a more concise list of criteria was developed. Which criteria to assess depends on the individual situation. A rating system using a simple numerical score or judgement of suitable (S) or not suitable (NS) can be used depending on time constraints. The criteria selected were:

Aims and Approaches

Correspondence between coursebook and course aims, text adaptability, design and organization, the inclusion of structural and functional aspects, attention to language recycling and user-friendliness were all rated.

Language Content

The authenticity of materials, coverage of suitable language, range of vocabulary, attention to pronunciation, attention to language above sentence level (social norms etc), and attention to language styles and moods were rated.

Skills

The degree of coverage of all four skills was rated, as was integration of skills work and balance of skills practised. The suitability of reading, listening, writing and speaking activities was assessed.

Topic:

The suitability of topics in terms of age, culture and social issues was rated, along with the adaptability and sophistication of topic and inclusion of humour.

Methodology

The appropriateness of approach, degree of student centredness, suitability for presenting and practising language, the degree of structural aspect to grammar presentation, attention to study skills and learner autonomy were rated.

The example evaluation indicated that no unit is more suitable in all categories, and for some criteria, such as methodology, the units show little variation. The language content is slightly more suitable in Coursebook Y. Skills are a strength of Coursebook X

Step 5: Trialling

If the specific situation allows, in-depth scrutiny of individual exercises can also provide valuable insights (Cunningsworth, 1995: 2). This process involves trialling comparable exercises with the learners. Inclusion of learners in material evaluation can encourage ownership of the resulting decisions (Chambers, 1997: 29). Furthermore, learners may provide insights which teachers have neglected to consider. In this example, feedback after trialling indicated that in contrast to the teachers' opinion, the replacement text was not viewed negatively by learners.

Step 6: Selection

Having completed the above process, which should be achievable by most professional teachers despite differences in experience or busy schedules, the involved parties can now make a selection of an appropriate coursebook, or, if the evaluation is of only one coursebook, decisions based on the evaluation can be made as to the best way to use the material.

In the case of the example we can conclude that both coursebooks display desirable characteristics and areas of weakness. Following the systematic example the strengths and weaknesses of the replacement coursebook were better understood causing them to reconsider the initial negative opinions of the replacement (which may have been due to reluctance to change), allowing teaching staff to use the new material more

effectively to the benefit and increased satisfaction of teachers and learners. Later feedback from the learners expressed satisfaction with new text.

Conclusions

Using an authentic example situation, this article has demonstrated a process which inexperienced and/or busy teachers can use to evaluate coursebooks, individually or comparatively, for the purpose of either selection or maximizing effective use. As a teacher, school manager or Director of Studies, it is advantageous to be able to select appropriately from available materials, be creative and modify and supplement coursebooks (Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) in Richards, 2001: 260). Furthermore, the process of evaluation itself can increase understanding of the factors involved in evaluation and the advantages of systemized analysis and evaluation (Ellis, 1997b: 41).

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Advantages and Disadvantages of ESL Course Books

Peter Tze-Ming Chou

Ursuline College of Languages, Kaohsiung, Taiwan

This article examines the advantages and disadvantages of ESL course books and what English teachers can do to improve their lessons. The use of course books in the ESL classroom is very common because the course books have the advantages of being visually appealing, easy for the teacher to prepare, and the activities fits well into the timetable. However, from the researcher's own teaching experience, there are several problems and issues with the course books such as uninteresting topics, repetitive activities, and not enough language exposure. This in terms may affect the student's learning attitude and motivation. It was suggested that if ESL course books are to be used, it is necessary for the teacher to prepare and develop other activities, especially extensive reading to keep the classroom atmosphere more interesting and the students more interested in what they are learning.

Introduction

There are many different kinds of English as a Second Language (ESL) course books that are designed for students of all levels and ages. Therefore, the process of choosing the right course book for use in the classroom, especially at the college level, is a daunting task. In addition, what we choose for our classrooms often shapes the syllabi, and sometimes even the entire language program (Angell, DuBravac and Gonglewski, 2008; Byrnes, 1988). There are many reasons why English teachers choose to use ESL course books in the classroom. Sometimes it is based on our impressions and expectations of what teaching materials should look like. Other reasons might be that the course books are visually appealing, easy for the teacher to prepare, and the activities fits well into the timetable (Angell et al., 2008). However, all course books should be chosen based on its educational values and whether or not it meets the program objectives. Most importantly, students should learn something beyond just simple practices of ABC's. According to Cheung and Wong (2002), the major premise of an academic curriculum should aim at developing students' intellectual abilities in subject areas that are most worthy of study. This means that the curriculum should provide intrinsically rewarding experiences for the students while developing their affective and cognitive domain. Schwartz (2006) mentioned that a good curriculum is not only designed for the students, it is also designed for the teachers as well. In other words, a good curriculum not only educates the student, but teachers can also teach something of value to the students. Therefore, what could teachers do to improve their courses when they are restricted by the ESL course book assigned to them by the administration?

Advantages of Course books

From the school administration and some teacher's point of view, there are several advantages for basing the curriculum on a series of ESL course books. First, the course books have a clearly identified set of achievement objectives which include what the learners are expected to be able to do and what to expect next. These ready-made syllabi contain carefully planned and balanced selection of language content that can be easily followed by teachers and students (Kayapinar, 2009). Second, when the teachers are teaching each unit in the course books, there is a consistency in the topics and genres in the four skills area (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). This allows for greater autonomy in the learning process. In addition, many inexperienced teachers may find ESL

course books to be useful and practical because the ready-made activities and lessons are easy for the teacher to prepare. In many of the ESL course books, the designers even have prepared achievement tests for each units of study and a teacher's manual to guide the teacher in their instruction. Finally, ESL course books are the cheapest and most convenient ways of providing learning materials to each student (Kayapinar, 2009). All of these reasons make using course books a very popular choice in the English learning curriculum.

Potential Problems

From the researcher's own experiences, there are a number of issues to consider when using ESL course books. First, most course books contain a lot of activities where students do "questions and answers". After a few lessons, many students may find the learning process boring and uninteresting. In addition, the reading selections in the ESL course books are often quite short and they often fail to present appropriate and realistic language models as well as fostering cultural understanding (Kayapinar, 2009). The lack of challenging reading materials could also slow the students' language development creating a plateau effect.

The second issue that teachers should consider is student motivation. Most college students expect their English courses to be something different from their high school English classes. So when we give them course books that are similarly designed as their past learning materials, the students may quickly lose their interest and motivation to study. This is because the similarities in the ESL course books may cause the students to feel bored due to the "sameness" or "repetitiveness" of the lessons and activities. This is a major problem because the English courses are designed around using a single course book for the whole academic year. According to Harmer (2007), it may be relatively easy for students to be extrinsically motivated; however, the challenge is sustaining that motivation. Although motivation can be sustained through varied class activities, if the content of the course book is uninteresting and repetitive, then sustaining the motivation will be problematic for the teacher no matter how hard they try.

Finally, although most ESL course books are well organized with many different kinds of activities, however, they do not provide enough details in other aspects of language study. A good example would be in the study of grammar. The grammar section in each unit of the course book usually does not provide enough explanation or practice questions. Relying on the course book to provide the students with adequate knowledge of grammar would not be enough, especially when a teacher spends between two to three weeks to cover a single unit of the course book. This means that in a typical semester, students only receive between four to six different types of grammar instruction, a number far behind from what they could have been studying if the students had a grammar textbook where they can study a different unit every week with lots of practice activities.

Possible Solutions

The following suggestions are proposed to make any English program that relies on ESL course books more effective. First, if an ESL course book is to be used, outside reading materials will need to be added to the curriculum. This would greatly increase and develop the student's language ability. In language learning, reading is considered one of the most important lessons for the learner. Researches in extensive reading have shown many beneficial effects on students. Nation (2001) claimed that when learners read, they not only learn new words, but they can also develop their syntactic knowledge as well as general knowledge of the world. Other recent studies have also shown that students who participated in extensive reading increased gains in the areas of vocabulary knowledge (Hirsch, 2003; Horst, 2005) as well as in reading comprehension and reading fluency (Hirsch, 2003; Iwahori, 2008; Sheu, 2003). One possible explanation for the increase is that students acquire new words incidentally through reading thousands and thousands of

words every day. Learning vocabulary this way may be considered more effective than rote memorization because through reading interesting texts, students learn new vocabulary and review old ones. By increasing the amount of reading, especially reading for pleasure, it can increase both vocabulary knowledge and reading rate, both of which are an important part of reading comprehension (Martin- Chang and Gould, 2008).

Outside reading materials could also enhance student motivation especially if they find the reading passages from the course book too easy or uninteresting. After all, the students who are using these ESL course books are young adults and they should be gaining knowledge from their readings, not just coming to class to practice English. With the use of outside reading materials, the teacher can also design many different activities for the classroom. For example, if the class is reading a short story, the teacher can use class discussions as a form of conversation practice. Teachers can also have students do different kinds of presentations based on their readings. These activities would be more challenging for the students than the question and answer activities found in most ESL course books.

Another suggestion is to add grammar studies to the language program. A grammar textbook contains detailed explanation of grammar rules and offers more practice questions than those found in a typical course book. The teacher can plan and devote part of the class time each week to teaching new grammar rules. This would not only help with student's writing, but also in other areas as well such as speaking. The sooner we can get our students to use more correct English, the more confidence they will have. All of the activities above would make the classroom more interesting in which the students are more involved with the activities rather than just listening to the teacher and doing questions and answers from the course book.

Conclusion

Using course books has its share of benefits and advantages such as having a well organized content with a consistency in the topics and genres for the four skill area (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Teachers who adopt a course book may also find it easier to teach since most of the preparation, including the types of activities, audios and in some cases, achievement tests, are already done by the publisher. This would be a great help to those inexperienced teachers who are just getting started into teaching. However, nothing in the world is perfect and teachers need to somehow solve the issues and problems that may come with ESL course books. These issues and problems may include finding ways to motivate students and teaching students academic skills not found in the course books. In this sense, the teacher's job is not as easy as it seems. Many hours of planning and developing other activities are still required, but these planning and development will benefit both the student and the teacher by making the classroom activities more fun, more interesting, and result in more learning.

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Numerically Assessing Young ESL/EFL Learners Without Tests

James Abela
University of Leeds, Leeds, United Kingdom

This article shows ESL teachers how they can quickly turn simple observations into information that is easy to compare, analyse and share with parents.

Introduction

Parents would like as much information on their child as possible and this is especially true when they are paying for English lessons. Furthermore they want to see clear improvements and hard evidence of those improvements. However for young learners tests can be very intimidating and in some cases are only being done, because the teacher does not have a better system in place for assessing students. This article will show you, step by step, how to take simple observations and turn them into quantified information. Very few parents are likely to argue with hard figures especially when they are presented in a graphical form.

From Observation to Numbers

A test is easy to quantify, because there is a mark and that mark can then be entered into a system. For example the 44 common sounds that English use in the International Phonic Alphabet can simply be measured on a 0 to 44 scale. (O' Connor 1980)

However that does not tell the whole story and a large part of assessment in younger learners is their attitude to learning and the social skills that they learn. For example, one goal in the Early Learning Framework is to, "Enjoy listening to and using spoken and written language, and readily turn to it in their play and learning." (UK Govt: DSCF 2008)

The first step is to turn this goal into an assessment of some kind. In this case observation might be appropriate and so the teacher would listen to the dialogue that children use in play and learning.

The second step is to turn this into a scale with:

- 0 No new vocabulary used,
- 1 very little vocabulary used,
- 2 some new vocabulary used,
- 3 good use of new vocabulary and
- 4 excellent use of new vocabulary.

Other scales might include those for motivation or interest:

- 0 Shows no interest,
- 1 Shows a little interest,
- 2 shows some interest,
- 3 shows good interest and
- 4 shows a lot of interest.

The advantage of a 0 to 4 scale is that it can also be quickly be turned into grades with, 0 being Ungraded, 1 being D, 2 C, 3 B and 4 A. You can also make half grades with the use of the decimal point so 3.5 could be a B+ etc.

These two sets of scales could be applied to a wide range of skills and really show to parents that you have measured progress.

From Numbers to Information

Once the scales have been decided then you can either decide to keep them in a manual mark book, which in itself would allow you to quickly compile reports for parents

or put it into a spreadsheet such as Microsoft Excel or the free Open Office Calc. The advantage of a spreadsheet is that you can quickly generate individual reports and show the information graphically.

There are a number of useful functions in Excel that once learnt will enable you to quickly identify children falling behind and those who are getting ahead of the class.

One of the most useful functions and least used is conditional formatting. This allows you to change the colour of the cell dependent on number put in. In Excel 2007 this can be found in the home ribbon and there are a number of ready made schemes to use.

Also you can create averages that allow you to see how the class is doing as whole. Excel uses the mean average as the default average, but do not forget the mode average which allows you to know how the majority of the class are doing. It is also good to use MAX and MIN to find out the highest and lowest scores at a glance.

What is most important for parents is to be able to see how their child has improved and line graphs are an invaluable tool to do this and once you have the information in a spreadsheet, a graph can be generated in a few clicks of the mouse. There are other useful functions such as VLOOKUP, which allows you to change numbers back into grades.

If you are not familiar with spreadsheets, then here is a ready made spreadsheet template with all of the formulae for 20 students in Excel 2007 ([grading.xls](#) 20KB) and Open Office Calc. ([grading.ots](#) 60KB) If you have more than 20 students, just use two sheets.

Conclusion

People have traditionally divided science and humanities, but by taking this approach we can take advantage of a scientific numeric approach without significantly compromising on qualitative assessment. In essence this approach quantifies the unquantifiable with excellent benefits for teachers, parents and centre managers alike.

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Teaching Using Google

Claudio de Paiva Franco
UFRJ / Colégio Pedro II, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

This article offers teachers a brief overview of some Google applications and resources, which may be incorporated into teaching, whether in face to face, hybrid or online contexts. The paper also provides examples of how to utilize Google services and suggests some classroom activities to be implemented.

Introduction

Google is a very popular search engine on the Web. This company has built a reputable name in the market by improving the quality of search results and over time has launched online tools such as a translator (<http://translate.google.com>), a blog constructor (www.blogger.com) and a web browser (www.google.com/chrome). What few people may know, however, is that Google has made tools available for educational purposes. Google for Educators (www.google.com/educators) offers applications to be used in the classroom, classroom activities, posters, lesson plans, tips, videos, a discussion group and other resources to support teachers. A selection of relevant Google tools as well as useful ideas for using them in the classroom are presented in this article.

Google Custom Search

It is possible to customize your search with Google Custom Search (GCS) (<http://www.google.com/cse>) by creating a search engine to display on your website. Designed to tailor to your needs, this tool enables you to include specific websites, providing your students with search results you regard as most significant and avoiding unexpected content. In other words, GCS refines your search once you can determine which websites will be displayed on the results page.

The next picture is a results page from a search engine created with GCS – Reading in English – whose objective is to offer EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners material on reading. In this example, the results for the query “tips” are ranked from preselected websites.

If you teach young learners and they are being introduced to the Internet, this customized search will be a major time-saver for your classes as the students will be focused on the websites you included, not to mention that the search is improved when inappropriate webpages (with spam, pornography, ads) are left out. However, if you would like your learners to gain a more thorough web search experience, you may set your engine to search the entire web. This option lists the results with greater emphasis on the websites you select.

Google offers two editions of Custom Search: standard and business. The standard edition is free of charge and allows you to customize the look of your search and host the search box and results on your website. This edition shows ads along the search results, but they can be disabled since you are creating a search engine for educational purposes, i.e. for a nonprofit organization, university or educational institution. For the business edition there is a charge and it comes with additional options. Even though you opt for the standard edition of GCS, you must have a Google account to create your search engine.

Google Scholar

This search engine (<http://scholar.google.com>) provides an academic, scholarly search with a broad scope of sources from around the world. It is feasible to search from articles, theses, books, abstracts or court opinions from different subject areas and from a wide range of academic publishers, professionals and universities. Teachers may find Google Scholar useful to help learners search for trustworthy content (at least less

inaccurate and misleading information) on the web as it gives access to reputable webpages and reliable top-level domains - e.g. educational websites (.edu), U.S governmental/non-military websites (.gov), U.S. nonprofit organizations (.org) - and usually provides works in printable file formats like PDF and DOC files.

Google Scholar ranks its documents for researchers, providing the author, the date of publication, as well as how often it has been cited in other scholarly literature. Results marked as citation are papers not retrieved online, but may help researchers find relevant information such as the complete reference for a document which is not available online yet.

For a more accurate search, it is also possible to specify the year in which articles were published or, should you choose the advanced scholar search, articles can be traced by author. In the same way as with the traditional Google search engine, Scholar does not require a Google account to be utilized.

Google Docs

Google Docs (<http://docs.google.com>) is a web-based word processing, spreadsheet and presentation program that enables the creation of documents, spreadsheets and presentations. You can also create web-based surveys and display them on your blog or educational website in order to gather information from your students. Apart from being able to create basic documents and upload most popular file formats (e.g. DOC, RTF, XLS, PPT), you can instantly share your files with your students or other teachers. They can view and edit the documents in real time, which means you can work collaboratively at a rapid pace. There is an on-screen chat window available that shows who changed what, and when. The people you invite to be collaborators may add information, edit the layout and make several revisions to the document any time, from anywhere. All contributors, however, must have Google accounts.

As group collaboration seems to be crucial in facilitating writing as a process, Google Docs can be really helpful in serving this purpose. It not only facilitates process writing by encouraging students to work together on a document, but also makes it possible to receive instant feedback from colleagues and the teacher. Another advantage is that you do not need any additional software on your computer to access the documents. Any computer connected to the Internet allows participants to effortlessly have access and save documents for free. Documents can be published to the entire world, a few people or even be posted to a website.

Keeping an electronic student's diary, building a portfolio, sharing the course agenda, completing writing assignments and comparing experiments online are just some examples of what could be done with Google Docs. For more ideas on how to build online documents, the Google for Educators site (www.google.com/educators) offers teacher-submitted docs and ready-to-use templates. These include class activities and lesson plans organized according to the grade and school subject.

Google Groups

Google Groups (<http://groups.google.com>) is a free, online service that allows the formation of discussion groups. Interaction among group members is facilitated as they can communicate without difficulty and effectively via Web or email and share files. Google Groups are suitable for extending classroom discussion online, can be used as a component of an online course or deliver an entire web-based course, where participants conduct debates and exchange ideas. Additionally, teachers can make classroom materials and online resources available to students.

If you are a teacher and would like to take part in a discussion group to share ideas with fellow educators, you may join the Google for Educators Discussion Group (<http://groups.google.com/group/google-for-educators>). This group attempts to build an online community of educators where members ask questions about education, submit

lesson plans, teaching resources, and classroom activities. It is compulsory to have a Google account in order to participate in the Google Groups service.

Google News

Google News (<http://news.google.com>) allows you to have access to news from a wide variety of sources in a single place, as well as personalize your news page to see what interests you most. It is also possible to stay tuned for the news and have them sent directly to your email. Teachers may encourage students to produce their own newspaper. Once you choose to personalize a news page, custom sections can be added with your keywords. Students could compare and contrast their views on daily or weekly news items.

Google Reader

Google Reader (<http://reader.google.com>) makes it easy to keep up with your favorite webpages and blogs. The service constantly checks for updates from selected websites and shows the new content in a single place to be read, sorted, and shared. Teachers and students can read items shared by one another and also make notes on the news articles.

Google Translate

Google Translate (<http://translate.google.com>) is a very practical online translator for foreign language students. One of its latest improvements enables users to contribute a more appropriate translation, as we can see in the following figure.

Google Buzz

Google Buzz (<http://buzz.google.com>) allows sharing a wide range of documents (e.g. texts, videos, pictures) with your colleagues or publicly. You can make posts and get comments on your posts. If you share a blog post in Google Reader, it automatically is added to Google Buzz. Teachers and students may find it quite easy to share content online if they are Gmail users. Buzz requires a Gmail account and is available for mobiles as well.

References

- Google Blogger: <http://www.blogger.com>
- Google Buzz: <http://buzz.google.com>
- Google Chrome: <http://google.com/chrome>
- Google Custom Search: <http://www.google.com/cse>
- Google Docs: <http://docs.google.com>
- Google for Educators: <http://www.google.com/educators>
- Google for Educators Discussion Group: <http://groups.google.com/group/google-for-educators>
- Google Groups: <http://groups.google.com>
- Google News: <http://news.google.com>
- Google Scholar: <http://scholar.google.com>
- Google Translator: <http://translate.google.com>

Using 'Text' to Promote Communicative Language Learning

Oliver Dammacco
Salalah College of Technology, Salalah, Oman

This article introduces 1) the necessary elements for the successful execution of a text-based task and 2) focuses attention on ways to manipulate text in order to facilitate a learner-centred communicative flow. The author believes it would be useful to adopt the definitions for task and activity, as set out by Vigotsky (1962). The term task we will define as the teacher's intended framework for an activity, in which learners develop semi-autonomously (i.e. with external parameters/goals). Think of it this way: you tell a group of children to play a game only in the little park outside - not beyond that boundary. They must come back in within thirty minutes, without a trace of mud on their clothes - a tangible but unlikely goal!

Introduction

The use of 'text' as a channel for communication may seem rather dry and demotivational. While it is important to provide a range of materials, including colourful pictures, photos (particularly from authentic news stock), 'text' is rich input that can be manipulated and serve as a springboard for highly communicative tasks. However, it is important to remember that tasks must include an overriding purpose (goal) in order to create a motive or need for the learners to communicate. Karpova (1999), Willis & Willis (1996) and Rooney (2000), point out that more traditional theories of language based on Structural-Functional approaches, rely heavily on activities, which result in the abstract practice of target language without purpose, without meaning for the learner. To this end, learners are restricted in their own linguistic resourcefulness and thus evaluated according to tight parameters of language form (as set out by the teacher). It is important to remember that the goals set allow the learners certain (creative) manoeuvrability, with some emphasis on meaning. This is more likely to result in greater motivation.

Creating Text-based Tasks

In the development and successful execution of tasks, consider the following points:

1) **Learner Needs** - based on your experience, your needs analysis (provided by your learners) and your overall lesson objective(s). Although you may have a large group, consider also learners who stand out, in terms of being particularly strong and particularly weak communicators. (See point 6)

2) **Input** - this is the material (text and possibly images) we select according to learners' general level, interest and /or major and overall needs. What skills should we focus on? We may be gearing towards English for General Purposes, English for Special Purposes, etc.

3) **Task Type** - A description of the activity and goal: now we need to develop a task from our input that we feel will address the learner needs, more specifically e.g. skimming, scanning techniques etc. What modifications need to be made for e.g. individual learner roles? (See point 6)

4) **Goal/Purpose** - This must be clear in our minds, and in the minds of the learners during set-up. The teacher needs to be mindful in his/her instructions before shifting the 'ownership' and conduct of the task onto the learners. Time constraints, organization of material, justification of choices are examples of goals.

5) **Task Link** – This is probably the most difficult consideration. The task does not exist in isolation and functions as a component in the overall lesson objective(s). What precedes this task? What follows? Why?

6) **Learner Organization and Roles** – What are the groupings? Who is the ‘leader’? Who are the ‘followers’? If a learner has weak listening skills, we might consider their role as note taker/observer/reporter.

Choosing and Modifying a Text (Input)

The first concern is the learners’ level; when dealing with e.g. false beginners we must consider what is realistically achievable in using ‘text’ as our input. The content should reflect learner needs but is likely to be less authentic i.e. adapted to focus on specific language forms (e.g. adjectives) and be extremely short in length – probably no more than 10 lines. Another idea with lower-level learners might be to have them complete rather than produce information. However, one shouldn’t rule out the use of authentic texts all together. Consider the rich input of real menus, travel pamphlets, recipes, etc. Dialogues or monologues (e.g. from a film) may be appropriate if the content reflects learner needs, results in a tangible goal, and is slightly more difficult than the learner’s current ability, as Krashen (1982) maintains. Also, the accompaniment of images/commercial designs is highly recommendable for lower levels.

As we move up to higher-level students, it is desirable to shift more toward, authentic material, which as in real-life situations, include an integration of language. For useful ideas and considerations in the use of authentic material, see Karpova (1999), and Kelly et al (2002). The choice of topics will again be determined by learner needs. Nunan (1999) provides some useful ideas and templates for needs analysis design.

Task-types

Some examples of text-based tasks are presented below, which can be modified according to level and goals. They have been classified according to:

- Speculation
- Jigsaw/sequencing
- Ranking & rating
- Matching

1) Speculation – With clues learners predict the nature/topic of a text

Sentences: The teacher (physically) cuts three sentences from a text (the choice is important). Learners are shown these one at a time and have to come up with an overall impression/gist. (For lower levels, images could be used).

Titles: Show learners only the title and have them speculate on what the text is about.

First Line/Last Line: The teacher reads the first line of the text. Learners have to speculate about the rest; the same can be done by revealing only the last line.

Keywords: Learners are given keywords from the text and have to suggest how the full text goes.

Image and Text: The teacher reads the text. Learners have to decide which, of a group of images, most closely relate to the text.

Cloze: The teacher whites out i) every nth word, ii) all words of a certain type (adjectives, verbs etc.) or iii) key items of vocabulary. The learners must come up with appropriate words to fill the blanks.

Completion: Students provide a likely completion for a given part of a word, sentence, paragraph, narrative, or dialogue - e.g. “Steven Biko’s life was diff...” “When I have exams, I get...”, “... and stir in gradually” .

2) Matching - pairing together words, items, objects, pictures etc. which have something in common.

Pictures and Texts: Students match a selection of pictures with the appropriate texts (e.g. newspaper photographs and their captions).

Pictures and Words: Students match a selection of pictures with the appropriate vocabulary.

Texts and Texts: Students match texts that have something in common with each other (e.g. news headlines and the related story).

3) Jigsaw/Sequence - A text/image is cut or divided into pieces, and reassembled in order.

Words/lines/sentences: Sentences are cut into words and learners read each separately. Learners share information to put a sentence together using all the words. The same can be done with paragraphs i.e. cut into lines or whole sentences whereby learners will reassemble the paragraph.

Paragraphs: The teacher cuts the text into paragraphs and learners read each separately. Learners share information to put the whole text together.

Fractions: The teacher cuts up an article at random, into strips for example. Learners have to put it back together in a logical order.

Actions: The teacher breaks a text into actions. These can be represented by words and/or images. Learners have to put the text together.

4) Ranking and Rating - A number of words / items / pictures etc. must be prioritized or categorized.

Rank and Compare: Learners individually rank a number of short news story headlines in terms of their importance and then ask questions to ascertain the others' results. With more advanced groups, the teacher should encourage more justification on the part of the learners.

Rate and Compare: learners individually rate a number of news headlines / events / images etc. (5 stars = most interesting, 1 star = least interesting) - and ask questions to ascertain the others' results.

Rank and Reach a Consensus: learners are given a short story with, say, a tragic outcome involving several characters. Learners are asked individually to rank "who is most responsible for the outcome". As a pair or group they are required to discuss and reach a consensus on this not unlike a jury would.

Rate and Reach a Consensus: learners individually rate a number e.g. job or life-skill descriptions in terms of their 'usefulness'. As a pair or group they are required to discuss and come to a consensus in order to arrive at one (or several) item(s) deemed "very useful".

Setting a Purpose/Goal for Communication

A purpose or goal is given at the outset, and should include a condition or set of conditions which learners might encounter in the wider society. Completing an information gap under a time limit, solving a conflict of interest, deciphering misinformation, awarding points for say, error recognition (which could be corpus-based), are just some examples. Also we should consider time constraints; in the real world we are frequently made subject to deadlines, when it comes to completing tasks in the workplace, filing our taxes, and so on. Alternatively, personalizing the task i.e. creating a meaning for the student is an equally effective motive for communication. If asked, learners sometimes express that studying English is not just about acquiring skills or knowledge. It is a way of relieving stress, after say, a hard day at work. Raising issues such as working conditions, specific duties, gender inequality might, considerably enhance a text on 'jobs'; these issues may relate (at some point) to the experience of the learner. The learner's motivation is fueled by a desire to let out personal frustrations – a very natural way to communicate! Furthermore, the classroom may seem a like a 'safe-house' for the learner in which to freely express job anxieties, where such talk may be discouraged in his/her L1 community.

Task Link

It is important (and equally difficult) to consider how a text-based task fits into the scheme of the lesson. What preceding task will ensure a smoother transition? Preceding text-based tasks with, for example, a brainstorm of ideas/vocabulary surrounding the topic/theme offers the teacher insight into what the learners already know, thus allowing for the ongoing modification and development of the lesson. Also, the learners may provide additional information surrounding the topic, which may serve as 'fodder' for a later task. By encouraging learners to brainstorm, rich and versatile material is created that can be utilized in a variety of ways. Material (input) that derives from the learner's experience, knowledge, preference and imagination is more likely to result in topicality, relevance and participation, as well as greater stimulation and interest.

Conclusion

Text-based input can be used in a number of ways to produce meaningful (and thus motivational) communicative tasks. It is important to remember that the success of any task is dependent upon the six key factors listed in this article: learner needs, input, task type, goal/purpose, task link and learner organization and roles.

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The Benefits of Using Drama in the ESL/EFL Classroom

Chris Boudreault

Lac La Biche Institute, Vancouver, Canada

As an English teacher, I have often been amazed at how effective drama is to capture the attention of the students in the ESL/EFL classroom. Drama activities would sometimes have surprising and unexpected results. ESL/EFL professionals need to use this medium more because the artificial world of the classroom can be transformed into a quasi-real language situation and provides an endless amount of opportunities for student's personal growth. We cannot only teach grammar and phonetics with drama but also it has the power to transform the actors as well as the audience. We shouldn't underestimate this powerful teaching tool to reach our students.

Introduction

William Shakespeare claimed that

All the world's a stage,
And all the men and women merely players;
They have their exits and their entrances,
And one man in his time plays many parts,
His acts being seven ages.

As You Like It Act 2, scene 7, 139–143

If so, then maybe we need to use drama more in the schools. Using drama in the ESL classroom is not a new concept. Drama provides an excellent platform for exploring theoretical and practical aspects of the English language (Whiteson,1996). The improvisation aspect of drama gives students opportunities for developing their communicative skills in authentic and dynamic situations. By using drama in the English classroom, we can use English with our students in intriguing and useful ways. The language can be used in context and makes it come to life. Drama has the potential of making the learning experience fun for the students and even memorable because it is interactive and visual.

There are many studies about using drama to learn English. Wan Yee Sam talks about the communicative approach, drama techniques, value of drama in education, advantages and disadvantages (Sam,1990). Alan Maley and Alan Duff are classic sources for the benefits of using drama techniques; how it helps to learn new vocabulary, builds confidence, motivates the students and helps shift the focus from the teacher to the students (Maley,1982). Drama is a special communication situation which makes considerable demands on the flexibility and skills of the teacher (Kao,1998). We have Morrow (1981) who gives some guiding principles behind the use of the communicative activities. Susan Holden (1981) adds some definitions as to what drama is and how it provides opportunities for a person to express themselves. The personal nature of improvisation provides many outlets for self-expression. We even hear that children need to play as an important developmental process.

Benefits of Using Drama

This is all very relevant information concerning using drama in the ESL/EFL classroom. We can sum up the benefits of drama in language teaching as follows:

- the acquisition of meaningful, fluent interaction in the target language;
- the assimilation of a whole range of pronunciation and prosodic features in a fully contextualized and interactional manner;

- the fully contextualized acquisition of new vocabulary and structure;
- an improved sense of confidence in the student in his or her ability to learn the target language.” (Wessels, p.10).

Drama puts the teacher in the role of supporter in the learning process and the students can take more responsibility for their own learning. Ideally, the teacher will take a less dominant role in the language class and let the students explore the language activities. In the student centered classroom, every student is a potential teacher for the group.

Drama for second language learners can provide an opportunity to develop the imagination of the students. The students can go beyond the here and now and even 'walk in the shoes' of another. It provides an opportunity for independent thinking (McCaslin 1996). Students are encouraged to express their own ideas and contribute to the whole. Creative drama will offer exercises in critical thinking and the chance for the students to be creative. A good example of this is role-plays in small groups. The ESL/EFL group will have many situations where they can develop their own ideas as well as skills of cooperation when interacting with classmates. The group work builds social awareness and understanding as we walk in the 'shoes of another'. Drama gives an excellent method for studying human nature and working in harmony. The play acting provides the opportunity for a healthy release of emotion in a safe setting which can work to relieve the tension of learning in a second language.

Drama Brings Literature to Life

Most teachers see the value of drama in offering training in speech. What is not obvious is how even abstract learning is easier when acted or demonstrated. Drama can also be used to bring literature to life for the students. It is more dynamic than simple text and helps the visual learners as well as recycles new vocabulary. While drama does have a characteristic of recreation, the fun aspect should not be under-estimated. When the students are enjoying an activity, they are learning and letting their guard down. The shyness and fear of using English very often blocks learning. When the students are submerged in an active fun activity, they are more open to new concepts and learning will occur. When the students are having fun, they let their second language guard down and become less inhibited. The student will tend to relax and stop blocking out the new language. They will forget how hard it is and start absorbing the ideas presented. Changing the students' perception of the language learning from a negative to a positive is a huge plus for the learning process.

A good example of the attributes of drama being used outside the classroom is the game of theatre sports. Starting out in Loose Moose Theatre Company in Calgary, Canada (Johnstone,1999). This drama activity has grown to become an international endeavour, taken up by practitioners the world over, which involves the audience as much as the actors in creating a very spontaneous event. Theatre sports demonstrates how powerful a motivating force role-playing can become for the actors as well as the audience. There are presently teams in many different countries using different languages who put on an unrehearsed game for countless spectators and the appeal is only growing.

Drama as a Powerful Teaching Tool

In the ESL/EFL classroom, role-playing is a powerful tool. It teaches cooperation, empathy for others, decision making skills and encourages an exchange of knowledge between the students. These aspects alone make role-playing beneficial because the students are learning from each other. Yet, there are many other positive aspects to the role-playing. Apart from the obvious development of communication skills, it encourages leadership, team work, compromise, authentic listening skills and practice with real life savior-faire. However, it does not stop there. It teaches cooperation, empathy, develops

decision making skills, promotes the exchange of knowledge, builds confidence and self-esteem, refines presentation skills, encourages self-acceptance and acceptance of others, features of empowerment, pride in work, responsibility, problem solving, management and organizational skills, begets creativity and imagination.

A good drama teacher can use the practice with role-playing to contribute to the self-esteem of the students, build their confidence in using the target language (English) as well as develop many of the skills mentioned above which will carry over to real life. It is certain that self-acceptance can be encouraged in subtle ways and acceptance of others.

Drama has the potential to empower the students, give them many opportunities to have pride in their work, it teaches them responsibility, problem solving, management and directing proficiencies. The many activities of team work force students to develop organizational skills and to think on their feet. These are tools that can be used in all aspects of their lives. These skills will be useful in the future job market when the students need to work with others or even in the future job interview when the potential employer asks an unexpected question and you need to think quickly.

Drama Reveals Aspects of the Human Condition

When you think about it, drama is a method to reveal aspects of the human condition, life is nothing more than a grand series of improvisations (Price 1980). Through the games, the students begin to realize the importance of shared space, time, attention, information and ideas. The games spark spontaneity and minimize self-consciousness which often inhibits learning. The games are also good for developing concentration and trust in the classroom. While the students are having all this fun, they are developing skills of coordination, imitation while focusing on the task at hand. The improvisation enables the students to flex their emotional, mental as well as physical muscles in a safe and controlled setting. A good example of this was a role-play one group performed where they displayed their displeasure with the school principal. There was no harm done and all the students were feeling the same.

Final Reflections on Improvisations and Benefits of Drama

'Improvisation, then, is an organic experience where skills are constantly being refined. In particular, students develop an increasing facility to meet changing or unknown stimuli with immediate responses. Ideally, improvisation leads to a blending; the students create the personality traits as he/she simultaneously identifies with the character as it evolves. Obviously, the teacher-director should never lose sight of the metamorphic and highly personal nature of improvisation; therefore, there must never be the question of success or failure.' (Price, p. 6)

Drama in its purest form gives the student several avenues to self-awareness. It is one of the closest literary forms to life itself. It is a dynamic process that reveals and examines aspects of the complicated lives we lead (Price 1980). All of this leads me to believe that there are many subtle benefits to drama in the ESL classroom.

The benefits of drama to develop the imagination should not be undervalued. In our rote school routines of memorization and compulsory subject matter, we sometimes do not spend enough time on encouraging our students to use their imagination. It is the spark that makes the ordinary into something incredible. Imagination is the magic force that is beyond facts, figures and techniques which can inspire new ideas. It is with imagination that the ordinary is transformed into something significant. There is a need to cultivate this trait in our students. Imagination is closely linked to dreams and inspire us to get up every morning. Drama has the capability to keep this alive and/or rekindle what our routine daily lives are burying in ourselves. We need imagination to make a better world. In order to accomplish anything worthwhile, we first need to imagine and dream it. We should not neglect this facet of human sentience. It may seem like a trivial

point, but dreams without imagination would be like life without colour. We would all be worse off without it.

The Power of Transformation with Drama

We all present ourselves in everyday life as we want to be perceived. Erving Goffman (1958) talks in detail about how we present ourselves in everyday life from a sociological perspective. We are all acting out theatrical performances to present ourselves in regard to how we wish to be seen. When we are in the presence of others, we are to some extent on stage. We will act and communicate in our own interests to influence the people around us to act voluntarily in accordance with the individuals plans (Goffman,1959). We are in essence, recreating ourselves all the time as our social world evolves. In everyday life, first impressions are so very important. So, how we are perceived often depends on a blink of a moment which may define us for a long period if not forever. Our communication skills are so important in how we are seen by others. Our words and body language project subtle messages to those around us and others respond in accordance to what they perceive as "us". In life, we are all playing many roles, therefore, we are wearing many masks.

In a sense, and in so far as this mask represents the conception we have formed of ourselves- the role we are striving to live up to- this mask is our truer self, the self we would like to be (Goffman, p.30).

We know that an individual will attempt to induce the audience to see them in a certain way. The more convincing we are in our own roles only help to create the persona that we wish for. The better we are at communicating our ideas helps ourselves to become who we want to be.

Therefore, it makes sense that dramatic skills can help us become the person we want to be. In this way, drama has a wider reach than simply making us more fluent in a second language. It has the potential of making our lives better as we will be better understood and may help us become the people we want to be. Drama is all about how we present ourselves. If the student can communicate better, the more likely others will see him/her as he/she wishes to be seen. Therefore, the skills of drama can help the student become the person that he/she wants to be.

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Vocabulary Teaching: Effective Methodologies

Naveen Kumar Mehta

The Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, New Delhi, India

Introduction

Vocabulary is the first and foremost important step in language acquisition. In a classroom where students are not finding themselves comfortable with L2, language learning can be made interactive and interesting with the introduction of appropriate vocabulary exercises. This paper is an attempt to study and explore the various methodologies that can be incorporated in the teaching of vocabulary items in a language classroom.

Background

Patterns of Difficulty in Vocabulary

Robert Lado (1955) talked about patterns of difficulty in vocabulary teaching. He highlighted key issues related to words, the native language factor and about patterns. He even analyzed Spanish, French and Mexican patterns of difficulty in their respective vocabulary items. He stated that while dealing with vocabulary one should take into account three important aspects of words - their form, their meaning and their distribution - and one should consider various kinds of classes of words in the function of the language. He said that the forms, meaning distribution and classification of words are different in different languages. He revealed that these differences might lead to vocabulary problems.

Vocabulary and Anatomy

Visnja Pavicic (2003) dealt with a way to improve students' abilities to explore, store and usage of vocabulary items. He determined the role of vocabulary teaching and how a teacher could help their learners. He laid emphasis on self initiated independent learning with strategies, in which formal practices, functional practices and memorizing could be included. He said that the teacher should create activities and tasks to help students to build their vocabulary and develop strategies to learn the vocabulary on their own.

Teaching Vocabulary in English Language: Effective Methodologies

It is noteworthy to mention here that vocabulary items are imparted mostly by translation: either a list of words with their translation at the beginning of the lesson or the translation of the content having new words or glossaries at the very end. This is an erroneous practice as it leads to a state of confusion for the learners. On the teaching skills of vocabulary items, Frisby (1957) commented that "While the teacher is not, himself, concerned with the actual selection of vocabulary for text book purposes since practically all the books we use are based on limited vocabularies, it is important that he/she (the teacher) should know the principles, which underlie vocabulary selection". Thus it signifies that a language teacher should be innovative and proficient in the application of methodologies pertaining to teaching vocabulary items in a classroom situation. Following are the main methodologies for teaching vocabulary items in an English language classroom.

Listening Carefully

Careful listening to the words may be a good option in teaching vocabulary items in a heterogenic classroom. "Let the students hear the word in isolation and in a sentence. If the sounds of the word have been mastered, the students will hear it correctly with two or three repetitions." (Robert Lado: 121) Slow pronunciation without distortion will help. Breaking the word into parts and building up to the whole word will also be helpful.

Pronouncing the Word

Pronouncing the word enables the students to remember it longer and identify it more readily when they hear or see it.

Methods of Grasping the Meaning

The teacher should try to get the meaning to the class without using translation. This is not preferable on the ground that translation may or may not provide the meaning of the word accurately and precisely. It is advocated as it enables the class to go without grasping the meaning of a word that they have learned to pronounce rather than to depend upon the translation.

Key Strategies in Teaching Vocabulary

Some of the key strategies to unfold the information and meaning of a new word to a class are as follows:

Definitions

Definitions in the target language may be very handy if they are expressed in terms that are better known or more easily guessed than the word that is defined. In this direction teachers and students can refer to authentic and reliable dictionaries.

Self-defining Context

The context makes the situation clear, and this in turn illuminates the meaning of the new word. This practice saves time and develops an intensive reading habit and better understanding.

Antonyms

When one member of a pair of opposites is understood, the meaning of the other can be easily comprehended. This helps the student to understand the different shades of meanings of a word.

Synonyms

A synonym may be used to help the student to understand the different shades of meaning if the synonym is better known than the word being taught. Synonyms help to enrich a student's vocabulary bank and provide alternative words instantly.

Dramatization

This method can be practiced at ease. It can win the favour of the students as learners like dramatizations and can easily learn through them. Many situations can be dramatized or demonstrated.

Examples

- Sing [Sing a song]
- Open [Open a book]
- Close [Close the book]

Pictures and Drawings

Pictures of many types and colours can be used successfully to show the meaning of words and sentence. Handmade pictures can also be used as there is no need to be very artistic.

Examples

- into [Raj goes into the circle.]
- in [Rahman is in the circle.]

Drawings can be used to explain the meaning of things, actions, qualities, and relations. A line drawing of a head, for example, provides many useful nouns and verbs.

Realia

Real objects or models of real objects are very effective and meaningful in showing meanings but in handling of real objects, a teacher must be practical and should not be superfluous.

Series, Scales, Systems

The meaning of words such as the months of the year, the days of the week, the parts of the day, seasons of the year, ordinal numbers, cardinal numbers, etc. that form part of well-known series can be made clear by placing them in their natural order in the series.

Parts of Words

The parts of complex and compound words may be more common than the words themselves. Separating such words into their component parts generally elaborates the meaning.

Illustrative Sentences

Most words have a variety of restrictions on their use. Systematic descriptions of these restrictions and idiomatic uses would be laborious and not very effective in teaching. It is better to give appropriate examples that elucidate the range and variation of usage.

Practice from Meaning to Expression

This is controlled practice in which the class does not create new uses or new contexts but simply recalls the ones presented. There are many types of practices for this purpose. Pictures, realia, context, and dramatization can be used. Series and systems can also be used.

Reading the Word

Reading words aloud is also very beneficial. It makes a learner familiar with the word and also improves pronunciations of the learners.

Writing the Word

It will enable the class to write the new word while the auditory memory is fresh, even if the objective is only to read. Writing or copying the word from the blackboard will give the student a chance to understand the grammatical aspect of the word such as noun, verb, adverb, adjective etc.

Shift of Attention

Under this practice, the teacher provides a context by description or through reading which elicits the use of the word. The learners should be asked to pay attention to and develop an attitude or a point of view which he defends or attacks.

Strategy for Special Types of Words

Specific techniques or special combinations of the above techniques may be applicable for particular groups of words.

Words That Are Easy to Learn

It has been seen that the words that are similar in form and meaning to the first language are easy to understand and comprehend. They should be taught for listening and reading rather than for speaking and writing.

Words of Normal Difficulty

Words of normal difficulty are best taught in contextual realms, such as food, clothing, sports, work, and so on. There are advantages to using a connected context illustrating the words that are to be taught. Additional words can be taught as alternatives to those chosen in the connected context. Practice can be controlled in varying situations by changing a key word or phrase.

Difficult Words

Some words and sets of words are especially difficult to understand. They have to be taught as special problems with the strategy determined by the particular problem in each case.

Conclusion

An efficient language teacher can use selected vocabulary activities or can use integrated activities. All this depends upon ability and level of understanding and interest of the learners. There is no sure fire remedy or method to enhance vocabulary in a day or

two. A student's vocabulary bank can be enriched on a gradual basis and one should always show keen interest and enthusiasm in finding, learning and understanding new words.

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Utilizing Film to Enhance Student Discussion of Sociocultural Issues

Richard J. Sampson

Gunma Prefectural Women's University, Gunma Prefecture, Japan

This article introduces a technique for designing a university EFL/ESL course which utilizes film to enhance student discussion of sociocultural issues. The article gives some background into theory behind content-based learning. It then outlines a method for making a 15-week university EFL/ESL course in which students practice critical thinking skills in conducting tasks that will enable them to become more capable members of discussions in English about sociocultural issues of importance in not only cultures and societies different to their own, but also that which surrounds them.

Introduction

Whilst films often bring together a number of elements discussed as effective in increasing the motivation of EFL/ESL students, such as familiarizing learners with target culture, and making classes more interesting (Dornyei, 1998), teachers are often looking for new and different ways to make use of film in the classroom. The implementation of a course at the university level that involves the use of film ought to have a very clear idea of what aims or outcomes are to be for the learners, and not merely a time-filling exercise for everyone involved. The use of film for tasks such as focused listening (often to a variety of dialects or slang that students in EFL settings may not have recourse to encounter ordinarily), or for general comprehension purposes has been detailed elsewhere (see, for example, Hadley, 2001; Kusumarasdyati, 2004). People watch films not to gain listening ability, but, for instance, to be entertained, or to think about some topic or issue they are either interested in or would like to think about more deeply. Films, as short, encapsulated studies in human society, provide excellent starting points from which to build a content-based course promoting learners' critical thinking and discussion skills, whilst bringing reflection through sociocultural comparison and contrast between their own society or culture and that of another country or countries.

Background

This paper introduces a course that has been developed at one women's university in Japan. The course is based around a topical or content-based syllabus, using segments from a film to introduce sociocultural issues. The advantages of content-based second language learning have been variously noted (see, for example, the CARLA CoBaLTT website), and are in line with current constructivist conceptions of education that encourage cooperative learning and individual construction of meaning (Kaufman, 2004). Of particular import for the course detailed here are ideas that content-based learning addresses students' needs, motivates them, allows for use of authentic material, and allows for more meaningful comprehension and use of linguistic form (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989; Mohan, 1986). Students gain motivation through exploring the issues raised in the film, relating them to their everyday lives and the society around them, whilst finding contrasts with other societies and cultures. There is an almost coincidental, yet natural and meaningful expansion of vocabulary and linguistic form as students are exposed to tasks which enable them to more deeply consider the issues from a variety of angles, in line with (but not overtly conscious of) DeBono's (1985) conception of focused thinking. There is a degree of learner negotiation as to the content, as the students are asked to consider what issues the film raises, and which they wish to pursue over the course of the semester.

Materials

This course makes use of a first and second film.

The first film provides the basis for the majority of classes, and as such should be something that both raises enough issues to be sustained for a semester, and is likely to retain students' interest over the course of a number of weeks. This author has used Jim Sheridan's *In America* for one course, and Richard Curtis' *Notting Hill* for another. Whilst some may argue for selection of films that deal with more controversial problems or deeper global issues (Fukunaga, 1998), it must be remembered that the course detailed here is used to discuss sociocultural issues that may share similarities between the students' culture and that displayed in the film – issues that the students can relate to, but maybe haven't considered in detail. Consequently, teachers ought to select films that they feel will provide a valuable base for comparison and contrast between the society represented in the film and that which surrounds the students – the society in which they are studying English.

The second film is used as part of the final project, and needs to have some correspondence to the first film. For example, this author has used Paul Thomas Anderson's *Magnolia* for the *In America* course, and Richard Curtis' *Love Actually* for the *Notting Hill* course. These films, whilst in many ways different to the first film, are similar in genre, and deal with many of the same issues, and consequently can be compared and contrasted by students in the final project.

The Fifteen-week Semester

Weeks 1-2: Viewing Film One

The first two weeks of the course involve a complete viewing of the first film with English subtitles. Students are given schema-instantiation tasks before each viewing, as well as viewing tasks (e.g. matching and distinguishing pictures, ordering, scanning for specific information at certain points, answering questions based on the input, and predicting tasks). They are also asked to consider what sociocultural issues are represented in the film – these will form the basis for the semester's work, leading to a more student-negotiated curriculum, the likelihood that the issues will be of interest to the students in that class, and hopefully a belief from the outset by the students that their opinions are going to be valued.

Weeks 3-7: Issues / Language (Dialects)

From the third week, one issue per week is covered. For example, students in the *In America* class suggested topics such as immigration and multicultural society, societal and cultural ideas of success and failure, poverty, death in different cultures, relationships and friendships, personality, acting for others, and sociocultural ideas of family. On the other hand, in the *Notting Hill* class, issues such as celebrity, ideas of fame, status, sociocultural definitions and treatment of gender, norms, the media, friendships and stereotypes were suggested. The topics and issues that students will come up with will vary to some extent with each group of learners. During this first period of classes, students generally carry out some schema-building or instantiating task related to the issue-of-the-day in pairs, undertake a knowledge-building or knowledge-sharing task that provides scaffolding for deeper understanding of the issue in groups or through a mingling activity, and participate in a viewing task (such as a listening cloze) of a clip that expresses the issue. Drawing upon the scaffolding provided in the first part of the lesson, students discuss the issue as shown in the film in groups, with guiding questions to provide focus.

Finally, after a discussion of the issue as shown in the film, students are introduced to some differences in dialects (for example, between British/American English, or Irish/American/African English) – focusing not on accents but actual usage or phrasal differences. Students then work in pairs or small groups to produce a short skit that both uses the introduced language, and shows the issue discussed, before presenting their skits

to other class members. It is hoped that this creative use of the introduced language will make both the issue and the language more personalized for students.

Week 8: Mid-term Project

During this class, as a kind of review of the first half of semester, students are asked to choose one of the issues from the previous classes, and make a two minute skit in groups that uses some introduced language. This provides students with the opportunity to review the issues discussed, negotiate to collectively choose one in which they are interested or would like to express through a skit, and use language creatively for the purpose of talking about or expressing an issue. Students then show their skits to other class members, who undertake a peer-grading exercise.

Weeks 9-12: Issues / Film Criticism / Critical analysis of Issues Raised in Film

The second half of the semester leads towards the final project. During classes, students are encouraged to continue thinking about sociocultural issues, but, as a replacement of the dialect-language element of the first half of semester, methods of critically discussing the film as well as its representation of the sociocultural issues raised are introduced and practiced. Schema, knowledge-building / sharing and viewing tasks are still undertaken, but more time is spent on focused discussion and consensus-making tasks related to film criticism and issue-representation. Furthermore, leading to comparing and contrasting tasks in the following weeks and as part of the final project, students use t-charts to compare and contrast characters in the films.

Weeks 13-14: Viewing Film Two

Students are introduced to the final project. Before viewing the second film, students are asked whether they want English or Japanese subtitles – as the focus for the final project is on the issues and the films, and not comprehension of the English in the films as such, students ought to be given the choice (see Kusumarasdyati, 2004, for a discussion) – the *In America / Magnolia* class chose Japanese subtitles. Whilst watching the second film, students use a focused worksheet to compare and contrast the two films, both as films, and also for their discussion and representation of sociocultural issues.

Week 15: Final Project (Live Discussion)

Students are randomly broken into groups of six prior to this class. Each group comes at a different time, and discusses together the two films for approximately 30 minutes. The discussion is entirely student-created – the idea is that the students should find their own way collectively in analyzing critically the two films and the issues portrayed. The teacher observes, taking notes about contributions from students and any points that may need feedback after the discussion.

The students are graded individually on factors of:

1. Contribution,
2. Discussion of topics and issues,
3. Comparison and contrast of movies,
4. Involvement of other students, and
5. Clarity of ideas.

As can be seen from the grading factors, rather than a focus on evaluation of language form, students are graded on their ability to communicate their ideas and create a discussion together. It is hoped that, through the opportunities the students have had for focused thinking and discussion throughout the semester, along with the language they have encountered, they will be able to create together a discussion that evolves in a natural way, wending their way through the issues and topics that they wish to bring up, or that they feel comfortable discussing. There will most likely be a great deal of spontaneous communicative negotiation in defining the boundaries of the conversation, and, as the topics they wish to discuss will vary from student to student, students will be pushed to

use all of the communicative resources at their command to express their meaning clearly, and help the discussion take shape.

Conclusion

Film can provide the foundation for a series of classes that encourage students to develop their second language abilities whilst deepening their understanding and thinking about sociocultural issues through discussion. Students may find motivation through the issues, as well their developing ability to apply critical thinking skills to discuss issues that relate not only to cultures and societies foreign to their own, but indeed in many aspects to the society around them.

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A Different Perspective on Plagiarism

Dahlia Syahrani Md. Yusof
Multimedia University, Cyberjaya, Malaysia

Introduction

Plagiarism is a disturbing issue among academic societies across the world. More and more students in the higher education levels are resorting to plagiarism to complete assignments, tasks and research papers. In fact, many websites are established to accommodate this need. Research papers are made available for free or at a price online. Despite students having ample warnings, both written and verbal, the rates of plagiarism has increased rather than decreased.

When a student enters a tertiary learning institution, he or she is introduced to the concept of plagiarism. In the old days it was called copying. Today, it is known as plagiarism. The act, whether intentionally or unintentionally, may result in the severe punishment of being expelled from an institution. Less major cases may simply result in lowering a student's grade in the subject involved. Regardless of severe warnings to students, cases of plagiarism seem to be on the rise.

Current Trends

The rules on plagiarism are usually published in the handbook on academic rules and regulations. It is a concept that has been embedded in many curriculums across the world. A description of what constitutes plagiarism is also normally given as well as the punishment, the most common form being dismissal from the institution. Nevertheless, those methods have not deterred students from plagiarizing. The effectiveness of those warnings and punishment is yet to be confirmed.

It has been suggested in research that the practice of plagiarism is rampant mainly due to the rapid advancement in information technology (Hansen, 2003, Introna et al, 2003). A lot of information, which includes literary composition, journal articles as well as practically anybody's work, is put online, readily accessible to any interested parties. Other reasons or justifications for plagiarizing include pressure to meet deadlines, being encumbered by other responsibilities such as working and family commitments, as well as having poor skills in writing especially for English as Second Language (ESL) and English as Foreign Language (EFL) students (Dawson, 2004). Regardless of the reason, it seems that students in higher education do not take the issue seriously enough.

Plagiarism among Asian Students

Among many of the cases cited on plagiarism, Asian students have been highlighted as one of the largest number contributing to the problem (Introna et al, 2003). These students, or ESL/EFL learners, who studied in USA and UK commonly practice plagiarism. A lot of reasons have been cited. Among those reasons include that quoting from a well-known authority is showing a sign of respect and deep reverence for the authority (McDonnell, 2003, Introna et al, 2003). Altering and changing even a bit of the authority's word is a sign of disrespect and bad intellectual judgment. At a more philosophical level, knowledge according to some societies including Asian is considered to belong to the society as a whole and it is a duty to share it with others (Hu, 2001 in McDonnell, 2003, Introna et al, 2003). This asserts the idea of a collective society and the concept of societal interdependence advocated in Asian societies which opposes the view on the value of individual rights and ownership

Historical Overview

To combat plagiarism more effectively, it may be useful to view the issue from its historical context. Plagiarism did not become a strong issue prior to 1700 (Hansen

2003). Before then, articles and texts are not considered as privately owned by individuals but considered as messages from God. Thus, copying from others' work was accepted as positive imitation and not plagiarism.

In 1710, the first copyright law was passed in England while US passed its first copyright law in 1790 (Hansen, 2003). It was partly claimed to be attributed to the invention of printing press in 1440 and the reformation of Protestant which put values on individual ownership. Despite much objection during that period, plagiarism became the accepted norm sometime in the 1890s (Hansen, 2003).

Origin of the Concept - A Western Notion

Pennycook (1996) cited by Introna et. al (2003) views that the claim on text ownership is particularly a western notion. He outlined three distinct stages of authorship in the western world which began with pre-modern era, progressing into the modern era and lately into the post modern era period. He further commented that during the pre-modern era, the concept of authorship did not belong to one particular individual but nevertheless, to God himself. Knowledge was believed to belong to society and free to flow for the benefit of all societies involved.

However, the Enlightenment era which took place in the 17th century "brought about a shift in the western thinking" (Introna et al, 2003) which replaced God with humans as the source of imagination. Thus, authors are considered the "creator of literary text" (Pennycook, 1996 cited in Introna et. al, 2003). Scollon (1995) also agrees that the idea of plagiarism arose during the Enlightenment era.

Lately, however, the post modern era has begun to take shape which rejects the notion that the individual is the creator of the text but rather the "text itself is the creator" (Foucault, 1977 in Introna et.al 2003). Nevertheless, the modernist view of authorship is still prevalent.

Definition of Plagiarism

A definition of plagiarism is not easy to form. On the basic premise, plagiarism comes from the Latin word "plagiarius" which means "kidnapper" or "abductor" (Williams, 2002). It can be considered cheating or stealing of other people's ideas and form them as your own. Thus it is morally and ethically wrong.

To define the concept of plagiarism on a universal context, Howard (2000) concluded that there is no standard definition of plagiarism that could be applied. Various definitions of plagiarism are stated below:

"using the ideas or words of another person, without giving appropriate credit" (Hu, 2001 and Myers, 1998 cited by American National Academy of Sciences.)

"having selected, ordered and uttered words...in some written document that can be checked and cited by others" (Dillon 1988, in Evans and Youmans, 2000)

On the surface, the meanings seem similar. In practice, the meanings are rigorously subject to debates. Western critiques have constantly attacked the lack of consistency in defining plagiarism and demand that "the standard be comprehensible" (McDonnell, 2003).

Academic and Non-Academic Plagiarism

The debate on what constitutes plagiarism is extended not just within the academic circle but also to the real world practice. Martin (1994) argues that plagiarism has two different standards, one in the intellectual field and the other in the institutional field, referring to the workplace setting. He said that although plagiarism is strictly abhorred in the academic society, it is not so in the work environment. Plagiarism is said to occur in the form of ghostwriting, honorary authorship, and bureaucratic authorship.

Martin (1994) mentions the case of ghostwriting when a politician, movie star or business executive gives a speech, writes a book or a newspaper column. In actuality, the

authors are not themselves but another person who sometimes goes unacknowledged or just put in small print somewhere at the acknowledgement section.

Another type of plagiarism that goes unpunished in the real world setting is the type of “honorary authorship” where a supervisor of a laboratory who contributed little on the research is listed as co-author of the research paper (LaFollette, 1992 cited in Martin, 1994).

Another common type of plagiarism is at the bureaucratic level where it is common for higher level officers to take credit and put their name on documents which are the work of their subordinates (Martin, 1994).

Martin argues that it is quite unfair to put emphasis on plagiarism in the academic world, calling to apply a different standard totally in the real world setting. Thus it is quite unfair to punish students severely in the academic context but overlook the issue in the real world setting which has much more importance and significance on individuals and society in general.

All these differing meanings of plagiarism as well as the different standards that are applied may give cause to students to misinterpret the real definition and values of plagiarism. Students may question or challenge the rules of plagiarism when many parties beyond the academic world practice it and justify it with some other name. The real world practice even clouds students judgment and understanding of what is and what is not plagiarism, a subject that is becoming more and more unclear in the western world, the place of its origin.

Cultural Definition

Another common debate in the academic circle is the differences among the students themselves that gives rise to different interpretations of plagiarism. Research has suggested that many students who come from countries other than United Kingdom or United States has displayed different kinds of understanding towards the meaning of plagiarism as well as its importance in the academic circles. In many cases the concept of plagiarism brings them confusion on the definition as well as its application.

Research by Introna et. al (2003) has outlined several cases on the understanding of plagiarism. The adaptations of the findings are as listed below.

Chinese

A student was accused of plagiarizing and said it was correct to rewrite the author’s word since the author was well known and respected. It shows the importance of reverence for authority which originates from a culture where respect for betters and elders is emphasized greatly.

Spanish

A visiting student was accused of plagiarizing but claimed that it was perfectly acceptable in Spanish academic circles.

African

A Mauritian student was accused of plagiarizing but appeared shocked as he claimed that he was merely writing as how he would have written in his home institution. It appears that plagiarism is not recognized in Mauritius but a widely accepted practice.

This differing interpretation is clearly supported by Hu (2001, cited by McDonnell, 2003) who observed that “In many Asian, Middle Eastern, African, and First Nation cultures, ...knowledge is believed to belong to society as a whole, rather than an individual...”. In fact he further outlined that in China and Italy, students learning science and history “are only required by their teachers to find the source answers and copy them”.

These differences clearly corroborates with the theory developed by Hofstede (1991, cited by Introna et.al, 2003) which says that different cultures across the world see

the world differently and have different values which may influence the way they learn and teach.

If it can be said that plagiarism is a concept originating from the west, thus a product of western creation, then perhaps a new perspective could be established to analyze and find methods that would help reduce the practice. Since it is a western concept that has been imposed on societies across the world, it could be that the concept is totally alien in non-western societies. It points to the question of what culture is and how culture shapes behaviours, thoughts as well as the notion of education. Some societies believe that information should flow freely and thus could be shared while other societies believe that knowledge should be guarded well and not be allowed to travel freely by its own course (Hall & Hall, 23).

Plagiarism in ESL Context

Given the various definitions and interpretations of the concept of plagiarism in the academic context, it is thus not easy for ESL learners, who are relatively new to the language compounded with their lack of understanding of the western learning culture, to grasp the very idea of plagiarism, of how to avoid it and how to appropriately write an academic paper. The concept of plagiarism is confusing among westerners themselves, thus it could be even more confusing among non-westerners especially ESL learners all around the world. It is undoubtedly a daunting task for ESL learners who are strangers to the western principles, standards and values to embrace the concept of plagiarism.

It could be argued that plagiarism could be an inherent part of learning by ESL learners (McDonnell, 2003) and thus should be tolerated. Howard (1993, cited in McDonnell, 2003) argues a form of copying named as patchwriting to facilitate the writing process. She defines it as a process of “copying from a text, deleting some words, changing some grammatical structures or substituting words with synonyms”. Mc Donnell further cites Hu (2001) who argues that “the nature of learning to write is a developmental process...” and explains that “the concept of patchwriting – which many consider a form of plagiarism – as a useful learning strategy for ESL students as they move from second-language writing skills to mature writing”.

Implication

There is no denying that many institutions across the world have endorsed the concept of plagiarism and its rulings/punishments. We simply borrowed the definitions of plagiarism and print those into our academic rules and regulations handbook, including the penalties involved upon getting caught, knowing to a certain degree that the concept possibly emerged in the west and thus could be challenged.

Perhaps it could be said that we have simply “plagiarized” the concept into our education system. It is due to this understanding that a new perspective on plagiarism that is solidly based on our cultural views should be formed.

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Language Learning Strategies: An Overview for L2 Teachers

Michael Lessard-Clouston
Kwansei Gakuin University, Nishinomiya, Japan

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This article provides an overview of language learning strategies (LLS) for second and foreign language (L2/FL) teachers. To do so it outlines the background of LLS and LLS training, discusses a three step approach teachers may follow in using LLS in their classes, and summarises key reflections and questions for future research on this aspect of L2/FL education. It also lists helpful contacts and internet sites where readers may access up-to-date information on LLS teaching and research.

Introduction

Within the field of education over the last few decades a gradual but significant shift has taken place, resulting in less emphasis on teachers and teaching and greater stress on learners and learning. This change has been reflected in various ways in language education and applied linguistics, ranging from the Northeast Conference (1990) entitled "Shifting the Instructional Focus to the Learner" and annual "Learners' Conferences" held in conjunction with the TESL Canada convention since 1991, to key works on "the learner-centred curriculum" (Nunan, 1988, 1995) and "learner-centredness as language education" (Tudor, 1996).

This article provides an overview of key issues concerning one consequence of the above shift: the focus on and use of language learning strategies (LLS) in second and foreign language (L2/FL) learning and teaching. In doing so, the first section outlines some background on LLS and summarises key points from the LLS literature. The second section considers some practical issues related to using LLS in the classroom, outlining a three step approach to implementing LLS training in normal L2/FL courses. The third section then briefly discusses some important issues and questions for further LLS research. In the fourth section the article ends by noting a number of contacts readers may use to locate and receive up-to-date information on LLS teaching and research in this widely developing area in L2/FL education.

1. BACKGROUND

Learning Strategies

In a helpful survey article, Weinstein and Mayer (1986) defined learning strategies (LS) broadly as "behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning" which are "intended to influence the learner's encoding process" (p. 315). Later Mayer (1988) more specifically defined LS as "behaviours of a learner that are intended to influence how the learner processes information" (p. 11). These early definitions from the educational literature reflect the roots of LS in cognitive science, with its essential assumptions that human beings process information and that learning involves such information processing. Clearly, LS are involved in all learning, regardless of the content and context. LS are thus used in learning and teaching math, science, history, languages and other subjects, both in classroom settings and more informal learning environments. For insight into the literature on LS outside of language education, the works of Dansereau (1985) and Weinstein, Goetz and Alexander (1988) are key, and one recent LS study of note is that of Fuchs, Fuchs, Mathes and Simmons (1997). In the rest of this paper, the focus will specifically be on language LS in L2/FL learning.

Language Learning Strategies Defined

Within L2/FL education, a number of definitions of LLS have been used by key figures in the field. Early on, Tarone (1983) defined a LS as "an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language -- to incorporate these into one's interlanguage competence" (p. 67). Rubin (1987) later wrote that LS "are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly" (p. 22). In their seminal study, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) defined LS as "the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (p. 1). Finally, building on work in her book for teachers (Oxford, 1990a), Oxford (1992/1993) provides specific examples of LLS (i.e., "In learning ESL, Trang watches U.S. TV soap operas, guessing the meaning of new expressions and predicting what will come next") and this helpful definition:

...language learning strategies -- specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills. These strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language. Strategies are tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability. (Oxford, 1992/1993, p. 18)

From these definitions, a change over time may be noted: from the early focus on the product of LSS (linguistic or sociolinguistic competence), there is now a greater emphasis on the processes and the characteristics of LLS. At the same time, we should note that LLS are distinct from learning styles, which refer more broadly to a learner's "natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills" (Reid, 1995, p. viii), though there appears to be an obvious relationship between one's language learning style and his or her usual or preferred language learning strategies.

What are the Characteristics of LLS?

Although the terminology is not always uniform, with some writers using the terms "learner strategies" (Wendin & Rubin, 1987), others "learning strategies" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Chamot & O'Malley, 1994), and still others "language learning strategies" (Oxford, 1990a, 1996), there are a number of basic characteristics in the generally accepted view of LLS. First, LLS are learner generated; they are steps taken by language learners. Second, LLS enhance language learning and help develop language competence, as reflected in the learner's skills in listening, speaking, reading, or writing the L2 or FL. Third, LLS may be visible (behaviours, steps, techniques, etc.) or unseen (thoughts, mental processes). Fourth, LLS involve information and memory (vocabulary knowledge, grammar rules, etc.).

Reading the LLS literature, it is clear that a number of further aspects of LLS are less uniformly accepted. When discussing LLS, Oxford (1990a) and others such as Wenden and Rubin (1987) note a desire for control and autonomy of learning on the part of the learner through LLS. Cohen (1990) insists that only conscious strategies are LLS, and that there must be a choice involved on the part of the learner. Transfer of a strategy from one language or language skill to another is a related goal of LLS, as Pearson (1988) and Skehan (1989) have discussed. In her teacher-oriented text, Oxford summarises her view of LLS by listing twelve key features. In addition to the characteristics noted above, she states that LLS:

- allow learners to become more self-directed
- expand the role of language teachers
- are problem-oriented
- involve many aspects, not just the cognitive
- can be taught
- are flexible
- are influenced by a variety of factors.

(Oxford, 1990a, p. 9)

Beyond this brief outline of LLS characteristics, a helpful review of the LLS research and some of the implications of LLS training for second language acquisition may be found in Gu (1996).

Why are LLS Important for L2/FL Learning and Teaching?

Within 'communicative' approaches to language teaching a key goal is for the learner to develop communicative competence in the target L2/FL, and LLS can help students in doing so. After Canale and Swain's (1980) influential article recognised the importance of communication strategies as a key aspect of strategic (and thus communicative) competence, a number of works appeared about communication strategies in L2/FL teaching². An important distinction exists, however, between communication and language learning strategies. Communication strategies are used by speakers intentionally and consciously in order to cope with difficulties in communicating in a L2/FL (Bialystok, 1990). The term LLS is used more generally for all strategies that L2/FL learners use in learning the target language, and communication strategies are therefore just one type of LLS. For all L2 teachers who aim to help develop their students' communicative competence and language learning, then, an understanding of LLS is crucial. As Oxford (1990a) puts it, LLS "...are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence" (p. 1).

In addition to developing students' communicative competence, LLS are important because research suggests that training students to use LLS can help them become better language learners. Early research on 'good language learners' by Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco (1978, 1996), Rubin (1975), and Stern (1975) suggested a number of positive strategies that such students employ, ranging from using an active task approach in and monitoring one's L2/FL performance to listening to the radio in the L2/FL and speaking with native speakers. A study by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) also suggests that effective L2/FL learners are aware of the LLS they use and why they use them. Graham's (1997) work in French further indicates that L2/FL teachers can help students understand good LLS and should train them to develop and use them.

A caution must also be noted though, because, as Skehan (1989) states, "there is always the possibility that the 'good' language learning strategies...are also used by bad language learners, but other reasons cause them to be unsuccessful" (p. 76). In fact, Vann and Abraham (1990) found evidence that suggests that both 'good' and 'unsuccessful' language learners can be active users of similar LLS, though it is important that they also discovered that their unsuccessful learners "apparently...lacked...what are often called metacognitive strategies...which would enable them to assess the task and bring to bear the necessary strategies for its completion" (p. 192). It appears, then, that a number and range of LLS are important if L2/FL teachers are to assist students both in learning the L2/FL and in becoming good language learners.

What Kinds of LLS Are There?

There are literally hundreds of different, yet often interrelated, LLS. As Oxford has developed a fairly detailed list of LLS in her taxonomy, it is useful to summarise it briefly here. First, Oxford (1990b) distinguishes between direct LLS, "which directly involve the subject matter", i.e. the L2 or FL, and indirect LLS, which "do not directly involve the subject matter itself, but are essential to language learning nonetheless" (p. 71). Second, each of these broad kinds of LLS is further divided into LLS groups. Oxford outlines three main types of direct LLS, for example. Memory strategies "aid in entering information into long-term memory and retrieving information when needed for communication". Cognitive LLS "are used for forming and revising internal mental models and receiving and producing messages in the target language". Compensation strategies "are needed to overcome any gaps in knowledge of the language" (Oxford, 1990b, p. 71). Oxford (1990a,

1990b) also describes three types of indirect LLS. Metacognitive strategies "help learners exercise 'executive control' through planning, arranging, focusing, and evaluating their own learning". Affective LLS "enable learners to control feelings, motivations, and attitudes related to language learning". Finally, social strategies "facilitate interaction with others, often in a discourse situation" (Oxford, 1990b, p. 71).

A more detailed overview of these six main types of LLS is found in Oxford (1990a, pp. 18-21), where they are further divided into 19 strategy groups and 62 subsets. Here, by way of example, we will briefly consider the social LLS that Oxford lists under indirect strategies. Three types of social LLS are noted in Oxford (1990a): asking questions, co-operating with others, and empathising with others (p. 21). General examples of LLS given in each of these categories are as follows:

Asking questions

1. Asking for clarification or verification
2. Asking for correction

Co-operating with others

1. Co-operating with peers
2. Co-operating with proficient users of the new language

Empathising with others

1. Developing cultural understanding
2. Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings

(Oxford, 1990a, p. 21)

Although these examples are still rather vague, experienced L2/FL teachers may easily think of specific LLS for each of these categories. In asking questions, for example, students might ask something specific like "Do you mean...?" or "Did you say that...?" in order to clarify or verify what they think they have heard or understood. While at first glance this appears to be a relatively straightforward LLS, in this writer's experience it is one that many EFL students in Japan, for example, are either unaware of or somewhat hesitant to employ.

What is important to note here is the way LLS are interconnected, both direct and indirect, and the support they can provide one to the other (see Oxford, 1990a, pp. 14-16). In the above illustration of social LLS, for example, a student might ask the questions above of his or her peers, thereby 'co-operating with others', and in response to the answer he or she receives the student might develop some aspect of L2/FL cultural understanding or become more aware of the feelings or thoughts of fellow students, the teacher, or those in the L2/FL culture. What is learned from this experience might then be supported when the same student uses a direct, cognitive strategy such as 'practising' to repeat what he or she has learned or to integrate what was learned into a natural conversation with someone in the target L2/FL. In this case, the way LLS may be inter-connected becomes very clear.

2. USING LLS IN THE CLASSROOM

With the above background on LLS and some of the related literature, this section provides an overview of how LLS and LLS training have been or may be used in the classroom, and briefly describes a three step approach to implementing LLS training in the L2/FL classroom.

Contexts and Classes for LLS Training

LLS and LLS training may be integrated into a variety of classes for L2/FL students. One type of course that appears to be becoming more popular, especially in intensive English programmes, is one focusing on the language learning process itself. In this case, texts such as Ellis and Sinclair's (1989) *Learning to Learn English: A Course in Learner Training* or Rubin and Thompson's (1994) *How to Be a More Successful Language Learner* might be used in order to help L2/FL learners understand the language learning process, the nature of language and communication, what language learning resources are available

to them, and what specific LLS they might use in order to improve their own vocabulary use, grammar knowledge, and L2/FL skills in reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Perhaps more common are integrated L2/FL courses where these four skills are taught in tandem, and in these courses those books might be considered as supplementary texts to help learners focus on the LLS that can help them learn L2/FL skills and the LLS they need to acquire them. In this writer's experience, still more common is the basic L2/FL listening, speaking, reading, or writing course where LLS training can enhance and complement the L2/FL teaching and learning. Whatever type of class you may be focusing on at this point, the three step approach to implementing LLS training in the classroom outlined below should prove useful.

Step I: Study Your Teaching Context

At first, it is crucial for teachers to study their teaching context, paying special attention to their students, their materials, and their own teaching. If you are going to train your students in using LLS, it is crucial to know something about these individuals, their interests, motivations, learning styles, etc. By observing their behaviour in class, for example, you will be able to see what LLS they already appear to be using. Do they often ask for clarification, verification, or correction, as discussed briefly above? Do they cooperate with their peers or seem to have much contact outside of class with proficient L2/FL users? Beyond observation, however, one can prepare a short questionnaire that students can fill in at the beginning of a course, describing themselves and their language learning. Sharkey (1994/1995), for instance, asks students to complete statements such as "In this class I want to/will/won't...", "My favourite/least favourite kinds of class activities are...", "I am studying English because...", etc. (Sharkey, 1994/1995, p. 19). Talking to students informally before or after class, or more formally interviewing select students about these topics can also provide a lot of information about one's students, their goals, motivations, and LLS, and their understanding of the particular course being taught.

Beyond the students, however, one's teaching materials are also important in considering LLS and LLS training. Textbooks, for example, should be analysed to see whether they already include LLS or LLS training. Scarcella and Oxford's (1992) Tapestry textbook series, for example, incorporates "learning strategy" boxes which highlight LLS and encourage students to use them in L2/FL tasks or skills. One example from a conversation text in the series states: "Managing Your Learning: Working with other language learners improves your listening and speaking skills" (Earle-Carlin & Proctor, 1996, p. 8). An EFL writing text I use has brief sections on making one's referents clear, outlining, and choosing the right vocabulary, all of which may be modelled and used in LLS training in my composition course. Audiotapes, videotapes, hand-outs, and other materials for the course at hand should also be examined for LLS or for specific ways that LLS training might be implemented in using them. Perhaps teachers will be surprised to find many LLS incorporated into their materials, with more possibilities than they had imagined. If not, they might look for new texts or other teaching materials that do provide such opportunities.

Last, but certainly not least, teachers need to study their own teaching methods and overall classroom style. One way to do so is to consider your lesson plans. Do they incorporate various ways that students can learn the language you are modelling, practising or presenting, in order to appeal to a variety of learning styles and strategies? Does your teaching allow learners to approach the task at hand in a variety of ways? Is your LLS training implicit, explicit, or both? By audiotaping or videotaping one's classroom teaching an instructor may objectively consider just what was actually taught and modelled, and how students responded and appeared to learn. Is your class learner-centred? Do you allow students to work on their own and learn from one another? As you circulate in class, are you encouraging questions, or posing ones relevant to the learners

with whom you interact? Whether formally in action research or simply for informal reflection, teachers who study their students, their materials, and their own teaching will be better prepared to focus on LLS and LLS training within their specific teaching context.

Step 2: Focus on LLS in Your Teaching

After you have studied your teaching context, begin to focus on specific LLS in your regular teaching that are relevant to your learners, your materials, and your own teaching style. If you have found 10 different LLS for writing explicitly used in your text, for example, you could highlight these as you go through the course, giving students clear examples, modelling how such LLS may be used in learning to write or in writing, and filling in the gaps with other LLS for writing that are neglected in the text but would be especially relevant for your learners.

If you tend to be teacher-centred in your approach to teaching, you might use a specific number of tasks appropriate for your context from the collection by Gardner and Miller (1996) in order to provide students with opportunities to use and develop their LLS and to encourage more independent language learning both in class and in out-of-class activities for your course. As Graham (1997) declares, LLS training "needs to be integrated into students' regular classes if they are going to appreciate their relevance for language learning tasks; students need to constantly monitor and evaluate the strategies they develop and use; and they need to be aware of the nature, function and importance of such strategies" (p. 169). Whether it is a specific conversation, reading, writing, or other class, an organised and informed focus on LLS and LLS training will help students learn and provide more opportunities for them to take responsibility for their learning³.

Step 3: Reflect and Encourage Learner Reflection

Much of what I have suggested in this section requires teacher reflection, echoing a current trend in pedagogy and the literature in L2/FL education (see, for example, Freeman & Richards, 1996, and Richards & Lockhart, 1994). However, in implementing LLS and LLS training in the L2/FL classroom, purposeful teacher reflection and encouraging learner reflection form a necessary third step. On a basic level, it is useful for teachers to reflect on their own positive and negative experiences in L2/FL learning. As Graham suggests, "those teachers who have thought carefully about how they learned a language, about which strategies are most appropriate for which tasks, are more likely to be successful in developing 'strategic competence' in their students" (p. 170). Beyond contemplating one's own language learning, it is also crucial to reflect on one's LLS training and teaching in the classroom. After each class, for example, one might ponder the effectiveness of the lesson and the role of LLS and LLS training within it. Do students seem to have grasped the point? Did they use the LLS that was modelled in the task they were to perform? What improvements for future lessons of this type or on this topic might be gleaned from students' behaviour? An informal log of such reflections and one's personal assessment of the class, either in a notebook or on the actual lesson plans, might be used later to reflect on LLS training in the course as a whole after its completion. In my experience I have found, like Offner (1997), that rather than limiting my perspective to specific LLS such reflection helps me to see the big picture and focus on "teaching how to learn" within my L2/FL classes.

In addition to the teacher's own reflections, it is essential to encourage learner reflection, both during and after the LLS training in the class or course. In an interesting action research study involving "guided reflection" Nunan (1996) did this by asking his students to keep a journal in which they completed the following sentences: This week I studied..., I learned..., I used my English in these places..., I spoke English with these people..., I made these mistakes..., My difficulties are..., I would like to know..., I would like help with..., My learning and practising plans for the next week are... (Nunan, 1996, p. 36). Sharkey (1994/1995) asked her learners to complete simple self-evaluation forms at

various points during their course. Matsumoto (1996) used student diaries, questionnaires, and interviews to carry out her research and help her students reflect on their LLS and language learning. Pickard (1996) also used questionnaires and follow-up interviews in helping students reflect on their out-of-class LLS. In a writing class, Santos (1997) has used portfolios to encourage learner reflection. These are just a few examples from the current literature of various ways to encourage learner reflection on language learning. As Graham declares, "For learners, a vital component of self-directed learning lies in the on-going evaluation of the methods they have employed on tasks and of their achievements within the...programme" (p. 170). Whatever the context or method, it is important for L2/FL learners to have the chance to reflect on their language learning and LLS use.

An Example of LLS Training

Let me give one example of implementing LLS training within a normal L2/FL class from my experience in teaching a TOEFL preparation course in Canada. After studying my teaching context by considering my part-time, evening college students (most of whom were working) and their LLS, the course textbook and other materials, and my own teaching, I became convinced that I should not only introduce LLS but also teach them and encourage learners to reflect on them and their own learning. To make this LLS training specific and relevant to these ESL students, I gave a mini-lecture early in the course on the importance of vocabulary for the TOEFL and learning and using English, and then focused on specific vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) by highlighting them whenever they were relevant to class activities. In practising listening for the TOEFL, for example, there were exercises on multi-definition words, and after finishing the activity I introduced ways students could expand their vocabulary knowledge by learning new meanings for multi-definition words they already know. I then talked with students about ways to record such words and their meanings on vocabulary cards or in a special notebook, in order for them to reinforce and review such words and meanings they had learned.

In order to encourage learner reflection, later in the course I used a questionnaire asking students about their vocabulary learning and VLS in and outside of class, and the following week gave them a generic but individualised vocabulary knowledge test where students provided the meaning, part of speech, and an example sentence for up to 10 words each person said he or she had 'learned'. I marked these and handed them back to students the next week, summarising the class results overall and sparking interesting class discussion. For a more detailed description of this classroom activity and a copy of the questionnaire and test, see Lessard-Clouston (1994). For more information on the research that I carried out in conjunction with this activity, please refer to Lessard-Clouston (1996). What became obvious both to me and my students in that attempt at LLS training was that vocabulary learning is a very individualised activity which requires a variety of VLS for success in understanding and using English vocabulary, whether or not one is eventually 'tested' on it. Though this is just one example of implementing LLS training in a normal L2/FL class, hopefully readers will be able to see how this general three step approach to doing so may be adapted for their own classroom teaching.

3. REFLECTIONS AND QUESTIONS FOR LLS RESEARCH

Important Reflections

In my thinking on LLS I am presently concerned about two important issues. The first, and most important, concerns the professionalism of teachers who use LLS and LLS training in their work. As Davis (1997, p. 6) has aptly noted, "our actions speak louder than words", and it is therefore important for professionals who use LLS training to also model such strategies both within their classroom teaching and, especially in EFL contexts, in their own FL learning. Furthermore, LLS obviously involve individuals' unique cognitive, social, and affective learning styles and strategies. As an educator I am interested in helping

my students learn and reflect on their learning, but I also question the tone and motivation reflected in some of the LLS literature. Oxford (1990a), for example, seems to describe many of my Japanese EFL students when she writes:

...many language students (even adults) ...like to be told what to do, and they only do what is clearly essential to get a good grade -- even if they fail to develop useful skills in the process. Attitudes and behaviours like these make learning more difficult and must be changed, or else any effort to train learners to rely more on themselves and use better strategies is bound to fail. (Oxford, 1990a, p. 10)

Motivation is a key concern both for teachers and students. Yet while teachers hope to motivate our students and enhance their learning, professionally we must be very clear not to manipulate them in the process, recognising that ultimately learning is the student's responsibility⁴. If our teaching is appropriate and learner-centred, we will not manipulate our students as we encourage them to develop and use their own LLS. Instead we will take learners' motivations and learning styles into account as we teach in order for them to improve their L2/FL skills and LLS.

The second reflection pertains to the integration of LLS into both language learning/teaching theory and curriculum. The focus of this article is largely practical, noting why LLS are useful and how they can or might be included in regular L2/FL classes. These things are important. However, in reflecting on these issues and attempting to implement LLS training in my classes I am reminded that much of the L2/FL work in LLS appears to lack an undergirding theory, perhaps partially because L2/FL education is a relatively young discipline and lacks a comprehensive theory of acquisition and instruction itself. As Ellis (1994) notes, much of the research on LLS "has been based on the assumption that there are 'good' learning strategies. But this is questionable" (p. 558). As my own research (Lessard-Clouston, 1996, 1998) suggests, L2/FL learning seems to be very much influenced by numerous individual factors, and to date it is difficult to account for all individual LLS, let alone relate them to all L2/FL learning/teaching theories.

The related challenge, then, is how to integrate LLS into our L2/FL curriculum, especially in places like Japan where "learner-centred" approaches or materials may not be implemented very easily. Using texts which incorporate LLS training, such as those in the Tapestry series, remains difficult in FL contexts when they are mainly oriented to L2 ones. How then may FL educators best include LLS and LLS training in the FL curriculum of their regular, everyday language (as opposed to content) classes? This final point brings us to this and other questions for future LLS research.

Questions for LLS Research

Following from these reflections, then, future L2/FL research must consider and include curriculum development and materials for LLS training which takes into account regular L2/FL classes (especially for adults) and the learning styles and motivations of the students within them. While Chamot and O'Malley (1994, 1996) and Kidd and Marquardson (1996) have developed materials for content-based school classes, it is important to consider the development and use of materials for college and university language classes, especially in FL settings. On the surface at least, it would appear that the language/content/learning strategies components of their frameworks could be easily transferred to a variety of language classroom curricula, but is this really the case? One model to consider in attempting to do so is Stern's (1992) multidimensional curriculum, which allows for the integration of LLS and LLS training into its language, culture, communicative, and general language education syllabuses.

A pressing need for further research involves developing a comprehensive theory of LLS that is also relevant to language teaching practice. Moving beyond taxonomies of LLS, various types of studies into LLS use and training must consider a wide range of questions, such as: What types of LLS appear to work best with what learners in which

contexts? Does LLS or LLS training transfer easily between L2 and FL contexts? What is the role of language proficiency in LLS use and training? How long does it take to train specific learners in certain LLS? How can one best assess and measure success in LLS use or training? Are certain LLS learnt more easily in classroom or non-classroom contexts? What LLS should be taught at different proficiency levels? Answers to these and many other questions from research in a variety of settings will aid in the theory building that appears necessary for more LLS work to be relevant to current L2/FL teaching practice.

In considering the above questions concerning LLS and LLS training, a variety of research methods should be employed. To date much of the LLS research appears to be based in North America and is largely oriented towards quantitative data and descriptions. In fact, one report on more qualitatively-oriented LLS data by LoCastro (1994) sparked an interesting response from major LLS figures Oxford and Green (1995). While calling for collaborative research in their critique, Oxford and Green's (1995) comments in many ways discourage such work, especially for those who do not work within North America or use a quantitatively oriented research approach. However, as LoCastro points out in her response,

...there are different kinds of research which produce different results which may be of interest. Research dealing with human beings is notoriously fuzzy and shows a great deal of variation. (LoCastro, 1995, p. 174).

I would concur with this observation. In listing the above questions and calling for more research on LLS, I also hope that more case studies, longitudinal studies, and learner's self-directed qualitative studies, like the one by Yu (1990), will be carried out and will receive greater attention in the literature in L2/FL education.

Conclusion

This paper has provided a brief overview of LLS by examining their background and summarising the relevant literature. It has also outlined some ways that LLS training has been used and offered a three step approach for teachers to consider in implementing it within their own L2/FL classes. It has also raised two important issues, posed questions for further LLS research, and noted a number of contacts that readers may use in networking on LLS in L2/FL education. In my experience, using LLS and LLS training in the L2/FL class not only encourages learners in their language learning but also helps teachers reflect on and improve their teaching. May readers also find this to be the case.

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Notes

1. The Author: Michael Lessard-Clouston is Associate Professor of English, School of Economics, Kwansei Gakuin University, 1-1-155 Uegahara, Nishinomiya, 662 Japan.

2. See, for example, the work of Bialystok (1990), Bongaerts & Poulisse (1989), Dornyei & Thurrell (1991), Kasper & Kellerman (1997), McDonough (1995), Poulisse (1989), and Willems (1987) on communication strategies.

3. For more examples of specific types of LLS training, refer to the works listed in the reference section. Oxford's (1990a) book, for instance, offers chapters with practical activities related to applying direct or indirect LLS to the four language skills or general management of learning.

4. For recent discussions of this issue and others related to autonomy and independence in language learning, see Benson & Voller (1997) and the articles in Ely & Pease-Alvarez (1996).

5. The contact details provided in this section are current as of autumn 1997.

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English Teachers' Barriers to the Use of Computer-assisted Language Learning

Kuang-wu Lee

Hsuan Chuang University, Hsinchu, Taiwan

Computers have been used for language teaching ever since the 1960's. This 40-year period can be divided into three main stages: behaviorist CALL, communicative CALL, and integrative CALL. Each stage corresponds to a certain level of technology and certain pedagogical theories. The reasons for using Computer-assisted Language Learning include: (a) experiential learning, (b) motivation, (c) enhance student achievement, (d) authentic materials for study, (e) greater interaction, (f) individualization, (g) independence from a single source of information, and (h) global understanding. The barriers inhibiting the practice of Computer-assisted Language Learning can be classified in the following common categories: (a) financial barriers, (b) availability of computer hardware and software, (c) technical and theoretical knowledge, and (d) acceptance of the technology.

Introduction

In the last few years the number of teachers using Computer-assisted Language Learning (CALL) has increased markedly and numerous articles have been written about the role of technology in education in the 21st century. Although the potential of the Internet for educational use has not been fully explored yet and the average school still makes limited use of computers, it is obvious that we have entered a new information age in which the links between technology and TEFL have already been established.

In the early 90's education started being affected by the introduction of word processors in schools, colleges and universities. This mainly had to do with written assignments. The development of the Internet brought about a revolution in the teachers' perspective, as the teaching tools offered through the Internet were gradually becoming more reliable. Nowadays, the Internet is gaining immense popularity in foreign language teaching and more and more educators and learners are embracing it.

The History of CALL

Computers have been used for language teaching ever since the 1960's. According to Warschauer & Healey (1998), this 40-year period can be divided into three main stages: behaviorist CALL, communicative CALL, and integrative CALL. Each stage corresponds to a certain level of technology and certain pedagogical theories.

Behaviorist CALL

In the 1960's and 1970's the first form of computer-assisted Language Learning featured repetitive language drills, the so-called drill-and-practice method. It was based on the behaviorist learning model and as such the computer was viewed as little more than a mechanical tutor that never grew tired. Behaviorist CALL was first designed and implemented in the era of the mainframe and the best-known tutorial system, PLATO, ran on its own special hardware. It was mainly used for extensive drills, explicit grammar instruction, and translation tests (Ahmad, et al., 1985).

Communicative CALL

Communicative CALL emerged in the 1970's and 1980's as a reaction to the behaviorist approach to language learning. Proponents of communicative CALL rejected behaviorist approaches at both the theoretical and pedagogical level. They stressed that CALL should focus more on using forms rather than on the forms themselves. Grammar should be taught implicitly and students should be encouraged to generate original

utterances instead of manipulating prefabricated forms (Jones & Fortescue, 1987; Philips, 1987). This form of computer-based instruction corresponded to cognitive theories which recognized that learning was a creative process of discovery, expression, and development. The mainframe was replaced by personal computers that allowed greater possibilities for individual work. Popular CALL software in this era included text reconstruction programmers and simulations.

Integrative CALL

The last stage of computer-assisted Language Learning is integrative CALL. Communicative CALL was criticized for using the computer in an ad hoc and disconnected fashion and using the computer made 'a greater contribution to marginal rather than central elements' of language learning (Kenning & Kenning, 1990: 90). Teachers have moved away from a cognitive view of communicative language teaching to a socio-cognitive view that emphasizes real language use in a meaningful, authentic context. Integrative CALL seeks both to integrate the various skills of language learning (listening, speaking, writing, and reading) and to integrate technology more fully into language teaching (Warschauer & Healey, 1998). To this end the multimedia-networked computer provides a range of informational, communicative, and publishing tools that are potentially available to every student.

Why Use CALL?

Research and practice suggest that, appropriately implemented, network-based technology can contribute significantly to:

Experiential Learning

The World Wide Web makes it possible for students to tackle a huge amount of human experience. In such a way, they can learn by doing things themselves. They become the creators not just the receivers of knowledge. As the way information is presented is not linear, users develop thinking skills and choose what to explore.

Motivation

Computers are most popular among students either because they are associated with fun and games or because they are considered to be fashionable. Student motivation is therefore increased, especially whenever a variety of activities are offered, which make them feel more independent.

Enhanced Student Achievement

Network-based instruction can help pupils strengthen their linguistic skills by positively affecting their learning attitude and by helping them build self-instruction strategies and promote their self-confidence.

Authentic Materials for Study

All students can use various resources of authentic reading materials either at school or from their home. Those materials can be accessed 24 hours a day at a relatively low cost.

Greater Interaction

Random access to Web pages breaks the linear flow of instruction. By sending E-mail and joining newsgroups, EFL students can communicate with people they have never met. They can also interact with their own classmates. Furthermore, some Internet activities give students positive and negative feedback by automatically correcting their on-line exercises.

Individualization

Shy or inhibited students can be greatly benefited by individualized, student-centered collaborative learning. High fliers can also realize their full potential without preventing their peers from working at their own pace.

Independence from a Single Source of Information

Although students can still use their books, they are given the chance to escape from canned knowledge and discover thousands of information sources. As a result, their education fulfils the need for interdisciplinary learning in a multicultural world.

Global Understanding

A foreign language is studied in a cultural context. In a world where the use of the Internet becomes more and more widespread, an English Language teacher's duty is to facilitate students' access to the web and make them feel citizens of a global classroom, practicing communication on a global level.

What Can We Do With CALL?

There is a wide range of on-line applications which are already available for use in the foreign language class. These include dictionaries and encyclopedias, links for teachers, chat-rooms, pronunciation tutors, grammar and vocabulary quizzes, games and puzzles, literary extracts. The World Wide Web (WWW) is a virtual library of information that can be accessed by any user around the clock. If someone wants to read or listen to the news, for example, there are a number of sources offering the latest news either printed or recorded. The most important newspapers and magazines in the world are available on-line and the same is the case with radio and TV channels.

Another example is communicating with electronic pen friends, something that most students would enjoy. Teachers should explain how it all works and help students find their keypals. Two EFL classes from different countries can arrange to send E-mail regularly to one another. This can be done quite easily thanks to the web sites providing lists of students looking for communication. It is also possible for two or more students to join a chat-room and talk on-line through E-mail .

Another network-based EFL activity could be project writing. By working for a project a pupil can construct knowledge rather than only receive it. Students can work on their own, in groups of two or in larger teams, in order to write an assignment, the size of which may vary according to the objectives set by the instructor. A variety of sources can be used besides the Internet such as school libraries, encyclopedias, reference books etc. The Internet itself can provide a lot of food for thought. The final outcome of their research can be typed using a word processor. A word processor can be used in writing compositions, in preparing a class newsletter or in producing a school home page. In such a Web page students can publish their project work so that it can reach a wider audience. That makes them feel more responsible for the final product and consequently makes them work more laboriously.

The Internet and the rise of computer-mediated communication in particular have reshaped the uses of computers for language learning. The recent shift to global information-based economies means that students will need to learn how to deal with large amounts of information and have to be able to communicate across languages and cultures. At the same time, the role of the teacher has changed as well. Teachers are not the only source of information any more, but act as facilitators so that students can actively interpret and organize the information they are given, fitting it into prior knowledge (Dole, et al., 1991). Students have become active participants in learning and are encouraged to be explorers and creators of language rather than passive recipients of it (Brown, 1991). Integrative CALL stresses these issues and additionally lets learners of a language communicate inexpensively with other learners or native speakers. As such, it combines information processing, communication, use of authentic language, and learner autonomy, all of which are of major importance in current language learning theories.

Teachers' Barriers to the Use of Computer-assisted Language Learning

The barriers inhibiting the practice of Computer-assisted Language Learning can be classified in the following common categories (a) financial barriers, (b) availability of

computer hardware and software, (c) technical and theoretical knowledge, and (d) acceptance of the technology.

Financial Barriers

Financial barriers are mentioned most frequently in the literature by language education practitioners. They include the cost of hardware, software, maintenance (particular of the most advanced equipment), and extend to some staff development. Froke (1994b) said, "concerning the money, the challenge was unique because of the nature of the technology." Existing universities policies and procedures for budgeting and accounting were well advanced for classroom instruction. The costs of media were accounted for in the university as a part of the cost of instruction. Though the initial investment in hardware is high, inhibiting institutions' introduction of advance technologies; but Hooper (1995) recommends that the cost of computers will be so low that they will be available in most schools and homes in the future.

Lewis et al. (1994) indicate three conditions under which Computer-assisted Learning and other technologies can be cost-effectiveness: Computer-assisted Learning costs the same as conventional instruction but ends up with producing higher achievement in the same amount of instructional time, it results in students achieving the same level but in less time. These authors indicate that in examples where costs of using technologies in education are calculated, they are usually understand because the value of factors, such as faculty time and cost of equipment utilization, is ignored (McClelland, 1996).

Herschbach (1994) argues firmly that new technologies are add-on expenses and will not, in many cases, lower the cost of providing educational services. He stated that that the new technologies probably will not replace the teachers, but will supplement their efforts, as has been the pattern with other technologies. The technologies will not decrease educational costs or increase teacher productivity as currently used. Low usage causes the cost barrier. Computers, interactive instruction TV, and other devices are used very few hours of the day, week, or month. Either the number of learners or the amount of time learners apply the technology must be increased substantially to approach the concept of cost-effectiveness. There are other more quick and less expensive ways of reducing costs, no matter how inexpensive the technology being used (Kincaid, McEachron, & McKinney, 1994).

Availability of Computer Hardware and Software

The most significant aspects of computer are hardware and software. Availability of high quality software is the most pressing challenge in applying the new technologies in education (Herschbach, 1994; Miller, 1997; Office of Technology Assessment, 1995; Noreburg & Lundblad, 1997). Underlying this problem is a lack of knowledge of what elements in software will promote different kinds of learning. There are few educators skilled in designing it because software development is costly and time-consuming (McClelland, 1996).

McClelland (1996) indicated having sufficient hardware in locations where learners have access to it problematic and is, of course, partly a financial problem. Computer hardware and software compatibility goes on to be a significant problem. Choosing hardware is difficult because of the many choices of systems to be used in delivering education, the delivery of equipment, and the rapid changes in technology.

Technical and Theoretical Knowledge

A lack of technical and theoretical knowledge is another barrier to the use of Computer-assisted Language Learning technology. Not only is there a shortage of knowledge about developing software to promote learning, as shown above, but many instructors do not understand how to use the new technologies. Furthermore, little is known about integrating these new means of learning into an overall plan. In the

communication between McClelland and C. Dede (1995), Dede indicated the more powerful technologies, such as artificial intelligence in computers, might promote learning of higher-order cognitive skills that are difficult to access with today's evaluation procedures and, therefore, the resulting pedagogical gains may be under-valued. Improper use of technologies can affect both the teacher and learner negatively (Office of Technical Assessment, 1995).

Acceptance of Technologies

We live in a time change. Gelatt (1995) stated that change itself has changed. Change has become so rapid, so turbulent, and so unpredictable that is now called "white water" change (p.10). Murphy & Terry (1998a) indicated the current of change move so quickly that they destroy what was considered the norm in the past, and by doing so, create new opportunities. But, there is a natural tendency for organizations to resist change. Wrong conceptions about the use of technology limit innovation and threaten teachers' job and security (Zuber-Skerritt, 1994). Instructors are tend not to use technologies that require substantially more preparation time, and it is tough to provide instructors and learners access to technologies that are easy to use (Herschbach, 1994).

Engaging in Computer-assisted Language Learning is a continuing challenge that requires time and commitment. As we approach the 21st century, we realize that technology as such is not the answer to all our problems. What really matters is how we use technology. Computers can/will never substitute teachers but they offer new opportunities for better language practice. They may actually make the process of language learning significantly richer and play a key role in the reform of a country's educational system. The next generation of students will feel a lot more confident with information technology than we do. As a result, they will also be able to use the Internet to communicate more effectively, practice language skills more thoroughly and solve language learning problems more easily.

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Code Switching as a Countenance of Language Interference

Richard Skiba

Sheffield Hallam University, Sheffield, United Kingdom

Interference may be viewed as the transference of elements of one language to another at various levels including phonological, grammatical, lexical and orthographical (Berthold, Mangubhai & Batorowicz, 1997). Berthold et al (1997) define phonological interference as items including foreign accent such as stress, rhyme, intonation and speech sounds from the first language influencing the second. Grammatical interference is defined as the first language influencing the second in terms of word order, use of pronouns and determinants, tense and mood. Interference at a lexical level provides for the borrowing of words from one language and converting them to sound more natural in another and orthographic interference includes the spelling of one language altering another. Given this definition of interference, code-switching will now be defined and considered in terms of its relationship to this concept.

Crystal (1987) suggests that code, or language, switching occurs when an individual who is bilingual alternates between two languages during his/her speech with another bilingual person. A person who is bilingual may be said to be one who is able to communicate, to varying extents, in a second language. This includes those who make irregular use of a second language, are able to use a second language but have not for some time (dormant bilingualism) or those who have considerable skill in a second language (Crystal, 1987). This type of alteration, or code switching, between languages occurs commonly amongst bilinguals and may take a number of different forms, including alteration of sentences, phrases from both languages succeeding each other and switching in a long narrative. Berthold, Mangubhai and Bartowicz (1997, pg 2.13) supplement the definition of code switching thus far with the notion that it occurs where 'speakers change from one language to another in the midst of their conversations'. An example of code switching, from Russian to French, is 'Chustvovali, chto le vin est tir et qu'il faut le boire' meaning 'They felt that the wine is uncorked and it should be drunk' (Cook, 1991, pg 65). Further, Cook (1991) puts the extent of code switching in normal conversations amongst bilinguals into perspective by outlining that code switching consists of 84% single word switches, 10% phrase switches and 6% clause switching.

There are a number of possible reasons for the switching from one language to another and these will now be considered, as presented by Crystal (1987). The first of these is the notion that a speaker may not be able to express him/herself in one language so switches to the other to compensate for the deficiency. As a result, the speaker may be triggered into speaking in the other language for a while. This type of code switching tends to occur when the speaker is upset, tired or distracted in some manner. Secondly, switching commonly occurs when an individual wishes to express solidarity with a particular social group. Rapport is established between the speaker and the listener when the listener responds with a similar switch. This type of switching may also be used to exclude others from a conversation who do not speak the second language. An example of such a situation may be two people in an elevator in a language other than English. Others in the elevator who do not speak the same language would be excluded from the conversation and a degree of comfort would exist amongst the speakers in the knowledge that not all those present in the elevator are listening to their conversation.

The final reason for the switching behavior presented by Crystal (1987) is the alteration that occurs when the speaker wishes to convey his/her attitude to the listener.

Where monolingual speakers can communicate these attitudes by means of variation in the level of formality in their speech, bilingual speakers can convey the same by code switching. Crystal (1987) suggests that where two bilingual speakers are accustomed to conversing in a particular language, switching to the other is bound to create a special effect. These notions suggest that code switching may be used as a socio-linguistic tool by bilingual speakers.

From the above discussion, it may be concluded that code switching is not a language interference on the basis that it supplements speech. Where it is used due to an inability of expression, code switching provides a continuity in speech rather than presenting an interference in language. The socio-linguistic benefits have also been identified as a means of communicating solidarity, or affiliation to a particular social group, whereby code switching should be viewed from the perspective of providing a linguistic advantage rather than an obstruction to communication. Further, code switching allows a speaker to convey attitude and other emotives using a method available to those who are bilingual and again serves to advantage the speaker, much like bolding or underlining in a text document to emphasise points. Utilising the second language, then, allows speakers to increase the impact of their speech and use it in an effective manner.

To ensure the effective use of code switching there are however two main restrictions, as developed by Poplack (1980), cited in Cook (1991). The first of these is the free morpheme constraint. This constraint suggests that a 'speaker may not switch language between a word and its endings unless the word is pronounced as if it were in the language of the ending' (Cook, 1991, pg 65). The example given by Cook (1991) to illustrate this constraint is creation of the word "runeando" in an English/Spanish switch. Cook suggests that this is impossible because "run" is a distinctively English sound. The word "flipeando", on the other hand, is possible since "flip" could be a Spanish word. The second constraint is referred to as the equivalence constraint. This constraint is characterised by the notion that 'the switch can come at a point in the sentence where it does not violate the grammar of either language' (Cook, 1991, pg 65). The example Cook uses to illustrate the equivalence constraint is a French/English switch with the suggestion that switches such as "a car americaine" or "une American voiture" are both unlikely as they are wrong in both languages. A switch "J'ai achet an American car" (I bought an American car) is possible as both English and French share the construction in which the verb is followed by the object.

Other researchers (Di Sciullo, Muysken & Singh, 1986; Berk-Seligson, 1986; Sankoff & Poplack, 1981) have also worked on generating similar specific linguistic constraints on patterns of code switching, with a general view to contribute to the work on language universals. On this basis, constraints provide a mechanism whereby two languages may be integrated together without causing interference in the conversation between two bilingual speakers.

A varying degree of code switching may also be used between bilingual conversationalists depending on the person being addressed, such as family, friends, officials and superiors and depending on the location, such as church, home or place of work (Crystal, 1987). The implication here is that there are patterns which are followed reflecting when it is appropriate to code switch with regard to addressee and location. These patterns are the established norm for that particular social group and serve to ensure appropriate language use. Milroy (1987) is a further proponent of this proposal with the observation that bilingual speakers attribute different social values to different codes, or languages. Since a different social value is associated with each code, the speaker considers use of one code more appropriate than the other with different interlocutors. Milroy (1987, pg 185) presents an example of perceived appropriate use of a given language over another with regard to the conversational participant, by stating:

.. in the West of Ireland, Irish/English bilinguals will switch to English not only in addressing an English-speaking monolingual, but in the presence of such a person who in Bell's terms is an auditor - that is, a person ratified as a participant in the interaction (Bell 1984b:172)

A similar study was carried out by Gal (1979), as cited in Milroy (1987), who concluded that the participant in the conversation is the variable to which the others were subservient in a study of code switching. The notions of Gal (1979), Bell (1984) and Milroy (1987) suggest that code switching occurs naturally and unobtrusively such that it is not an interference to language but rather a verbal mechanism of presenting an individuals' social standing with regard to a particular conversational participant. As such, code switching performs a socio-linguistic function.

Code switching may also be considered in relation to language acquisition. A number of theories have been postulated as to how an individual attains language and these will now be outlined. The first to be considered is that of Chomsky (1972; 1975; 1979) where he suggests that language acquisition takes place as the brain matures and exposure to the appropriate language is obtained. Chomsky also suggests that people are aided by innate universal language structures and as children learn, they realise how to express the underlying universal structure according to their particular culture, as described by Bootzin, Bower, Zajonc and Hall (1986). From this point of view, addressees in conversations serve as facilitators of language development by means of exposing students to cultural elements required to express the universal structure appropriate to the cultural and social requirements of the individual. This biological theory is not accepted by behaviourists who suggest that language acquisition is a verbal behaviour which is an example of operant conditioning, as advocated by Skinner (1957). Behaviourists argue that individuals are reinforced by their own speech which matches the reinforcement of providers of affection during childhood. Further, grammatically correct constructions get desired results so the individual tends to repeat them. A point to note here is that the theories rely on exposure to appropriate samples of the language. The same is true when acquiring a second language.

Although switching languages during a conversation may be disruptive to the listener when the speaker switches due to an inability to express her/himself, it does provide an opportunity for language development. As may be derived from discussion above, language development takes place through samples of language which are appropriate and code switching may be signalling the need for provision of appropriate samples. The listener, in this case, is able to provide translation into the second language thus providing a learning and developing activity. This, in turn, will allow for a reduced amount of switching and less subsequent interference as time progresses. These principles may also be applied in the second language classroom.

Cook (1991) asserts that code switching may be integrated into the activities used for the teaching of a second language. Cook describes the Institute of Linguistics' examinations in Languages for International Communication test as one which utilises code switching. At beginners level, students may use the second language for obtaining information from material such as a travel brochure or a phone message to answer comprehension questions in the first language. At advanced stages, the student may be required to research a topic and provide a report in the first language. This approach is one which uses code switching as a foundation for the development of a second language learner who can stand between the two languages and use whichever is most appropriate to the situation rather than becoming an imitation native speaker (Cook, 1991).

Cook (1989) provides another method of using code switching as a second language teaching tool through reciprocal language teaching. This method requires students to switch languages at predetermined points pairing students who want to learn each other's languages. Thus the students alternate between the two languages and

exchange the roles of student and teacher. A similar system may also be used whereby the teacher uses code switching by starting the lesson in the first language and then moving into the second and back (Cook, 1991). This makes the lesson as communicative as possible and is similar to the 'New Concurrent Approach' presented by Rodolpho Jacobson, outlined in Cook (1991). The approach gets teachers to balance the use of languages within each lesson with the teacher allowed to switch languages at certain key points, such as during important concepts, when students are getting distracted, during revisions or when students are praised and told off. On this basis, switching may be used as an effective teaching strategy for second language learning.

There is however a means for viewing code switching as language interference, particularly from a teaching perspective. Prucha (1983) examines how language usage is determined by consideration of extraindividual and extralinguistic purposes, or social needs, taking a 'sociofunctional' approach to the study of language. Prucha is of the opinion that all of linguistic reality is determined by certain purposes, programs or aims reflective of societal needs. As a result, social needs have caused an evolution of language and language communication. This proposition relates to the notion that language acquired by an individual will have an effect on the society in which the individual participates (Clark & Clark, 1977; Winner, 1977; Dodd & White, 1980) as successful societal functioning demands an adaptable, thinking and autonomous person who is a self-regulated learner, capable of communicating and co-operating with others (Birenbaum, 1996). Acquisition of these skills is addressed by Cherryholmes (1993) and others (Percy and Ramsden, 1980; Moore, 1988), with a consideration of reciprocal teaching. Cherryholmes (1993) adapts a definition by Vygotsky (1978) suggesting that cognitive development takes place as students undertake activities in the presence of experts, or teachers, coming to eventually perform the functions by themselves. This allows the student to become autonomous over a period of time whereby the teaching is reciprocated from the teacher to the student. In terms of societal consequence, the teaching-learning activity would then produce individuals who are able to participate in society independently. These concepts applied to reciprocal teaching/learning, as presented by Cook (1991) above, would suggest that a use of code switching in the classroom would provide for a bilingual norm whereby code switching is seen to be acceptable method of communication. Students then would feel comfortable switching languages within normal conversations providing for a bilingual society. In turn, those who were not bilingual may be disadvantaged as they would not be able to communicate as effectively as those who were not. Perhaps a societal expectation of currency is bilingualism and this may be a foundation for the high degree of languages other than English programs existing in all levels of schooling. In this situation the environment is set whereby interference may occur as the societal norm moves to the inclusion of code switching and the degree of bilingualism increases. Interference may occur in this instance by monolingual speakers who attempt to use a second language for a social reason such as solidarity or bilingual speakers attempting to integrate the second language into the first to be understood by monolingual speakers.

However, from another perspective, code switching means that the two languages are kept separate and distinct which creates a barrier to interference. This is on the basis that if an individual code switches, he/she will not try to make up their own variations of the words they are unable to correctly say thus preventing interference at a phonological level. Language would also not be subject to using them out of grammatical context and would not be subject to interference at a lexical level or with orthography.

Code switching may be viewed as an extension to language for bilingual speakers rather than an interference and from other perspectives it may be viewed as interference, depending on the situation and context in which it occurs. This conclusion is drawn from the notions that switching occurs when a speaker: needs to compensate for some difficulty,

express solidarity, convey an attitude or show social respect (Crystal, 1987; Berthold, Mangubhai and Bartorowicz, 1997). The switching also occurs within postulated universal constraints such that it may be integrated into conversations in a particular manner (Poplack, 1980; Cook, 1991). On this basis, given that it occurs within a particular pattern, potential for code switching to interfere into a language exists. It has also been outlined above that code switching may facilitate language development as a mechanism for providing language samples and may also be utilised as a teaching method for teaching second languages (Cook, 1989; 1991). Again, scope for code switching to cause interference in a language exists if it is not utilised carefully as a teaching method. It may be concluded then, that when code switching is to compensate for a language difficulty it may be viewed as interference and when it is used as a socio-linguistic tool it should not.

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Evaluation Considerations for Online Foreign Language Courses

Salamat M. Khatamova
Feruza Mirzakulova
Oybek F. Khatamov
Gulistan State University, Gulistan, Uzbekistan

This article looks at the types of language learning materials and courses currently available on-line then looks at different principles to consider when designing, or choosing, an on-line English course.

Introduction

New technologies and the Internet are rapidly changing how we traditionally perceive education. In order to remain competitive, universities find they must keep up with technological advances by implementing them in their classrooms. Nowadays students and potential employers are not satisfied sitting through a course with only a textbook and a lecturer, demanding a more hands-on and integrative approach to learning (Hammonds et al, 1997). Similarly, while many adults realise the importance of lifelong learning in order to improve their chances of promotion or to enable them to make a career change, they are often too busy, too distant, or feel intimidated to attend traditional face-to-face (f2f) courses. On-line distance learning has proven to be a convenient, time-efficient, and cost-effective alternative, resulting in strong growth over the past ten years (Barfield and Katsura, 1996; Bourne et al, 1997; Furnell et al; Sherry, 1996; Thornton, 1999).

The Internet has also increased the need to understand world languages (English, German, French, Russian, Arabic, Chinese, Spanish) since there is no question this is the language used for the majority of the content available on the World Wide Web (Holderness, 1995). Additionally, world languages have turned out to be the languages of choice for world communication with the rise of multinational companies, free trade agreements, and ease of travel. As a result, people feel the need to study foreign languages more than ever before, and what better way is there to accommodate such learners than teaching them on-line? Using the Internet for foreign language study is motivating, the international context of foreign languages on the web provides the learner with greater opportunities to communicate across cultures (especially EFL students), and learners appreciate the usefulness of acquiring foreign language skills (Fox, 1998; Muehleisen, 1997).

Types of On-line Language Learning Sites

Jones (2000) describes three models of on-line language learning sites currently available on the Internet; distributive, tutorial, and co-operative.

- In the **distributive** model, materials or lesson sheets are made available on-line for the learner to study independently. The key characteristic is that communication is one-way from the material designer to the learner. They can consist of reading or listening (if you have the correct plug-in software installed) passages with multiple choice or gap-fill questions where the answers are automatically assessed (usually using Java applets or JavaScript).

- In the **tutorial** model materials are supplemented with two-way communication between the teacher and the individual learner. This interaction can be either asynchronous (e-mail or voice mail) or synchronous (chat rooms, Internet phone, or video conferencing). Students are usually given assignments to submit via the Internet or e-mail and the teacher offers feedback on them.

- In the **co-operative** model, students share exchanges amongst each other as well as with the teacher. Like the tutorial model, exchanges can be either asynchronous or synchronous. The content may contain role-plays or consist of group tasks that require collaboration with other students to complete.

Principles to Consider

Who is on-line language learning for?

We are at a crossroads. On the one hand, the Internet is as an excellent medium to provide foreign language lessons to vast numbers of people of different cultural, geographical and socio-economic backgrounds in an attempt at bringing the world closer through shared communication, making this place we live a more harmonious one. On the other hand, on-line learning is a lucrative business opportunity to cash in on. In 2000, the fact that the total global expenditure on education was estimated between US\$1 trillion and US\$2.1 trillion (Dhanarajan, 2001) leads one to consider the potential of a course targeted towards a wealthy niche market who have access to broadband telecommunication systems, video-conferencing, and other hi-tech gadgetry. Through careful organisation, however, it is possible to design an on-line course that could cater to both types of learners. The paying learners would support operating costs while the non-paying learners would, in turn, create a richer learning environment for all. Of course, the non-paying customers would have limited access and less individual teacher feedback would be offered to them.

What aspects of language should be taught?

The aspects of language should be appropriate to the environment it is being taught. Keeping this in mind, the objectives of the course should be to enable learners how to navigate the Internet and effectively communicate using computer-mediated communication in English.

What type of learning environment or model should be used?

The previous section mentioned three types of language learning sites: distributive, tutorial, and co-operative. One of the on-line programmes I had the opportunity to visit contains aspects of each model. Exercises and quizzes fitting the distributive model, for example, can be used for self-assessment of students' progress. They can also easily be made available free of charge, since it is simply a set form posted on the Web allowing access to any Internet-user. The tutorial model is suitable for giving feedback to individual learners, avoiding the risk of causing embarrassment or intimidation if the feedback is made available to everyone. Overall, however, the co-operative model is probably the most beneficial for the learner. It encourages collaborative learning supporting Vygotsky and Feuerstein's belief that 'the secret of effective learning lies in the nature of the social interaction between two or more people' (Williams and Burden, 1997: 40). The co-operative model also provides excellent opportunities for students to participate in stimulating task-based activities.

Class size doesn't really matter. However, group tasks requiring collaboration with others work better in smaller groups. This is also true in face to face classrooms. However, greater numbers especially make on-line communication confusing, making it difficult for learners of English to follow the discourse. So, for example, a class of forty students could be subdivided into ten or so smaller groups for taskwork.

Which form of interaction should be used, synchronous or asynchronous?

Synchronous communication requires learners and teachers to adjust their schedules accordingly to be available and on-line at the same time. This poses several difficulties especially when dealing with people in different time zones. Some current on-line language programs, however, have a program containing a countdown clock displaying when the next "chat session" will take where learners (and I assume a facilitator of some sort) can participate in synchronous textual exchanges can be found on some

current on-line language programs. However, after witnessing some of the dialogues taking place in 'chat rooms', I wonder what benefits learners would gain from such mundane discussion. Regardless, adding a chat room onto an Internet site is simple enough so making it available as an additional free service for students wishing to participate in such an activity is not such a bad idea, however, paying a facilitator to monitor the chat room may be unjustifiable.

Asynchronous communication, on the other hand, provides students with the 'capability to learn anywhere and at any time' making it more convenient for learners (Bourne, 1997). Moreover, asynchronous communication allows the learners to organise their thoughts so they can produce more detailed and accurate dialogues while at the same time providing them time to understand what others write.

Conclusion

On-line foreign language learning courses have a lot of potential. They not only enable learners unable to attend face to face courses but, more importantly, provide opportunities to learn in a collaborative environment with people of different nationalities and cultures. Keys to structuring a successful on-line course are simplicity and convenience. Kelly (2000) wisely points out that 'as a teacher, you would not write things on the blackboard ignoring three blind students in your classroom of 50 students. Shouldn't we also be as considerate to our web site visitors?'. Additional frills (e.g. video conferencing, movable graphics, etc.) limit access so designing a course requiring simple e-mail and Internet-browsing features is preferable. Similarly, asynchronous communication is more convenient than synchronous communication for learners with various schedules in different parts of the World. The content should be limited to features of the Internet and computer-mediated communication. The content should be limited to skills needed to use the Internet and CmC. Therefore, concentrating on reading and writing skills in a collaborative environment is most suitable. Activities focusing on listening and speaking skills should be left for face to face instruction where the actual situation can be more closely simulated. Finally, taking advantage of the context in which an on-line course is being delivered, the content should concentrate on using foreign languages for the Internet and e-mail. Therefore, concentrating on reading and writing skills in a collaborative environment is most suitable. Finally, since it is an on-line course, the content should be on using foreign languages for the Internet and e-mail.

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Using Chat Rooms in Distance Education: Teaching a Foreign Language

Salamat M. Khatamova
Husnida Kamilova
Oybek F. Khatamov
Gulistan State University, Gulistan, Uzbekistan

This article contains four lesson plans that show foreign language learners how to use chat rooms for foreign language learning purposes. This paper covers the following:

- A. Pedagogical rationale for using chat rooms as language learning tool.
- B. Difficulties language learners have with chat rooms
- C. Lesson plans for four activities
- D. References

A. Pedagogical Rationale

Chat rooms are reported to have a variety of benefits to foreign language learners:

- They allow learners to interact in an authentic context with native speakers (Skinner & Austin, 1999; Carey, 1999) without being restricted by location (Wilson & Whitelock, 1997).
- They allow communication to take place in real time.
- Chat activities promote active involvement (Bump, 1990; Sullivan & Pratt, 1996; Warshauer, 1996b; Carey, 1999)
- Chat activities promote learner autonomy due mainly to the fact that the teacher role is minimized (Bump, 1990; Chun, 1994; Sullivan & Pratt, 1996; Warshauer et al, 1996).
- Transcripts are generated which are useful for studying the language used (Carey, 1999).
- Some studies suggest that computer chatting improves interactive competence (Chun, 1994).
- Students have the opportunity to notice language used by native speakers (Schmidt & Frota, 1986; Schmidt, 1990 cit Brett, 1998).
- Students are given the opportunity for skills development and practice (Sullivan & Pratt, 1996, Pica & Doughty, 1986 cit Brett, 1998; Chun, 1994).

B. Difficulties Language Learners Have with Chat Rooms

- Students' keyboard skills in foreign languages are usually slow which means that they often miss part of the conversation thread.
- The way the conversation scrolls down the screen requires the participant to read text very quickly. This is often difficult for foreign language students.
- Chat room participants frequently use slang and abbreviations which foreign language learners may not be familiar with.
- Native speakers using chat rooms may discuss topics which are culture specific to the foreign language speaking world or inappropriate or offensive to some learner groups.

The following lesson plans aim to minimize these difficulties by first allowing students to practice using chat rooms with peers and teachers.

C. Lesson Plans for Four Activities

- **Level:**
 - Lower-intermediate or above
- **Aimed at:**
 - Learners who have never used chat rooms before, or learners who have not maximized the potential as a language learning tool.
- **The Activities:** (The lesson plans are listed later.)
 - **Activity 1:**
 - Learning how chat rooms work, how to post a message, the benefits of chat rooms as a language learning tool and some useful chat room vocabulary.
 - **Activity 2:**
 - Using chat rooms to ask and answer questions among class mates, printing off the transcript and improving questioning.
 - **Activity 3:**
 - Interviewing the teacher and again, using the transcripts to reflect and improve language.
 - **Activity 4:**
 - Playing "guess who" among class mates.
- **Objectives:**
 - After taking part in the four activities, learners will be able to do the following:
 - They will be familiar with chat room vocabulary and will be able to utilize all relevant chat room functions.
 - They will be confident in asking and answering questions and engaging in discussions with their teacher and other learners. This will include providing correct question forms and appropriate responses to questions.
 - They will know how to use tools such a *Microsoft Word* and dictionaries to improve their chat entries.
 - They will learn how to use the chat transcript to identify language problems and improve their English.
- **Resources**
 - Enough computers for pairs or individual students to work on.
 - Fast internet connection
 - Networked printer
 - Projection device (preferable)
- **Preparation**
 - Make sure that you are very familiar with the chat room you are going to use. You might like to try the following website which allows you to set up your own simple, private chat room: www.bravenet.com.

Activity 1: Introduction to Chat Rooms in the English Class

Objectives

At the end of this class, the learners should be familiar with the following:

- How chat rooms work
- How to post a message

- Some of the benefits of chat rooms as a language learning tool
- Some useful chat room vocabulary

Procedure

1. Use two computers to demonstrate how chat rooms work to the class - don't let the students start using them yet. Type a message on one computer and have a student type a reply. This will work well if you can use a projector to show the computer screen to the class.

2. Give out the following discussion prompts to small groups of students. The discussion may be limited with lower level learners but it should get them thinking about the benefits of chat as a language learning tool.

- What do you know about chat rooms?
- Have you used a chat room before?
- How can chat rooms help you to improve your foreign language skills?
- What problems do you think you will have?

3. Get feedback on the discussion and write up some key points on the board. You may want to pick up the following:

- Question 1
 - You can chat with anyone in the world.
 - It's real time.
 - It's having a conversation by typing on your computer.
- Question 2
 - You can practice chatting with native speakers.
 - You can practice your writing and reading.
 - You will learn new words and expressions.
 - You will have to focus on your spelling.
 - You will learn to type quickly in a foreign language.
- Question 4
 - My typing in a foreign language is very slow.
 - I don't have the vocabulary.
 - My spelling is very bad.
 - The conversation will be too slow and the native speaker will get bored.
 - My computer skills are really bad.
 - I don't want to chat with strangers in case they talk about things I'm not comfortable discussing.

Get the class to try to work out some solutions to the problems identified in question 4. Examples:

- Your typing speed will improve. There will be other people in the room too so there won't be long silences.
- Bring your dictionary or use an on-line one.
- Check your spelling before you post something (use *Microsoft Word* or a dictionary, ask a friend or your teacher).
- You don't need to be a computer expert - you will learn the basic functions before you talk to native speakers.
- This class will only meet invited guests and not strangers. If you don't feel comfortable with the conversation, you can leave the chat room and tell the teacher why.

4. Now it's time for students to enter the chat room and try it out. Model the procedure at the front of the class then encourage pairs of students to go to the computers and try it for themselves. Make sure they learn all the basic functions just as you did (type

a user name and profile, enter the room, post a message, exit the room). Don't give them a specific task to do - just let them explore. You may find that they practice by posting messages in their native language.

5. Once everyone has had the chance to fill in their user name and details, enter the room, post a message, read other messages and leave the room, ask the students to leave the computers and come back to their original seats.

6. Pick up on new vocabulary that students may have encountered. This will depend on the chat room you chose but it may include the following: profile, post, members, ignore, whisper, user, details. You may want to prepare a handout - a matching exercise or a picture of the chat room or something else that will help them next time.

Activity 2: Asking and Answering Questions in a Chat Room

Objectives

At the end of this class, the learners should be familiar with the following:

- Types of questions they can ask in a chat room.
- How to reply to a question.
- How to print out the transcript.
- Learning from their mistakes.

Procedure

1. Tell the students that they are going to interview the other students in the class in a chat room but first they are going to prepare some questions on paper (or computer). Put the students into groups of about four to do this and try to get them to come up with about six questions. Don't correct their grammar but do encourage them to seek answers to their vocabulary and spelling queries without your help. This will help them to be more independent.

2. Larger classes will require you to make sure that a number of chat rooms are set up. Tell the students how to get into the chat room you have allocated them and ask each other questions and type answers. Don't give them any other instructions - just let them try it out.

3. When there are about 20 minutes of the lesson remaining, show them how to print off the chat room transcript, exit the chat room and bring the transcript back to their original groups.

4. Tell them that with the help of their group members they have to identify the following from **their own** contributions:

- Find an example of a grammatically correct question.
- Find an example of a grammatically incorrect question.
- Find a spelling mistake.

5. They should correct the mistakes as a group or with some help.

6. Get students to identify the following from other people's contributions:

- Find an interesting question and the answer.
- Find a confusing question.
- Find a new word.

7. Write on the board an example or two of a confusing question or a grammatically incorrect one similar to ones the students made. The class should correct it.

8. At the end of this exercise, every student should have identified some thing they can improve on next time.

Variation

- You could arrange for the students to meet students from another class in the chat rooms. This takes much more preparation however.

Activity 3: Interviewing You in Chat Rooms

This activity is similar to activity two but this time students interview you. This will give them the opportunity to ask different types of questions and also force them to focus more on accuracy. Students will also feel they are getting some individual teacher attention.

Preparation

You will need to set up several chat rooms in advance to have as few students as possible in one room so that they get plenty of opportunities for their questions to be answered. This will require you to be present in each room simultaneously. This is not as difficult as it sounds depending on your own keyboard skills and the amount of virtual memory on your computer. I have managed to be in five rooms at once and still be waiting for students to catch up with me. Remember they are beginners and will be processing a lot of information. They will be probably checking their spelling and grammar and thinking aloud before they post anything. They will also be slowly reading the questions that other students post. As students get better at English and chatting, you will not be able to keep up with them, but initially this works really well.

Objectives

At the end of this class, the learners should be familiar with the following:

- How to prepare for a wider range of questions.
- How to read and write longer replies.
- How to check their work before posting it.
- How to learn from their mistakes.

Procedure

1. Tell the students that they are going to interview you in the class in a chat room but first they are going to prepare some questions on paper (or computer). Like before put the students into groups of about four to do this and try to get them to come up with about six questions. Depending on how creative your class are, you might need to brainstorm some possible topics they can ask you about first. Again, don't correct their grammar and encourage them to seek answers to their vocabulary and spelling queries without your help.

2. Show the students how to get into the chat room you have allocated them and post questions for you and answer your questions. You can give them some feedback on their questions and mistakes just as you would in a face to face situation.

3. When there are about 10 - 15 minutes of the lesson remaining, ask them to print off the chat room transcript, exit the chat room and come back to their original groups with the printout.

4. Like before, students should work with their groups on identifying a few errors and correcting them and also noticing some new vocabulary and guessing the meaning.

5. Write up an example of an error that the class are making a lot and help the class to correct it and identify similar ones.

6. Finally, go through the class objectives to see if they feel they have met them.

Variations

- You can ask other teachers to be present in one or two of the rooms if you have a lot of students.
- You can give different answers to the same questions in different rooms and see if they spot what you've done.

- You can nominate some students (experienced chatters or students with a more advanced level of English) to take on your role in each chat room.

Activity 4: Guess Who!

Objectives

At the end of this class, the learners should be familiar with the following:

- Types of questions they can ask in a chat room.
- How to reply to a question.
- How to print out the transcript.
- How to learn from their mistakes.

Procedure

- Give each student a nickname which they keep secret from their classmates. Explain that they must not tell anyone their real name until the activity has finished. They must enter the chat room using the name you have given them.
- Give the students a few minutes to form some of the questions they are going to ask when they enter the chat room. Put a few examples on the board. You could specify that the questions require a yes or no answer. Tell them that they cannot just guess a name or ask "Are you Fatima?". Examples might include "Do you have long hair?"; "Are you wearing a red sweater?"
- Give the student clear instructions on which chat room they need to go to if you have more than one.
- Circulate, helping students to enter the correct room.
- Enter all of the chat rooms yourself using the same nick name and help the questioning along if necessary or post a few red herrings to make things more interesting.
- Once students start to guess some of the participants, ask them to print off their transcript and bring it back to the group.
- Encourage the students to guess who they thought everyone was.
- Examine the transcript in the usual way - encourage students to pick out examples of good and bad questions and answers, new vocabulary, and spelling mistakes.

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Promoting Learners' Speaking Ability by Socioaffective Strategies

Chou, Yen-Lin

The University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California, USA

This paper aims to point out the efficiency of socioaffective strategies on Asian students' speaking competence. This paper outlines the level of strategy use by language learners and particularly emphasizes on the use of socioaffective strategies that language learners frequently overlook. By adapting the five phases of the CALLA instructional sequence (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Chamot et al., 1999, as cited in Chamot, 1999), the paper illustrates a useful way for language learners (especially Asian learners) and teachers to know how to make good use of socioaffective strategies in promoting speaking ability.

Introduction

Language learning strategies are broadly conceptualized as cognitive, metacognitive, and socioaffective strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Students consciously or unconsciously employ language learning strategies in language learning. Nevertheless, a number of research studies (Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Goh & Kwah, 1997) have discovered that students rarely utilize socioaffective strategies. These studies provide the evidence that learners overlook the efficiency of socioaffective strategies (Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Goh & Kwah, 1997).

All too often, language learners neglect the effectiveness of socioaffective strategies. Therefore, the integration of socioaffective strategies into classes should be taken into serious consideration. The paper stresses on those following issues:

- What effective applications can language teachers integrate socioaffective strategies into classes in order to promote Asian students' speaking ability?
- What useful implications can language learners and teachers employ when using language learning strategies in language learning?

The Efficiency of Socioaffective Strategies for Asian Students in the ESL Environment

Learning how to speak English fluently and accurately is always a grand task for Asian students who study abroad. Due to the significance of interaction between the instructor and students, students and students at U.S. education institutions, speaking competence can hardly be overvalued. However, because of the limitation of speaking competence and the influence by Confucianism, some Asian students are not inclined to express opinions in class; some appear conservative and uncomfortable, and seldom ask questions that they do not understand (Brice & Roseberry-Mackibbin, 1999; Lim, 2003). In other words, "influenced by Confucianism, students tend to value quietness, and be less opinioned" (Lim, 2003, p.1). Commonly, they rarely ask questions even though they do not understand the content that the instructor lectures, and they seldom express their own opinions (Lim, 2003). Lack of speaking competence prohibits the opportunities for Asian students to interact with the instructor and peers in the ESL classroom. Moreover, due to the difference between Asian and the United States' educational systems, Asian students are likely to express a conflict with peers and the instructor in the ESL classroom (Lacina, 2001).

Because the teaching and learning styles in the United States are student-centered, dynamic and lively way to learning and teaching, discussions and communications

naturally occur in the classroom (Lacina, 2001). Without the target language speaking competence and strong motivation, Asian students have a propensity to talk to each other in their native language and murmur when encountering questions (Lim, 2003). These behaviors suggest Asian students have difficulties engaging in the classroom activities and discussions without the speaking competence and motivation. As a result, both language teachers and learners should take into account knowing how to use socioaffective strategies to advance learners' speaking ability and simultaneously help those learners actively engage in the classroom activities.

Researchers (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, & Küpper, 1989, as cited in Chamot, 1993) have studied the results of language learning strategies that were taught to English as a second language (ESL) learners in numerous different tasks, including vocabulary, listening, and speaking tasks. The outcomes of the studies reveal that language learning strategies are primarily of benefit for the speaking task (Chamot, 1993). It is patently attainable for learners to accomplish the goal of communicative competence in the target L2 by language learning strategies. Additionally, Bialystock (1978) recognizes that when learners communicate in the target L2, they can consciously apply language learning strategies in order to deal with the difficulties they encounter.

As commonly accepted, socioaffective strategies are the strategies that help learners regulate and control emotions, motivations, and attitudes towards learning, as well as help learners learn through contact and interaction with others (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). For example, by means of socioaffective strategies, language learners can lower anxiety by using some mental techniques and solve problems through teacher-student or peer interactions (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Therefore, socioaffective strategies can be regarded as a useful approach for Asian learners to accelerate their speaking competence and vigorously interact with native speakers and instructors in the ESL classroom.

Various researchers have devoted themselves to identifying the strategies used by students. Some Researchers (Chamot & Küpper, 1989) assert that the cognitive strategies are the most frequently used strategy. Meanwhile, learners apply far fewer metacognitive than cognitive strategies, and seldom employ socioaffective strategies. Some researchers (Goh & Kwah, 1997) report high use of metacognitive strategies and low use of socioaffective strategies; in other word, students regularly employ metacognitive strategies in language learning and rarely utilize socioaffective strategies. The previous research studies have shown a consistent perspective that language learners tend not to use socioaffective strategies in language learning.

Those previous research studies tell us that language learners are apt to use confined learning strategies and socioaffective strategies are frequently overlooked by learners. Consequently, the paper aims to provide Asian students and language teachers with an effective way to successfully promote speaking competence by means of socioaffective strategies.

Applications and Recommendations for Language Teachers and Learners

In order to help students recognize the power of socioaffective strategies, assist Asian students to improve their speaking competence, and stimulate Asian students' motivation to master their speaking competence, educators can constantly carry out the strategy research and integrate socioaffective strategies into class (Kinoshita, 2003). There are five phases that the teacher and learners can follow (adapted from the five phases of the CALLA instructional sequence, Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Chamot et al., 1999, as cited in Chamot, 1999).

Firstly, the teacher needs to diagnose learners' level of strategy use. The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, Oxford, 1990, p.293-300) questionnaire can be utilized to determine learners' use of language learning strategies because questionnaires

are "cost-effective and easy to administer" (McDonough, 2001, p.2). In these previous research studies, the results show that students seldom use socioaffective strategies. Therefore, the particular attention is needed for the teacher to notice whether learners neglect of utilizing socioaffective strategies.

Secondly, the teacher can offer learners knowledge to know the characteristics, effectiveness, and applications of socioaffective strategies. In this stage, it is essential for the teacher to present each strategy with a specific explanation and help learners know how to use each strategy in a given situation (Chamot, 1999). For example, the teacher can teach learners to try to relax when they are afraid of speaking English. Meanwhile, the teacher is supposed to "weave strategy into regular classroom events in a natural, and comfortable way" (Oxford, 1996, p.39, as cited in McDonough, 2001) and create the supportive and encouraging environment for language learners.

Thirdly, in order to offer hands-on practice for Asian students to use socioaffective strategies, collaborative works with classmates are effective in this phase (Chamot, 1999). The teacher assigns students into several small groups consisting of at least one native speaker. Learners in each group can exchange opinions of different cultures, share their learning experiences, as well as complete a certain task. Another application in this stage is to encourage Asian students to have an individual meeting with the teacher. During the meeting, the teacher can have relaxed conversations with Asian students and try to understand the difficulties they encounter while studying abroad. The teacher provides opportunities for Asian students to express their feelings in English and to practice their English-speaking skills that are the powerful ways in which to accomplish the use of socioaffective strategies.

Fourthly, giving Asian students chances to evaluate the usefulness of socioaffective strategies is critical in this phase (Chamot, 1999). The teacher can apply group or individual interviews, questionnaire, and open-ended questions for Asian learners to express their feelings towards using socioaffective strategies (Chamot, 1999). For example, the teacher can ask Asian learners "Do you think talking to native speakers can improve your English speaking competence?" Therefore, both students and the teacher can evaluate whether socioaffective strategies affirmatively influence Asian students' speaking competence and motivation or not.

Finally, the optimal goal of language learning strategies is to guide students to become better, autonomous, and confident learners (Chamot, 1999). In order to encourage students to depend more on themselves instead of the teacher, the teacher needs to ask students to use those effective socioaffective strategies in the classroom contexts and in daily life as well. Obviously, it takes time for learners to know how to successfully incorporate socioaffective strategies in language learning. Language teachers need to give language learning strategy instruction patiently, and learners are required to use the strategy consistently. It is hoped that learners can utilize socioaffective strategies whenever they speak English even without the teachers' supervision.

Implications for Language Teachers and Learners

First, a practical implication is that Asian students are supposed to know how to use a wide variety of language learning strategies, as well as understand how to use language learning strategies flexibly. Language learners tend to use confined and fixed language learning strategies (Fedderholdt, 1998). In language learning, it is indispensable for learners to reflect on their own learning process, and habitually estimate whether the use of language learning strategies is effective for improving their language proficiency or not (Fedderholdt, 1998). From previous research studies (Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Goh & Kwah, 1997), it is undoubted that learners overlook the efficiency of socioaffective strategies. Consequently, language learners are supposed to put particular attention to noticing whether they disregard the use of socioaffective strategies. Meanwhile, language

teachers should concentrate on integrating language learning strategy training in class and explain the effectiveness of each strategy (Chamot, 1999). Every student has potential to become a successful learner and achieve the success of language tasks when obtaining the knowledge of acting wisely in choosing which strategies to integrate.

Second, another implication is that applying language learning strategies in the language classrooms should be treated as a long-term instruction. There is no positive variation between learners' speaking competence and the use of socioaffective strategies in a short period of the treatment. The successful acquisition of the speaking competence can be achieved only on condition that language teachers give the strategy use instruction patiently, and learners employ socioaffective strategies continuously.

Finally yet importantly, special efforts should be concentrated on helping improve Asian students' motivation to learn English-speaking competence. Language teachers can provide Asian students with practical practice and reinforcement of the use of socioaffective strategies (Kinoshita, 2003), such as co-operating with classmates and teachers. These activities increase learners' motivation and efforts to master English-speaking competence. Language learners can integrate socioaffective strategies not only in the classroom contexts but also in everyday life (Chamot, 1999). Looking for opportunities to have conversations with native speakers, encouraging oneself with a reward when performing well in speaking English, and asking questions in English can effectively help learners to stimulate their motivation to master English-speaking competence.

Conclusion

For promoting English ability, receiving higher education, and developing the international perspectives, the population of Asian students has increased steadily in American colleges and universities recently. It is clear that Asian students bear much anxiety and pressure while studying abroad (Parr et al., 1992). According to plenty of research studies (Parr et al., 1992), international students with better language proficiency can adjust to the foreign environment more easily. Therefore, how to advance learners' language proficiency has always been a major mission in the profession of TESOL.

From this article, it is obvious that socioaffective strategies can be considered as an effective approach to accelerate Asian learners' speaking competence as well as their learning motivation. Both language teachers and learners are supposed to evaluate whether socioaffective strategies are being overlooked or not. Moreover, socioaffective strategies should be fully integrated into classroom contexts and everyday learning. Only when Asian students know how to make good use of socioaffective strategies in both the ESL classroom environment and everyday life can they improve the speaking competence and motivation.

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Towards an Understanding of Culture in L2/FL Education

Michael Lessard-Clouston
Kwansei Gakuin University, Nishinomiya, Japan

Introduction

The title of Valdes' (1990) paper, "The inevitability of teaching and learning culture in a foreign language course," may now reflect an axiom in second- and foreign-language (L2 and FL) pedagogy, but it remains unclear to many L2 and FL educators just how this has come to be the case and what impact this has on their classroom practice. This article addresses these issues by working towards an understanding of culture in L2 and FL education. In doing so, we will examine how L2 and FL culture teaching has developed, where it currently stands, and what directions to take for future research on this topic.

Culture Teaching in L2/FL Education: Background

Although some L2/FL teachers seem to think that the presence of culture in current writings is relatively recent, a review of the L2/FL literature shows that this is clearly not the case. The early pattern is evident: people learned a second or foreign language in order to read and study its literature. Allen (1985) has summarized it: "...prior to the 1960s, the lines between language and culture were carefully drawn. The primary reason for second language study in the earlier part of this century was access to the great literary masterpieces of civilization" (p. 138). As Flewelling (1993, p. 339) notes, "it was through reading that students learned of the civilization associated with the target language". Thus Nostrand's (1966) paper on "describing and teaching the sociocultural context of a foreign language and literature" presented something of a challenge by suggesting two educational purposes of FL teaching: 'crosscultural communication and understanding' (p. 4). Concurrently, the development of the social sciences resulted in an increased focus on the disciplines of anthropology and sociology, and a more widespread understanding of culture. The sixties were also the height of the audiolingual era in language teaching, and the time when Brooks (1968) "emphasized the importance of culture not for the study of literature but for language learning," as Steele (1989, p. 155) has observed. Communication began to take centre stage, along with spoken rather than written language, and what is often termed 'small c culture' (Steele, 1989; p. 155).

In the 1970s, an emphasis on sociolinguistics resulted in greater emphasis on the context and situation where the L2 or FL would be used. Savignon's (1972) early study on communicative competence, for example, suggested the "value of training in communicative skills from the very beginning of the FL program" (p. 9). Culture's role in the FL and L2 curriculum grew, and influential works by Seelye (1974) and Lafayette (1975) appeared. 'The communicative approach' eventually replaced the audiolingual method in many areas of the world, and in describing their framework for communicative competence, Canale and Swain (1980) claimed that "a more natural integration" of language and culture takes place "through a more communicative approach than through a more grammatically based approach" (p. 31). Teacher-oriented texts (Hammerly, 1982; Higgs, 1984; Omaggio, 1986; Rivers, 1981) now also included detailed chapters on culture teaching for the L2 and FL class, reflecting the prevailing goal: communication within the cultural context of the target language.

During the 1980s, Stern's (1983a) major work recognized the 'concepts of society' in language teaching, and his (1983b) paper on the multidimensional FL curriculum recommended a four component model that included a cultural syllabus. Seelye's original work was revised (1984), and other major works appeared concerning culture learning in

L2 and FL contexts, particularly for ESL and EFL, including Damen (1987), Robinson (1981, 1988) and Valdes (1986). In Europe, a focus on 'cultural studies' developed in FL teaching, as described by Byram (1986, 1988, 1989) and Murphy (1988).

In the 1990s, the cultural syllabus has been supported by research in the National Core French Study (Flewelling, 1994; LeBlanc, 1990; LeBlanc & Courtel, 1990), and its importance was reaffirmed in Stern's (1992) last book. The European emphasis on cultural studies has developed further (Buttjes, 1990; Byram, 1994; Shotton, 1991) and has also been supported by empirical research (Buttjes & Byram, 1990; Byram & Esarte-Sarries, 1991; Byram, Esarte-Sarries & Taylor, 1991). In short, 'culture' in L2 and FL education today is clearly much more than great literature. As our understanding of language and communication has evolved, the importance of culture in L2 and FL education has increased. This reality is reflected in current methods of language learning and teaching, including the recent Tapestry approach (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).

While, as Nemni (1992) makes clear, there are still some 'fuzzy' aspects to our approach to culture both in the L2/FL class and the literature, we have moved from simply describing the sociocultural context of the L2/FL (Nostrand, 1966) to speaking of contexts of competence (Berns, 1990), considering second culture acquisition (Robinson, 1991), working to prepare students for meaningful culture learning (Mantle-Bromley, 1992), recognizing context and culture in language teaching (Kramsch, 1993), developing a new philosophy of teaching culture (Oxford, 1994), and teaching and learning language and culture (Byram, Morgan & Colleagues, 1994). That culture teaching and learning is a developing area in applied linguistics is further reflected in the growing list of recent publications (including Cargill, 1987, and Harrison, 1990) that deal specifically with this aspect of our work. As Higgs (1990) stated, it is the recognition of an "unbreakable bond between language and culture that motivates our profession's implicit commandment that 'thou shalt not teach language without also teaching culture'" (p. 74).

Language Teaching is Culture Teaching

As L2 and FL educators, we teach and our students learn about the culture of the L2/FL whether or not we include it overtly in the curriculum. This point was made by McLeod (1976, p. 212) some years ago: "by teaching a language...one is inevitably already teaching culture implicitly". Sociolinguistics reveals why. In an article on discourse, for example, Brown (1990) questions whether or not language may be value-free or independent of cultural background. She concludes: "there are values, presuppositions, about the nature of life and what is good and bad in it, to be found in any normal use of language" (p. 13). Such normal language use is exactly what most L2 and FL instructors aim to teach.

Beyond this perspective, Buttjes (1990, p. 55) refers to ethnographic language studies (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984; Poyatos, 1985; Peters and Boggs, 1986) and summarizes several reasons why "language and culture are from the start inseparably connected":

1. language acquisition does not follow a universal sequence, but differs across cultures;
2. the process of becoming a competent member of society is realized through exchanges of language in particular social situations;
3. every society orchestrates the ways in which children participate in particular situations, and this, in turn, affects the form, the function and the content of children's utterances;
4. caregivers' primary concern is not with grammatical input, but with the transmission of sociocultural knowledge;
5. the native learner, in addition to language, acquires also the paralinguistic patterns and the kinesics of his or her culture. (Buttjes, 1990, p. 55)

Having outlined these findings, Buttjes cautions readers that "as in the case of first vs. second language acquisition research, first and second culture acquisition differ in many respects" (1990, p. 55). Two of his further observations also explain just how language teaching is culture teaching:

1. language codes cannot be taught in isolation because processes of sociocultural transmission are bound to be at work on many levels, e.g. the contents of language exercises, the cultural discourse of textbooks (Kramsch, 1988), and the teacher's attitudes towards the target culture;

2. in their role of "secondary care givers" language teachers need to go beyond monitoring linguistic production in the classroom and become aware of the complex and numerous processes of intercultural mediation that any foreign language learner undergoes... (Buttjes, 1990, pp. 55-56)

Thus, from this evidence and that provided by Valdes (1990) in the paper referred to above, it is clear that language teaching is indeed culture teaching. Such a perspective is evident outside of the fields of applied linguistics and second language education as well, in writings on intercultural communication (Luce and Smith [1987]). Consider this view from outside of the L2 and FL education literature:

Culture and communication are inseparable because culture not only dictates who talks to whom, about what, and how the communication proceeds, it also helps to determine how people encode messages, the meanings they have for messages, and the conditions and circumstances under which various messages may or may not be sent, noticed, or interpreted... Culture...is the foundation of communication. (Samovar, Porter, & Jain, 1981, p. 24)

We should and do teach our students the L2 or FL culture in our classes when our goal is communicative competence. Not only is culture part and parcel of the process, but the educational value of it within L2/FL education is great, as Byram (1988) argues.

The question arises, however, that if language and culture are so intricately intertwined, why bother overtly focussing on culture when there are so many other aspects of the curriculum that need more attention? As Kramsch, Cain, and Murphy-Lejeune (1996) have answered this very question by outlining historical reasons for a discourse-based "culture as language and language as culture" pedagogy, the short answer here includes several points. First, though culture is implicit is what we teach, to assume that those who are 'learning the language' in our classes are also learning the cultural knowledge and skills required to be competent L2/FL speakers denies the complexity of culture, language learning, and communication. Second, we should include culture in our curriculum in an intentional manner in order to avoid the stereotyping and pitfalls Nemni (1992) has outlined. The third reason for expressly including culture in our L2/FL curriculum is to enable teachers to do a better job teaching culture and to be more accountable to students for the culture learning that takes place in our L2/FL classes.

Culture Defined for L2/FL Education

To this point, I have skirted around an important issue: just what is culture? As Nemni (1992) and Street (1993) suggest, this is not an easy question to answer, particularly in an increasingly international world. Some time ago, Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1954) found over three hundred definitions of culture in their study, which underlines the difficulty and scope of the issues involved in communicating and teaching about culture. Nonetheless, the development of culture teaching in L2/FL education has led to a current understanding of culture, which I will briefly summarize here.

On a general level, culture has been referred to as "the ways of a people" (Lado, 1957). This perspective incorporates both 'material' manifestations of culture that are easily seen and 'non-material' ones that are more difficult to observe, as Saviile-Troike (1975, p. 83) has noted. This global view of culture is reflected in Nemni's (1992, p. 19)

comment that the "American way of life" is conquering areas across the planet. EFL educators in Japan may well echo this point. Somewhat similarly, L2/FL teachers or students may refer to 'Canadian culture' or 'Chinese culture' in speaking of the way of life in Canada or China when referring to the people, societies and communication in these countries. Nemni (1992, pp. 13-17) has rightly noted some problems in speaking of a national culture. However, to demand one pure national culture for linguistic or ethnic groups denies the pluralism which Nemni also describes as inherent in all societies (p. 31). Reality shows us that while there are distinctions between national cultures, they may be harder to describe than other differences. Accordingly, we also speak of culture in a more specific manner in our L2/FL classes.

Adaskou, Britten & Fahsi (1990, pp. 3-4) help us define culture on a more specific level by outlining four meanings of culture. Their aesthetic sense includes cinema, literature, music, and media, while their sociological one refers to the organization and nature of family, interpersonal relations, customs, material conditions, and so on. Their semantic sense encompasses the whole conceptualization system which conditions perceptions and thought processes, and their pragmatic or sociolinguistic sense refers to the background knowledge, social and paralinguistic skills, and language code which are necessary for successful communication. While not necessarily all-inclusive or mutually exclusive, these aspects of culture provide more substance to the general definition above and reflect culture's many dimensions. These four senses of culture outline the substance of our culture teaching as we discuss, model, and teach the L2 or FL culture in our classes.

While it is natural for us to speak of and define culture at both a general and a specific level because of the inherent complexity of the concept, another aspect of our definition reflects the dynamic nature of culture. It never remains static, but is constantly changing. As a result, Robinson (1988) rejects behaviourist, functionalist, and cognitive definitions of culture and recommends a symbolic one which sees culture as a dynamic "system of symbols and meanings" where "past experience influences meaning, which in turn affects future experience, which in turn affects subsequent meaning, and so on" (p. 11).

The different levels and aspects of culture briefly outlined here clearly show that our understanding of what culture means in L2 and FL education is varied. In L2 and FL teaching and learning, the issue of defining culture is best viewed as a continuum. This provides the ability to stress various dimensions of culture at different points, and allows for major differences between L2 and FL contexts. For L2 or FL teachers and learners in varied contexts, different aspects of culture may well be more or less important at various levels of language proficiency.

L2/FL Education Theory: Stern's Framework

In defining culture in L2 and FL education in this fashion, I recognize Stern's (1983a, 1992) theoretical framework, which has greatly influenced current L2 and FL pedagogy -- in both theory and practice. Essentially, Stern's three-level framework for L2/FL teaching theory includes a foundational level (one) based in the social sciences (including linguistics and educational theory), an interlevel (two) where theory and research come together in applied or educational linguistics, and a practical level (three) where the methodology and organization of L2/FL learning and teaching meet in the educational context.

In discussing concepts of society, Stern (1983a, p. 255) relates his model to the cultural aspect of L2 and FL teaching. With anthropology, sociology, and sociolinguistics providing the foundations at level one, studies and ethnographic description of the L2 or FL culture lead into the language teaching context at level two, which is supported by the sociocultural component of the L2 or FL curriculum at level three. The Stern (1983b) multidimensional curriculum was used successfully in the National Core French Study,

and the cultural syllabus component has been detailed in LeBlanc, Courtel & Trescases (1990).

Perhaps most important about the Stern conceptual framework is that it recognizes that the context for language, culture, and communication is society, and thus emphasizes the social sciences as a foundation. In addition, it also states a clear frame of reference -- a region, a country or a number of countries -- for the society represented in the sociocultural component of the L2 or FL curriculum. Whether, as LeBlanc, Courtel & Trescases (1990) recommend, we start with the closest local L2 or FL presence and move on to L2 and FL groups farther afield, we do and need to focus on a clear society, all the while remembering the pluralism inherent within both groups and nations. My French as a second language (FSL) teachers in Toronto therefore rightly stressed Franco-Ontarian culture in my French classes, in addition to Quebec culture, and the cultures of France and Francophone Africa. In Canadian ESL, we also stress the local culture first while noting that "other people [and cultures] may have different views" (Brown, 1990, p. 15). This is just one of the many aspects of Stern's framework, and current L2 and FL culture teaching in particular.

Guidelines for the L2/FL Classroom

With this background, it is helpful to review present guidelines for culture teaching within L2 and FL education.

First, our goals for L2/FL culture teaching must reflect the general, specific, and dynamic aspects of culture. Since Seelye (1993), Hammerly (1982, pp. 522-524), and Stern (1992, pp. 212- 215) have dealt elsewhere with cultural goals in the L2/FL class, I will summarize three. Students will indeed need to develop knowledge of and about the L2 or FL culture, but this receptive aspect of cultural competence is not sufficient. Learners will also need to master some skills in culturally appropriate communication and behaviour for the target culture. Finally, cultural awareness is necessary if students are to develop an understanding of the dynamic nature of the target culture, as well as their own culture. Certainly, the goals for culture teaching and learning may vary between L2 and FL contexts.

Second, in terms of the methodology of culture teaching, a laissez-faire approach is not adequate. Just as we are intentional in terms of what grammatical structures we teach and how, we must also be systematic about our culture teaching. A whole range of techniques exists (see Damen, 1987; Fantini, forthcoming; Rivers, 1981; Seelye, 1993; Stern, 1992; Tomalin & Stempelski, 1993; Valdes, 1986; and other resources outlined in Lessard-Clouston, 1994), but our learners benefit most when our culture lessons and the cultural aspects of our language teaching are well planned and developed. One notable method, called the 'interactive language/culture process', covers the above goals and is described in detail in Crawford-Lange & Lange (1984).

Third, just as we evaluate our students' language learning, evaluation of their culture learning provides them with important feedback and keeps us accountable in our teaching. Culture learning assessment has been neglected in L2/FL education, and this is something that must be addressed if we are to enable students to truly understand and profit from this aspect of their L2/FL classes. Byram, Morgan & Colleagues (1994), Lafayette & Schultz (1975), Lessard-Clouston (1992), Valette (1986), and Zarate (1991) have dealt elsewhere with the evaluation of culture learning in L2 and FL teaching.

Fourth, the growing multicultural nature of both L2 and FL classes in North America and elsewhere is unfortunately an often untapped resource. One only needs to step into a current ESL or FSL classroom in a major centre in Canada, for example, to know that intercultural communication exists among students even before the language or culture lesson begins. Bennett (1996) challenges TESOL educators to move "beyond tolerance" in order to develop real intercultural communication in our multicultural

classes. As the writers in Murray (1992) affirm, the linguistic and cultural diversity of our classes is indeed a resource. Incorporating students' experience and awareness of and knowledge about various languages and cultures will only enhance our L2/FL culture teaching. The readings in Richard-Amato and Snow (1992) provide some foundations on the nature of the multicultural classroom, and Clarke (1996) helpfully discusses the teaching of language and culture from within a framework which recognizes the global implications of both English and TESOL.

Issues for Research

Beyond current practice, several areas need to be investigated in order to further develop our understanding of culture in L2 and FL education.

One area that needs to be addressed from the start concerns both teacher and student perceptions of the importance of culture learning in various L2 and FL programs and contexts. Are certain types of teachers or learners more open to or motivated about L2/FL culture learning? How important do they think culture is in learning a L2 or FL? What do they consider important in a cultural syllabus? While initial work has been done in EFL, by Lessard-Clouston (1996) and Prodromou (1992), more such information about other languages and contexts is needed.

A second major area for research involves studying the current culture teaching practice of L2 and FL teachers. Just what are EFL teachers doing in Japan, for example, in terms of the cultural component of their classes? What methods do teachers use, and how successful are they? How do students respond to such lessons? What aspects of their culture teaching do they want to improve? Which areas are most difficult? What resources do teachers need to teach more effectively? Morgan (1993) has examined how culture is evident in course syllabuses, but more also needs to be known about actual classroom practice.

Beyond what is currently being taught is the issue of research on how to best teach culture. As mentioned earlier, numerous techniques have been suggested, but just what methods work best, with whom, and in what contexts? How integrated are these techniques into the L2/FL curriculum? In addition, what assessment techniques are most effective for culture learning and teaching? Do such evaluation methods transfer easily to other classes or language learning contexts?

Once the above issues are investigated, research on content and materials design for cultural syllabuses is the natural next step. What cultural topics or points should be included? Is there a 'natural order' in L2/FL culture acquisition? Despite the debate about Hirsch's (1987) work on 'cultural literacy', his interesting lists of 'what every American needs to know' and 'what literate Americans know' beg the question of whether there are similar lists for our L2 and FL students. Just how helpful would such lists be? What cultural information do students of English in Japan really need to know? What do culturally literate Spanish students in Canada know about Mexico and Spain? How might lists for first language and L2 or FL learners differ? Could the updating of such lists reflect the dynamic nature of culture?

Longitudinal studies will need to be carried out to address the performance aspects of cultural competence. What cultural patterns and behaviours do FL and L2 students need to learn, at what levels? Are acquired L2/FL cultural patterns easily maintained? Are they best learnt in immersion or other L2/FL cultural contexts? A related issue is motivation. Over time, do students learn better if they have a greater interest in or aptitude for culture learning? Do students who have spent a summer or extended periods in the L2 or FL culture obtain significantly greater motivation or cultural competence?

Clearly, a final issue is the continued development of a theoretical framework for culture learning in the future L2 or FL class, particularly based on research in L2/FL education in the areas outlined above. While Stern's (1983a) model is of major importance

and assistance, are there aspects of L2/FL culture and culture learning missing? Is a continuum definition of culture really valid? How does one's view of culture in L2/FL education impact his or her learning and/or teaching? These issues and questions require future research in order to guide us towards a deeper understanding of culture in L2 and FL education.

Conclusion

This article has centred on culture in L2 and FL teaching and learning in an effort to provide an understanding of culture in L2 and FL education. After providing background on culture in the classroom and the pedagogical literature, it was argued that current L2 and FL teaching is indeed culture teaching. Beyond outlining present L2/FL culture teaching guidelines, issues for future research were summarized. In the end, it is clear that we need not be wary of culture in the L2 and FL context, even though it is also evident that there are still aspects of culture in L2 and FL education that do need further research and understanding.

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The Place of "Culture" in the Foreign Language Classroom: A Reflection

Ramona Tang

National University of Singapore, Singapore

In this article, I give a personal reflection of the place of "culture" in the foreign language classroom. Re-examining the notions of integrative and instrumental motivations to language learning, I suggest that language and culture are inextricably linked, and as such we might think about moving away from questions about the inclusion or exclusion of culture in a foreign language curriculum, to issues of deliberate immersion versus non-deliberate exposure to it.

In the field of foreign language teaching, one aspect that occasionally emerges as a topic of discussion is the relationship between knowledge of a foreign language, and knowledge of the culture from which that language "originated". From my (admittedly limited) experience with foreign language education, it would appear that the question of "culture" is often relegated to the end of a language teaching plan. It seems as if it is always something of a bonus if the teacher manages to find time to introduce a bit of the culture of the foreign language into the classroom - some music perhaps, or a traditional dance, in the final lesson of the course. If learners are particularly lucky, they get a chance to spend a month in the foreign country to "immerse" themselves in the "culture" of the country. But is that one class session enough? Is one month enough? Is it necessary?

According to Pica (1994: 70), the question "how necessary to learning a language is the learner's cultural integration?" is something which "troubles teachers, whether they work with students in classrooms far removed from the culture of the language they are learning or with students who are physically immersed in the culture but experientially and psychologically distant from it". Numerous other researchers have tried to address issues along similar lines, including Gardner and Lambert (1972) who postulate that learners may have two basic kinds of motivation. The first is integrative motivation, which refers to the desire of language learners to acquire the language while immersing themselves into the whole culture of the language, in order to "identify themselves with and become part of that society" (Brown 1994: 154). The second is instrumental motivation, which refers to the functional need for learners to acquire the language in order to serve some utilitarian purpose, such as securing a job, or a place at a university. The argument is that such instrumentally motivated learners are neither concerned with the culture from which their target language emerged, nor interested in developing any feelings of affinity with the native speakers of that language.

But questions of this sort and research of this sort appear to me to presuppose that culture can be separated from language, that culture is something that needs to be introduced into the language classroom and to the learner, and that learner and teacher have some sort of a choice as to whether "cultural integration" is to be included in the "syllabus" or not. I would like to suggest that language and culture are inextricably linked, and therefore it may be pointless, and perhaps even impossible, to ask ourselves: "how much of the culture of a country should be taught along with the language?"

Language is culture. When a person decides to learn French, for example, he or she is not merely absorbing the linguistics of the language, but everything to do with French and France. What he or she is taking in includes all the preconceptions about the French language, that it is beautiful, that it is romantic, that it is spoken along the Seine, and so on. I may be accused of stereotyping here, and perhaps I am, but this does not discount my

underlying point, which is that most, if not all, languages come with some cultural associations attached. By speaking the language, therefore, one automatically (to a greater or lesser extent) aligns oneself with the culture of the language. To speak a language well, one has to be able to think in that language, and thought is extremely powerful. A person's mind is in a sense the centre of his identity, so if a person thinks in French in order to speak French, one might say that he has, in a way, almost taken on a French identity (see for example Brown 1994, and Littlewood 1984). That is the power and the essence of a language. Language is culture. Language is the soul of the country and people who speak it.

Does this then mean that the "integrative" and "instrumental" motivation which have been discussed for years do not exist? Is that what I am saying? No. I think the person who has "integrative" motivation simply acknowledges that he or she is actively seeking to know about the culture, whereas the person with "instrumental" motivation does not want to add anything on to his or her knowledge of the language. He or she may not want to sample the food, or get to know the night-life, or visit places that have nothing to do with work, or read about the history of the country, or chat with shopkeepers behind the counter of a grocery store to find out whether that high-rise across the road was once a park where children played. But those are frills; those are extras. Language itself is already culture, and therefore it is something of a moot point to talk about the inclusion or exclusion of culture in a foreign language curriculum. We might perhaps want to re-visualise the situation as a contrast between an active and deliberate immersion in culture, and a non-deliberate exposure to it.

To conclude, I expect that some may disagree with my rather "deterministic" view that language is culture. A counterargument could well be that some people who decide to learn French, for instance, have no inkling at all of French culture. Indeed, they may not even know where France is on the map. How then can language be culture for them? To such a counterargument, I would say that while there may in theory be cases of such isolated individuals, I believe that in reality this is rather unlikely. But more than that, even if the learners themselves are not initially aware of the cultural associations attached to the language they are learning, others are, and will perceive them as being aligned with that culture. And if social theories of identity formation are to be believed (e.g. Brooke 1991), a person's identity is a social construct, and is (in part or in whole) the product of societal perception. I would like to add here that I am not in any way suggesting that a person cannot actively and deliberately reject the "cultural baggage" that accompanies a language. I am merely suggesting that it is there, and therefore we might want to consider not treating language and culture as if they were ultimately separable.

I remember that, as a student of German, I wanted to watch all the German television programmes I could find. I fiddled for hours with my radio set, trying to find a German station. I found myself quietly rooting for anything German. This last was not a conscious choice. I see it as language affecting who I was, for ultimately, language is not dead; it is alive, and as such can never be divorced from the culture that produced it and the people who speak it halfway across the world.

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Facing Up to Stereotypes in the Second Language Classroom

Dilys Karen Rees
Universidade Federal de Goiás, Goiânia, Brazil

As we teach or study a second language, we have the opportunity of coming into contact with a different world view. According to Fantini (1997:5), language reflects and affects culture". Both are human constructs and a dynamic relation exists between the two. To demonstrate this intrinsic link Fantini coined the term "linguaculture" (LC). Thus, as we learn a second language, we also learn a second way of modeling and patterning the world.

As we learn another language or, as I will refer to it from now on, another LC, we will be tempted to use stereotypes to deal with that which is unfamiliar and strange to our cultural horizon. To Berger (1997:54) the use of stereotypes is a part of our everyday illogical and uncritical way of thinking". Talburt and Stewart (1999) show that the mere contact a learner has with the LC2 through the medium of an exchange program does not automatically guarantee either that the second language will be learned or that an effective interaction with and in the LC2 will ensue. Coleman (1998:48) asserts that the old adage "to know them is to love them" is not necessarily true. Frequently, when students participate in exchange programs without any previous preparation on how to view the unfamiliar, they simply resort to stereotypes as a strategy for comprehending the strange, and return from their exchanges with the stereotypical explanations more firmly intact than ever.

As teachers of an LC2 we should be aware of how our classes can be forums for discussion. According to Gadamer (1960/2000), the unfamiliar is necessary for there to be understanding. It is exactly when we encounter something strange or different, which causes a rupture in our familiar horizon, that we begin to comprehend. We live in tension between the familiar, that which brings us comfort and the strange, that which brings us feelings of disorientation. When we break out of our comfort zones, we are able to engage in true comprehension involving new perspectives, new horizons. On the other hand, to use stereotypes to deal with the strange is to remain fixated on the familiar and to close ourselves off from change.

In the LC2 classroom, we teachers must be aware of the use of stereotypes to define and explain the culturally unfamiliar. We must be aware as well at how the familiar seems so "normal". Erickson (1986:121) speaks of the "invisibility of everyday life". The discussion of stereotypes can lead the class to begin to question the presumptions of the LC1. As Erickson (1984:62) says, we should remember "the oddness and arbitrary nature of the ordinary everyday behavior that we, as members, take for granted". He suggests asking question like, "Why is this the way it is and not different?". In the LC2 classroom as culturally different events are encountered, either by having them take place in the classroom, or by reading about them, or by seeing them in videos or films, we teachers can use these moments to raise a discussion starting from within the familiar cultural horizon and leading into the unfamiliar cultural horizons. We as teachers can be facilitators in dealing with the tension that exists between the familiar and the unfamiliar.

I would like to illustrate two ways these kinds of discussions have surfaced in my class. I myself instigated the first discussion. The second discussion appeared naturally in the course of a lesson.

Discussion One

The first discussion was brought to class specifically for the purpose of discussing stereotypes. I wanted to use the class for a consciousness raising session on stereotypes and how they are used to fixate definitions of the other. For this purpose, I used an episode entitled, *The Cruise* from the American sitcom *Frasier*.

In the episode the main character Frasier has been invited to speak on what he thinks is going to be a first-class cruise. In fact he has accepted the invitation because he thinks he will be hobnobbing with the famous. Much to his chagrin on getting onboard he discovers that everything is third-rate including the different speakers and performers that are to entertain the passengers. One of these entertainers is a one-hit (*Dance the Barracuda*) Latin American singer named Carlos, El Gato who is the stereotype of the Latin Lover, frilly shirt and all.

Before watching the episode, I asked the students to list the stereotypes that they thought were used by Americans to classify Latin Americans. They came up with a list of very negative stereotypes: "They think we are lazy, dishonest, irresponsible, disorganized"; as well as more positive stereotypes: "They think we are friendly, musical, and love dancing all the time". The students were then asked to watch the sitcom paying attention to how the Latin singer was portrayed, detailing his characteristics. The students found the episode extremely funny, laughing a lot at Carlos, El Gato.

In the discussion that followed, the students showed some surprise at the composition of the stereotype of the Latin Lover: "Why is he wearing those clothes (i.e., a frilly shirt, tight pants, and wide waistband)?"; "Why is his trademark a rose?"; etc.. Many students said that though the episode was funny, it was still embarrassing to have a Latin American portrayed as such a ridiculous figure. At this point, it was possible to start examining the truth of stereotypes, "What do stereotypes have to do with the actual reality of real people?", "On what are they based?", "Why do people use stereotypes to define others?", "Why do people find stereotypes humorous?".

From looking at stereotypes from the point of view of the American toward the Latin American (American à Latin American), it was possible to proceed into a discussion about the stereotypes that Brazilian have about Americans (Brazilian à American) and examine them as to their basis in truth and the reasons for their existing. The portrayal of Americans on Brazilian TV in comedy routines, the news, the "novelas" (Brazilian serial TV stories), etc., as well as in the press was used as a reference. Both positive and negative stereotypes were found: Americans were seen as hard-working, organized, and successful. On the other hand, they were also seen as aggressive, arrogant, prudish, only caring about money, and humorless.

This class, then, was used basically to raise a consciousness about the use of stereotypes and to start a discussion about their validity. The class also helped the students remember that all people use stereotypes in one way or another to define the Other. It is not a one-way street.

Discussion Two

While studying the short story *Grandparenting* by John Updike several opportunities appeared to discuss the familiar and the strange especially regarding a key concept such as the individual versus the group.

This is a story about a modern American family gathering at the hospital to witness the birth of a grandchild. *Judith* is giving birth to her first child. Her parents *Richard* and *Joan* are coming to be with her. But there is a small hitch: they are divorced now and are married to *Ruth* and *Andy* respectively. *Ruth* doesn't think *Richard* should go. She thinks,

The girl's over thirty, she has a husband. To have her divorced parents both hovering over her isn't just silly. It's cruel. You need space when you're having a baby. You need air to breathe (p. 305).

My Brazilian students interpreting this from their cultural horizon found it quite difficult to understand. Several students interpreted *Ruth* as having personal problems. She was seen as "selfish" and "egotistical". One student called her an "individualist". Though the student was speaking English, it was obvious she was using the word with its Portuguese definition. In English to be an individualist is to be self-reliant (see the *Illustrated Oxford Dictionary*). It has a positive connotation. In Portuguese to be an "individualista" means to prefer the individual's rights over those of the group (see *Pequeno Dicionário Brasileiro da Língua Portuguesa*). It has a negative connotation. From this, another student came to the conclusion that the American family is not united ("desunida") and that "each one is the way they wanted. They have their own lives". This was contrasted to the Brazilian family which works together as a group symbolized in the "Sunday lunch" where "everybody comes". Thus, a stereotype of the close, warm Brazilian family versus the cold, distant American family was formed.

Based on this interpretation of *Ruth's* words, it is possible to initiate a discussion of the different world views embodied in the definition of "individualism" and "individualismo" which can in turn lead to a deeper understanding of the LC1 and the LC2. For Bellah et al. (1996:viii), "(i)ndividualism, that first language in which Americans tend to think about their lives, values independence and self-reliance above all else".

From the use of the stereotypes of united ("unida") versus not united ("desunida"), the teacher can lead the students into thinking about the varied roles that exist for the individual and the group in different cultures. This in turn can lead to discussions of how the collectivity is defined in each culture. Is it to be found in the public sphere (i.e., work, being at the bus stop, etc.) or the private sphere (family, etc.)? What kind of events show the different views on the individual and the group in each culture (Sunday lunch, soccer games, etc.)? How does the story itself and its interpretation show the different cultural horizons? By initiating this kind of discussion, the teacher can aid the students in dealing with the unfamiliar and the strange. The feelings of disorientation that ensue can be a part of the discussion and viewed as normal but as something that can lead on to a wider perspective and an appreciation of the Other.

Thus, from natural student initiated interpretations that appear in class, it is possible for the teacher to initiate a discussion of stereotypes and of different worldviews.

Conclusion

I stated in the introduction of this short article that in learning another language we are engaging in learning another LC and that stereotypes frequently occur to try to incorporate the unfamiliar and the strange into the familiar cultural horizon. For this reason, a teacher should be aware of stereotypes and be ready to discuss them openly in the LC class. As I showed, the discussion about stereotypes can be initiated by the teacher (Discussion One) or occur naturally as a result of students' interpretations (Discussion Two). Either way, the teacher should use all opportunities to help the students deal with the unfamiliar and proceed to a better understanding of the Other.

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Key Issues in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) Curriculum Development

Kristen Gatehouse
Tokio State University, Tokio, Japan

Based on insights gained from developing the curriculum for Language Preparation for Employment in the Health Sciences and a review of the literature on ESP, this paper is intended to offer theoretical support for ESL instructors developing ESP curricula for ESL contexts.

Background Information and Statement of Purpose

In late 1999, I was asked to develop a content-based curriculum for a ten-week course for a select group of immigrants living in Ottawa, Canada. The course was held at Algonquin College of Applied Arts and Technology and was funded by the Language for Employment Related Needs Project (LERN). The curriculum consisted of two distinct phases: language delivery and employment awareness. Although the employment awareness phase (independently developed and delivered by Local Agencies Serving Immigrants) was an integral component of the program, the focus of this paper is on insights gained from the language-delivery phase.

Dudley Evans and St. John (1998) identify five key roles for the ESP practitioner:

- teacher
- course designer and materials provider
- collaborator
- researcher
- evaluator.

It is the role of ESP practitioner as course designer and materials provider that this paper addresses. The premise of this paper is based on David Nunan's observations about the teacher as a curriculum developer.

It seems fairly obvious that if teachers are to be the ones responsible for developing the curriculum, they need the time, the skills and the support to do so. Support may include curriculum models and guidelines and may include support from individuals acting in a curriculum advisory position. The provision of such support cannot be removed and must not be seen in isolation, from the curriculum (Nunan, 1987, p. 75).

Nunan recognized that issues of time, skills and support are key for teachers faced with the very real task of developing curricula. The intent of this paper is to provide the ESL instructor as ESP course designer and materials provider with theoretical support. This paper begins with a discussion of the origins of ESP. Some key notions about ESP are then addressed:

- absolute and variable characteristics
- types of ESP
- characteristics of ESP courses
- the meaning of the word 'special' in ESP

Key issues in ESP curriculum design are suggested: a) abilities required for successful communication in occupational settings; b) content language acquisition versus general language acquisition; c) heterogeneous versus homogenous learner group; and d) materials development.

The Origins of ESP

Certainly, a great deal about the origins of ESP could be written. Notably, there are three reasons common to the emergence of all ESP: the demands of a Brave New World, a revolution in linguistics, and focus on the learner (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) note that two key historical periods breathed life into ESP. First, the end of the Second World War brought with it an " ... age of enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale · for various reasons, most notably the economic power of the United States in the post-war world, the role [of international language] fell to English" (p. 6). Second, the Oil Crisis of the early 1970s resulted in Western money and knowledge flowing into the oil-rich countries. The language of this knowledge became English.

The general effect of all this development was to exert pressure on the language teaching profession to deliver the required goods. Whereas English had previously decided its own destiny, it now became subject to the wishes, needs and demands of people other than language teachers (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.7).

The second key reason cited as having a tremendous impact on the emergence of ESP was a revolution in linguistics. Whereas traditional linguists set out to describe the features of language, revolutionary pioneers in linguistics began to focus on the ways in which language is used in real communication. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out that one significant discovery was in the ways that spoken and written English vary. In other words, given the particular context in which English is used, the variant of English will change. This idea was taken one step farther. If language in different situations varies, then tailoring language instruction to meet the needs of learners in specific contexts is also possible. Hence, in the late 1960s and the early 1970s there were many attempts to describe English for Science and Technology (EST). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) identify Ewer and Latorre, Swales, Selinker and Trimble as a few of the prominent descriptive EST pioneers.

The final reason Hutchinson and Waters (1987) cite as having influenced the emergence of ESP has less to do with linguistics and everything to do psychology. Rather than simply focus on the method of language delivery, more attention was given to the ways in which learners acquire language and the differences in the ways language is acquired. Learners were seen to employ different learning strategies, use different skills, enter with different learning schemata, and be motivated by different needs and interests. Therefore, focus on the learners' needs became equally paramount as the methods employed to disseminate linguistic knowledge. Designing specific courses to better meet these individual needs was a natural extension of this thinking. To this day, the catchword in ESL circles is learner-centered or learning-centered.

Key Notions About ESP

In this discussion, four key notions will be discussed. They are as follows: a) the distinctions between the absolute and variable characteristics of ESP, b) types of ESP, c) characteristics of ESP courses, and d) the meaning of the word 'special' in ESP.

Absolute and Variable Characteristics of ESP

Ten years later, theorists Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) modified Strevens' original definition of ESP to form their own. Let us begin with Strevens. He defined ESP by identifying its absolute and variable characteristics. Strevens' (1988) definition makes a distinction between four absolute and two variable characteristics:

I. Absolute characteristics:

ESP consists of English language teaching which is:

- designed to meet specified needs of the learner;
- related in content (i.e. in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;

- centred on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc., and analysis of this discourse;
- in contrast with General English.

II. Variable characteristics:

ESP may be, but is not necessarily:

- restricted as to the language skills to be learned (e.g. reading only);
- not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology (pp.1-2).

Anthony (1997) notes that there has been considerable recent debate about what ESP means despite the fact that it is an approach which has been widely used over the last three decades. At a 1997 Japan Conference on ESP, Dudley-Evans offered a modified definition. The revised definition he and St. John postulate is as follows:

I. Absolute Characteristics

- ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learner;
- ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves;
- ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.

II. Variable Characteristics

- ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
- ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English;
- ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level;
- ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students;
- Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners (1998, pp. 4-5).

Dudley-Evans and St. John have removed the absolute characteristic that 'ESP is in contrast with General English' and added more variable characteristics. They assert that ESP is not necessarily related to a specific discipline. Furthermore, ESP is likely to be used with adult learners although it could be used with young adults in a secondary school setting.

As for a broader definition of ESP, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) theorize, "ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" (p. 19). Anthony (1997) notes that, it is not clear where ESP courses end and general English courses begin; numerous non-specialist ESL instructors use an ESP approach in that their syllabi are based on analysis of learner needs and their own personal specialist knowledge of using English for real communication.

Types of ESP

David Carter (1983) identifies three types of ESP:

- English as a restricted language
- English for Academic and Occupational Purposes
- English with specific topics.

The language used by air traffic controllers or by waiters are examples of English as a restricted language. Mackay and Mountford (1978) clearly illustrate the difference between restricted language and language with this statement:

... the language of international air-traffic control could be regarded as 'special', in the sense that the repertoire required by the controller is strictly limited and can be accurately determined situationally, as might be the linguistic needs of a dining-room waiter or air-hostess. However, such restricted repertoires are not languages, just as a tourist phrase book is not grammar. Knowing a restricted 'language' would not allow the

speaker to communicate effectively in novel situation, or in contexts outside the vocational environment (pp. 4-5).

The second type of ESP identified by Carter (1983) is English for Academic and Occupational Purposes. In the 'Tree of ELT' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), ESP is broken down into three branches: a) English for Science and Technology (EST), b) English for Business and Economics (EBE), and c) English for Social Studies (ESS). Each of these subject areas is further divided into two branches: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). An example of EOP for the EST branch is 'English for Technicians' whereas an example of EAP for the EST branch is 'English for Medical Studies'.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) do note that there is not a clear-cut distinction between EAP and EOP: "people can work and study simultaneously; it is also likely that in many cases the language learnt for immediate use in a study environment will be used later when the student takes up, or returns to, a job" (p. 16). Perhaps this explains Carter's rationale for categorizing EAP and EOP under the same type of ESP. It appears that Carter is implying that the end purpose of both EAP and EOP are one in the same: employment. However, despite the end purpose being identical, the means taken to achieve the end is very different indeed. I contend that EAP and EOP are different in terms of focus on Cummins' (1979) notions of cognitive academic proficiency versus basic interpersonal skills. This is examined in further detail below.

The third and final type of ESP identified by Carter (1983) is English with specific topics. Carter notes that it is only here where emphasis shifts from purpose to topic. This type of ESP is uniquely concerned with anticipated future English needs of, for example, scientists requiring English for postgraduate reading studies, attending conferences or working in foreign institutions. However, I argue that this is not a separate type of ESP. Rather it is an integral component of ESP courses or programs which focus on situational language. This situational language has been determined based on the interpretation of results from needs analysis of authentic language used in target workplace settings.

Characteristics of ESP Courses

The characteristics of ESP courses identified by Carter (1983) are discussed here. He states that there are three features common to ESP courses: a) authentic material, b) purpose-related orientation, and c) self-direction.

If we revisit Dudley-Evans' (1997) claim that ESP should be offered at an intermediate or advanced level, use of authentic learning materials is entirely feasible. Closer examination of ESP materials will follow; suffice it to say at this juncture that use of authentic content materials, modified or unmodified in form, are indeed a feature of ESP, particularly in self-directed study and research tasks. For Language Preparation for Employment in the Health Sciences, a large component of the student evaluation was based on an independent study assignment in which the learners were required to investigate and present an area of interest. The students were encouraged to conduct research using a variety of different resources, including the Internet.

Purpose-related orientation refers to the simulation of communicative tasks required of the target setting. Carter (1983) cites student simulation of a conference, involving the preparation of papers, reading, notetaking, and writing. At Algonquin College, English for business courses have involved students in the design and presentation of a unique business venture, including market research, pamphlets and logo creation. The students have presented all final products to invited ESL classes during a poster presentation session. For our health science program, students attended a seminar on improving your listening skills. They practiced listening skills, such as listening with empathy, and then employed their newly acquired skills during a fieldtrip to a local community centre where they were partnered up with English-speaking residents.

Finally, self-direction is characteristic of ESP courses in that the " ... point of including self-direction ... is that ESP is concerned with turning learners into users" (Carter, 1983, p. 134). In order for self-direction to occur, the learners must have a certain degree of freedom to decide when, what, and how they will study. Carter (1983) also adds that there must be a systematic attempt by teachers to teach the learners how to learn by teaching them about learning strategies. Is it necessary, though, to teach high-ability learners such as those enrolled in the health science program about learning strategies? I argue that it is not. Rather, what is essential for these learners is learning how to access information in a new culture.

The Meaning of the Word 'Special' in ESP

One simple clarification will be made here: special language and specialized aim are two entirely different notions. It was Perren (1974) who noted that confusion arises over these two notions. If we revisit Mackay and Mountford's restricted repertoire, we can better understand the idea of a special language. Mackay and Mountford (1978) state:

The only practical way in which we can understand the notion of special language is as a restricted repertoire of words and expressions selected from the whole language because that restricted repertoire covers every requirement within a well-defined context, task or vocation (p. 4).

On the other hand, a specialized aim refers to the purpose for which learners learn a language, not the nature of the language they learn (Mackay & Mountford, 1978). Consequently, the focus of the word 'special' in ESP ought to be on the purpose for which learners learn and not on the specific jargon or registers they learn.

Key Issues in ESP Curriculum Design

In this section, key issues in ESP curriculum design for ESL contexts are examined. The issues explored here are a product of my professional experience developing the curriculum for Language Preparation for Employment in the Health Sciences. This experience has been supported with a review of the literature on ESP.

Abilities Required for Successful Communication in Occupational Settings

Cummins (1979) theorized a dichotomy between basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). The former refers to the language skills used in the everyday informal language used with friends, family and co-workers. The latter refers to a language proficiency required to make sense of and use academic language. Situations in which individuals use BICS are characterized by contexts that provide relatively easy access to meaning. However, CALP use occurs in contexts that offer fewer contextual clues.

After having developed and taught the curriculum for Language Preparation for Employment in the Health Sciences, I have reached the conclusion that there are three abilities necessary for successful communication in a professional target setting. I have added a third skill or ability to Cummins' theory in order to complete the ESP picture.

The first ability required in order to successfully communicate in an occupational setting is the ability to use the particular jargon characteristic of that specific occupational context. The second is the ability to use a more generalized set of academic skills, such as conducting research and responding to memoranda. With the health science group, this was largely related to understanding a new culture. The third is the ability to use the language of everyday informal talk to communicate effectively, regardless of occupational context. Examples of this include chatting over coffee with a colleague or responding to an informal email message.

The task for the ESP developer is to ensure that all three of these abilities are integrated into and integrated in the curriculum. This is a difficult task due to the incredible amount of research required. Close collaboration between content experts and the curriculum developer was not possible during the development stages for the health

science curriculum. In retrospect, the experience and knowledge of health science faculty would have lessened the workload in this area tremendously. Fortunately, there does exist a wealth of information on academic and general language skills. The trick involved in the interweaving process is to develop a model that best integrates the restricted repertoire with the academic and general for the learners in question.

In the case of Language Preparation for Employment in the Health Sciences, there were so many possible potential future occupational settings to research and I had to cope with limited development time. I simply opted to identify academic skills that were transferable to most health science occupational settings. This required an inventory of all possible health science occupations, identification of the past occupational experiences of the learners in the pilot program, and identification of academic language skills. All of this information was then cross-referenced with the general language objectives for the identified group of learners.

It is my opinion that because ESP requires comprehensive needs analysis and because the learning-centred curriculum is not static, it is impossible to expect that the developer be in a position to identify the perfect balance of the abilities noted above for any particular group of learners. In reality, a large part of this responsibility is that of the instructors; it is the instructors who are in the best position to identify changing learner needs and who are in the best position to ensure that all students receive a balanced diet of language.

Content Language Acquisition Versus General Language Acquisition

When I first received the proposal for the health science pilot program, the ratio of content to language instruction had already been identified: 2 hours of content lecture for every 23 hours of language/content instruction. Given this starting point, one of the central questions that needed to be answered was how much time would be devoted to vocabulary and content knowledge acquisition, as opposed to the time spent developing general and academic language skills.

Although a tentative balance was drafted prior to classroom delivery, the balance shifted on a daily basis. In the end, it was determined by both instructors that more time need be allotted for pure content and more time need be created for team-taught activities. The final weekly breakdown of 25 hours consisted of the following:

- 8 hours of Integrated Language Learning (ESL instructor)
- 6 hours of Health Science Lectures (content instructor)
- 4 hours of Workplace Communication (jointly facilitated)
- 3 hours of Medical terminology (content instructor)
- 2 hours of Pathophysiology (content instructor)
- 2 hours of Applied Computer Skills (ESL instructor)

The first thing that is apparent from this breakdown, is that time devoted to developing general language and academic skills far outweighs the time devoted to the acquisition of content knowledge. However, it was recommended that the content instructor be present for a considerable more amount of time; it was observed that there was such an overlap between content knowledge, academic proficiency, and general language that we could better interweave many of the activities as a team.

The learners indicated that they desired more opportunity to interact with the content instructor, in addition to attending the old-style lecture format. Indeed, both instructors noted that the students were highly motivated to attend the content lectures and yet additional support from the ESL instructor was required because, in order to meet the learners' needs, we could not teach the restricted repertoire in isolation. What is more, it was highly unreasonable to assume that the content instructor would take on the role of ESL instructor.

Finally, it was observed that the majority of the students with post-secondary training in the health sciences possessed a basic knowledge of Greco-Latino terminology. Consequently, we determined that less time would be devoted to learning terminology in order to follow the content lectures. Most of the students could already recognize meaning, but not produce it. It was determined that more time should be allotted for work on pronunciation and learning the spelling of health science terminology. Moreover, much more time would be spent on communication for the workplace; in this way, they students would be afforded ample opportunity to integrate and practice the restricted repertoire acquired in content lectures and the everyday language acquired in the language classes.

Heterogeneous Learner Group Versus Homogeneous Learner Group

There are a number of variables which characterize a heterogeneous learner group. I argue that variations in language level, prior education and work experience can be accommodated only to a certain extent. Minimum entrance standards must be established in the areas of language level, motivation, and prior education and experience. Most importantly, these standards must be strictly enforced at the time of placement.

Due to the limited time frame for the development of the health science pilot program curriculum and the fact that the program was scheduled to begin in the middle of the academic term, the minimum general language entrance requirement was dropped from high to low intermediate in order to generate a large enough pool of suitable candidates. Although no pre or post-test was to be administered by evaluation team, I was required to recruit twice the number of students to be admitted to the program: 20 students would be in the pilot group and 20 would be in the control group. In the end, 16 students formed each group. The result was that there were some genuinely intermediate students mixed in with a majority of high intermediate, and a few advanced students.

Based on observations of a four-week English for Business course, Yogman and Kaylani (1996) conclude that there appears to be a minimum proficiency level that is required for students to participate in predominately content-related activities. This supports my finding that those students who were struggling to catch up with general language proficiency simply found the content activities to be overwhelming.

One student in the health science program commented that she had to learn both the language and the content at the time. This particular student was at such a disadvantage because, whereas the other students were doctors and dentists, she had no prior education or work experience in health science. Another student was an experienced doctor, but possessed a very low level of language proficiency. Either case would have been frustrating for anyone. One strategy we began to employ was to have the intermediate students focus on developing their listening skills during the content lecture. Those students without the background knowledge, who possessed the language skills, were to ask for clarification from their peers or instructors. The advanced students were encouraged to record as much detail as possible, carry out supplemental reading that pertained to the lecture topics and to assist their peers whenever possible.

Materials Development

Do ESP textbooks really exist? This is central question Johns (1990) addresses. One of the core dilemmas he presents is that "ESP teachers find themselves in a situation where they are expected to produce a course that exactly matches the needs of a group of learners, but are expected to do so with no, or very limited, preparation time" (Johns, 1990, p. 91).

In the real world, many ESL instructors/ESP developers are not provided with ample time for needs analysis, materials research and materials development. There are many texts which claim to meet the needs of ESP courses. Johns (1990) comments that no one ESP text can live up to its name. He suggests that the only real solution is that a resource bank of pooled materials be made available to all ESP instructors (Johns, 1990).

The only difference between this resource bank and the one that is available in every educational setting -- teachers' filing cabinets -- is that this one is to include cross-indexed doable, workable content-based (amongst other) resources.

It is my experience that this suggestion is not doable. If teachers are so pressed for time, will they have the time to submit and cross-index resources? Rather, I believe that there is value in all texts - some more than others. Familiarizing oneself with useful instructional materials is part of growing as a teacher, regardless of the nature of purpose for learning. Given that ESP is an approach and not a subject to be taught, curricular materials will unavoidably be pieced together, some borrowed and others designed specially. Resources will include authentic materials, ESL materials, ESP materials, and teacher-generated materials.

Note that an excellent point of departure for novice ESP curriculum developers is with lists of ESL publishers which have been made publicly available on-line. Browsing publishers' sites takes a few minutes, review copies can be requested immediately and copies can be sent express.

Concluding Remarks

This paper has discussed the origins of ESP, addressed key notions about ESP and examined issues in ESP curriculum design. The content of the paper was determined by a need identified based on my professional experience as an ESL instructor designing and delivering the content-based language program - Language Preparation for Employment in the Health Sciences. These issues, where possible, have been supported by current and pertinent academic literature. It is my sincerest hope that these observations will lend insight into the challenges facing the ESL instructor acting as ESP curriculum developer.

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What Are We Doing When We "Talk Science"?

Jack Kimball

Miyazaki Medical College Kiyotake, Miyazaki, Japan

Abstract

This paper describes the teaching of speaking within the paradigm of academic-content-based learning, concentrating on science. The paper suggests that when college-level advanced learners of English engage in talk about science, they are developing communicative and strategic competencies; that is, they are extending their abilities to convey meaning and to employ varieties of language for specific purposes. Forms and conventions of scientific discourse are examined to reveal rhetorical structures useful for both speaking practice and the genesis of speaking strategies.

Introduction

When we reflect on the purpose of oral language practice -- or of any language practice for that matter -- we are mid-debate between opposing schemata for envisioning what we are doing, schemata that derive from two revered epistemological and psychological traditions. On the one hand we can view speaking as rule-governed creativity that reflects what Chomsky calls competence. The speaker's competence is itself unobservable but "psychologically real," a mental grammar best researched at the de-contextualized level of the intrapersonal utterance, usually the sentence. This is the so-called rationalist schema associated with Chomsky (1965). On the other hand, an alternative, empiricist schema looks at speaking as a set of descriptive, and thus observable, habits conditioned by social and functional rules or contexts. Appropriate interpretation and conveyance of interpersonal messages in particular context constitute a communicative competence (Hymes 1972).

The rationalist schema yields a research and teaching agenda pertaining to structure and knowledge about language -- metalanguage; the empiricist schema focuses on situation, function and interaction. In this regard Widdowson (1978) draws the key distinction between rationalist-based linguistic usage and empiricist-based communicative use. The Chomskian tradition, when adapted for language teaching, stresses acceptable usage by way of analysis of grammatical structure and form. Ironically, while of course upholding the relevance of the de-contextualized approach for linguistic research, Chomsky takes a dim view of its application in the language classroom: "I am, frankly, rather skeptical about the significance, for the teaching of languages, of such insights and understanding as have been attained in linguistics and psychology" (1966:37). For classroom practice in a communication-driven skill such as speaking, the use of language in specific contexts comes to the fore.

The question is, What uses work best? One approach is the notional syllabus in which language content is manifested as specific functions together with associated ideas -- formulated as contextualized scripts for introducing oneself to new acquaintances, for example, or inviting, accepting, complaining, requesting and so forth. Here language is isolated into situational units, a process that parallels the emphasis on grammatical units in rationalist syllabi. Widdowson suggests, "the focus of the notional syllabus is still on the accumulation of language items rather than on the development of strategies for dealing with language use" (1979:249).

Indeed, a subset of communicative competence would be an emanating strategic competence, that is, a means for manipulating various registers to achieve communication goals and for repairing breakdowns in communication due to mistakes,

misunderstandings, distractions, etc. (Canale and Swain 1980, Savignon 1983, Bachman 1987). A further differentiation within this subset is the variations of strategy required for commonplace versus specialized domains of discourse. Cummins (1981) distinguishes between the context-embedded "basic interpersonal communicative skills" (BICS) and context-reduced "cognitive/academic language proficiency" (CALP). Notional-functional scripts situated in concrete social contexts, such as making a request to borrow a newspaper, would typify BICS. Relevant to college language teaching, however, and particularly with respect to advanced language learners speaking on science topics, of all these schemata and subsets it is strategic competence in the domain of CALP that we can inspect most profitably.

Scientific Discourse: Forms, Contents, Conventions

Turning to issues related to college language learners talking about science, we first need to emend the too-simple dichotomy between concrete commonplace discourse and abstract cognitive/academic discourse. While it is certainly accurate to characterize notional-functional scripts as referring to a recognizable social reality -- the "reality," for instance, of two acquaintances conversing, one pointing to and requesting to borrow the other's newspaper -- the authenticity of such a concrete reference is highly questionable within the more immediate social reality of the college classroom. And the relevance of this reference is all the more uncertain for advanced language learners whose academic courseload, in addition to studying English, might include practical research in the humanities and social sciences, laboratory experiments in the sciences, and so forth. In other words, although this is a recommended practice at beginning levels of language acquisition, attempting to replicate interpersonal realities like inviting, accepting, complaining and requesting can often lead to artificial classroom procedures -- procedures that are concrete in form, but abstract in their distance from immediate, academic-based contexts.

Conversely, speeches, dialogues and other sorts of discourse on academic topics such as science constitute authentic, concrete processes for the college classroom, concrete in the sense that they comprise real experiences underpinning students' general education. The discourse forms of academic language surely entail conceptual abstractions, as we shall see, but the contents of such discourse have a direct bearing on learners' cognitive development and scholastic achievement.

The abstract forms of scientific discourse, moreover, are frequently addressed to real phenomena and attendant questions of causality. The abstractions of other academic fields, such liberal arts as literary criticism, ethical theory or social analysis, for example, typically refer to mental constructs like "tone," "justice" and "motivation." While these fields offer rich content for language learning as well, one advantage of scientific discourse is that its abstractions commonly refer to verifiable sense data and to what Kuhn (1970) describes as "useful problems." Whereas the discourse focus of fields in the liberal arts utilize emotional, ethical, logical and stylistic appeals, the focus of scientific discourse is almost exclusively logical, relevant to physical reality, and explicative in goal. Explanation is key as Chomsky asserts:

It is hardly open to question that natural sciences are concerned precisely with the problems of explaining phenomena, and have little use for accurate description that is unrelated to problems of explanation. (1965:589; cited in Kinneavy 1980:84)

Further, scientific explanation follows a highly conventional and transparent pattern of rhetorical development, militating toward a superordinate classification of causality by means of exemplification. Rhetorician James Kinneavy writes:

Sometimes causal explanation comes to be stated in terms of a general principle of which the event to be explained is an example... This is sometimes called deductive

explanation. It actually establishes the thing to be explained...as a member of a class... In actuality, this is explanation by classification... (85)

Another facet of the conventionality and transparency of scientific discourse is its concern for the literal and its reliance on evidence. Science, as Aristotle observes, is primarily concerned with "things"; the things it addresses are "an already articulated body of problems, data, and theory...to which the scientific community is committed" (Kuhn:136). The style of scientific discourse in English is also conventionalized, weighted toward brevity and a bee-line simplicity whose origins go back to the Renaissance and the establishment of stylistic objectives by the Royal Society. Sprat, Society historian, notes that these objectives were "to reject all amplification, digressions...to return back to the primitive purity and shortness when...so many things [were expressed] in an equal number of words." He characterizes the "purity" of the discourse as "a clear, naked, natural way of speaking...bringing all things as near the mathematical plainness as they can" (cited by Kinneavy:170).

Maxims, Metaphors and Discourse Processes as Strategies

The Royal Society "plain style" and the Aristotelian preoccupation with evidence permeate academic and even general discourse in English. For example, semanticist H. P. Grice (1975) has specified "maxims" associated with his Co-operative Principle. These maxims re-formulate the conventions outlined above into normative strategies for an efficient exchange of factual information, strategies which are applicable, as Grice sees it, in all communication. Grice's maxims for quality stipulate: Do not say what you believe is false or that for which you lack evidence. The maxim for relation: Be relevant. Maxims for manner: Avoid obscurity, be brief and orderly (adapted from Kempson 1977:69). Whether and how these maxims apply to general communication are moot points. More important, these maxims are the bedrock for fluent discourse in a variety of scientific fields. In a guide to composition in biology, for instance, Pechenik (1987) urges us to write "to illuminate, not to confuse," to make a statement "and back it up" and to "distinguish fact from possibility" (4-5).

Science privileges facts but it advances by way of speculation. Thus the role of scientific metaphor in model-building qualifies Grice's maxims concerning truth and evidence. Metaphor is a special case of not telling the "truth." As Kinneavy suggests,

science usually prefers the literal to the nonliteral term -- that is, figures of speech are often out of place [but] models and analogies are nonliteral terms and are necessary in science... (177)

Citing the Watson-Crick "double helix" model of DNA in which a genetic "message" "transmits" "information," Halloran and Bradford (1984) illustrate the priority given figures of speech in synthesizing and presenting novel ideas. They conclude,

No synthesis could ever be achieved, no models postulated, no paradigms established if science relied wholly upon "careful observation" for its theories. Model-building requires an inductive leap; carefully recorded examples must be synthesized into a logical premise, and then be further verified and expanded by traditional scientific method. For this, science must exploit the power of metaphor... (183)

Model-building and practice in making analogies and metaphors afford a powerful strategic technology for discovering and interconnecting scientific concepts. Trimble (1985) categorizes metaphor and analogy as a kind of applied comparison/contrast which in turn is one of various "rhetorical techniques" available to science. Other techniques are examples, illustrations, cause/effect, order of importance, and time/space order. Trimble explains that these processes operate as "cohesive ties"; they "bind together the items of information" within larger linguistic frameworks which he labels "rhetorical functions" (52). The three most common functions -- description, definition, classification -- are fundamental to organizing scientific information, each "capable of being isolated and

studied separately" (69). This last insight is central to our final point of discussion, translating discourse features into classroom procedures.

Teaching Procedures

Trimble's techniques and functions are, in classical rhetorical terms, modes of invention, that is, processes for finding and communicating ideas. Within the domain of teaching scientific discourse Trimble has re-worked these modes of invention, restoring them to their original heuristic value, so that student involvement in rhetorical analysis transforms itself into a system of discovery. While Trimble concentrates on written discourse for his examples, following is an adaptation of his five-step procedure for language learners that could be used as a guidepost by language instructors in establishing objectives and developing materials for speaking practice.

- Step 1. Determine the core generalization and structure of the discourse.
- Step 2. Determine the rhetorical techniques -- focus on the relationships between items of information.
- Step 3. Determine rhetorical functions for presenting major items of information.
- Step 4. Determine the grammatical elements that govern the functions.
- Step 5. Determine often-confused vocabulary. (69-70)

To take one function, classification, as a case in point, language learners might practice speaking about both formal and informal classes of phenomena. As Trimble suggests, students could operate two ways with their classifying, that is, start with two or more member-phenomena and find the class, or start with the class and find its members. To introduce such activity Trimble recommends that instructors "have students orally make several levels of classification about familiar things easy to classify -- cars, sports, stereo systems, etc." (85).

In formulating the interactive use of metaphor and rhetorical modes of invention as discussion items, the instructor needs to consolidate components of genuine communication tasks. These include a purpose for the communication, a focus on message (rather than grammar), negotiation by learners to supply some missing information (an "information gap" in current parlance), and most important, a choice of linguistic resources determined by learners (see Ellis 1982, Nobuyoshi and Ellis 1993). Nunan (1991) lists the following steps, among others, for the instructor to follow in developing classroom activities: 1) identify target task -- for example, classifying chemical compounds; 2) provide students with language models; 3) concentrate on the "enabling skill" -- in our case, perhaps, reading and oral practice in two-way classifying.

A string of interrelated tasks can be devised for the speaking class as "project work," including "gathering of information through reading, listening, interviewing etc., discussion...problem solving" and so forth (Hedge 1993). Project work of this sort offers a disciplined means for sustaining genuine communication, but it requires that the language teacher redistribute the weight of traditional classroom authority. While the individual instructor maintains responsibility for setting a coherent curriculum for the language class, for instance, it might be helpful to collaborate with science faculty by arranging subject-area content to complement students' other coursework. The instructor's role with students, rather than that of lecturer, would be better viewed as coordinator and partner in research, discovery and assessment. Developmentalist Jerome Bruner describes this as teaching in the "hypothetical mode" in which

the teacher and the student are in a more cooperative position with respect to what in linguistics would be called "speaker's decisions." The student is not a bench-bound listener, but is taking a part in the formulation and at times may play the principal role in

it. He will be aware of alternatives and may even have an "as if" attitude toward these, and he may evaluate information as it comes... I think it largely the hypothetical mode which characterizes the teaching that encourages discovery. (1979:83)

The hypothetical mode requires reciprocal teaching in which students and instructor take turns asking questions, summarizing, clarifying, etc. The instructor provides models, as suggested above, but also by way of hints and reminders the teacher coaches students into fuller practice in scientific discourse and independent reflection with respect to discourse strategies for becoming more fluent -- strategies like making analogies, defining terms, and the like. These communication tasks, project work and reciprocal teaching suggest only a partial solution to the puzzle of teaching speaking about science. But the direction is plain. The value of such a teaching enterprise is its relevance to students' present and future needs. Language instruction that foregrounds students' needs points to meaningful practice and meaning-making skills for learners to assume responsibility for their own discovery and fulfillment.

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A Description of the Skill-based EAP Training for Pre-Departure Students at the British Council in Jakarta

Tim Bell
Kuwait University, Kuwait

Traditional skill-based EAP courses, as opposed to subject content-based courses have provided programs of pre-departure training for students destined for study in English medium countries at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. Recently however, these programs have been criticized on the grounds that they fail to bridge the perceived gap between such courses and academic courses on degree programs. This paper presents a description of the pre-departure programs in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) offered to students at the British Council in Jakarta, Indonesia. It examines the content of these courses, detailing the balance of language input, skills development and cultural orientation provided. The view that skill-based courses themselves provide adequate pre-departure preparation is then advanced and defended.

Introduction

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) is a recognised branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Like ESP, it incorporates both learners' needs and target situation analyses (Hutchinson & Waters 1987: 53-64), but it is arguably more clearly focused than the more broadly-based ESP, in that the eventual use that students will make of the language (i.e. academic study) is very clearly defined. The quality and effectiveness of the training offered to students aspiring to study in English medium universities is a matter of great concern to those involved in training learners in EAP. This is because critical decisions concerning students' careers and therefore their future prospects are increasingly becoming contingent upon academic success at tertiary level. EAP trainers therefore carry considerable responsibility for ensuring that learners are placed in the best possible position to cope with the challenges of academic study.

There appears to be a widely held perception that a gap exists between performance standards in the ESL/EFL language classroom and in the academic, content-based courses that EAP learners will proceed to follow at Universities in English medium learning environments. Krashen (1982:172, 1985:70) calls it the transition problem (his italics), and suggests that immersion-style, comprehensible subject matter teaching can help to bridge this gap between the language class and the academic mainstream. He refers to sheltered, content-based courses, in which native speakers are excluded, so as to ensure that input is comprehensible, and argues that such approaches have contributed greatly to the success of the Canadian immersion programs. Citing work carried out at the University of Ottawa (Edwards et al 1984, Wesche 1984), he provides evidence of the effectiveness of comprehensible subject matter teaching in the learning of both the target subject (psychology in this case) and in second language proficiency.

Gaffield-Vile (1996:108) appears to point to possible weaknesses in standard, skill-based EAP courses, suggesting that non-native speakers are placed at a disadvantage, and that inadequate preparation for University study may, in some cases lead to student failure at the end of the first year of the student's undergraduate program. How serious then, is this gap and how does it arise? One logical way to address this question would be to look at comments made by pre-session course tutors at Universities on students preparing to enter faculties, and then to compare these views with those of academic tutors in the faculties. Tonkyn et al (in Blue: ed, 1993), reporting a study carried out at the University

of Reading, found that while pre-sessional course tutors and faculty academic tutors agreed in the majority of cases on whether or not a student's English was 'adequate for academic study', the criteria for adequacy itself continue to lack precise definition. They further stress (1993:47) the 'need to give flesh-and-blood embodiment to the concept of inadequate English for academic study'. Cases in which departments had decided that it would have been better for a student with a low language rating not to have been admitted to a course were reported to be very few in number.

If the gap in English language proficiency between pre-departure students and students performing satisfactorily on degree courses is not as great as has been widely argued, perhaps the weaknesses are more closely related to problems with study skills, inadequate learner training, inappropriate strategies for study (especially in the critical listening, reading and writing skills) and the culture of teacher dependence prevalent among overseas students from many parts of the world (Furneau et al., 1991). This article will now turn to a description of the many ways in which a traditional, skill-based, pre-departure EAP course (in this case at the British Council Language Centre in Jakarta, Indonesia, is ideally suited to dealing with such learner training, awareness-raising, and orientation to the target academic culture.

Description of the Program

The pre-departure EAP courses at the British Council English Language Centre in Jakarta are organised into a seven-part structure. The current components are: language upgrading, listening, speaking, reading, writing, learner training and study skills and cultural orientation. We shall deal with each of these elements in turn. Reference will be made to the particular demands of the IELTS test in describing work on each of these components.

Language Upgrading

Typically, EAP courses in the language centre range in length from 12 to 24 weeks, though some shorter, highly intensive, IELTS exam-focused programs are also offered. The early weeks of these programs include an explicit focus on the quality of learners' language production (i.e. formal correctness in speech and writing). This begins with a series of diagnostic speaking and writing activities, followed by sensitization to mistakes made in oral and written work. In composition work, teachers will typically introduce a system of correction symbols, such as that provided in coursebooks like *Headway: Upper Intermediate* (Soars & Soars, OUP, 1987). Learners are inducted into the process of editing their written work thoroughly for language mistakes, so as to raise their awareness of the language system as a whole and set priorities for improvement in further assignments produced as the course progresses. Spoken language accuracy is addressed through language laboratory classes, in which learners are able to record themselves and receive individual feedback on their mistakes. Although many published pronunciation courses tend to focus on exercises in which 'problem' sounds are isolated for individual attention and practice in articulation of vowels and consonants, our materials have been developed to extend this work and include longer sequences at the suprasegmental level, together with the integration of material practised into extended stretches of natural, spoken discourse. Individual learners are regularly tutored on their language production, through de-controlled sessions in the self-access centre, where the teacher is able to devote time and attention to student-specific learning problems.

The language competence of learners entering the EAP programmes is assessed using standardized tests of written and spoken language. Depending on the entry level of the group, the language input in the programs will include an explicit structural focus. This may be a review of the tense system, a focus on complex or problematic structures (such as modals or the conditional perfect), and/or a remedial strategy aimed at aspects such as noun-verb agreement, prepositions or articles. In oral work, early emphasis is

directed at accurate formation of questions, word and sentence stress, intonation patterns in relation to politeness, and the selection of appropriate levels of formality in speech (there are explicit indications of appropriate registers in IELTS interview tasks).

Listening

Training in the listening skill focuses on a wide range of situations relevant to learners' likely real-life exposure when they arrive in an English speaking country. They are introduced to global and intensive listening, trained in strategies such as recognizing key words, tolerating uncertainty, recognizing markers of emphasis, sequence and attitude, and made familiar with referential devices used to structure spoken discourse. A range of material is presented involving individual and group interaction, types of discourse and patterns of information exchange. Critical listening 'genres'² in which training is given include monologues (e.g. stories), dialogues (e.g. phone calls), group discussions, lectures, presentations, recorded announcements (e.g. railway stations), messages (e.g. answerphone recordings) and news items from live television (e.g. BBC WORLD). Much of the strategy work emphasizes anticipation and prediction skills, so as to address learners' innate fears about non-comprehension and becoming overwhelmed by problems of rapid pace, unfamiliar accents and attitudinal features associated with aspects of pronunciation (particularly stress and intonation).

Speaking

Classroom oral work is closely integrated with all other language skills, both to realize the aims of the language upgrading component and to provide opportunities for recycling, revision, extension and expansion of learners' lexical resources, a critical objective of the program as a whole. Activities center around group discussions based on themes and issues presented through other media, such as written text, audio tape, video or computer (via Internet). Most of this work is fluency-based and focuses on the quality of the argumentation, degree of support, exemplification, opinions expressed and articulation of ideas relevant to the topics under discussion. In the Indonesian context described here, it is vital that learners are given opportunities to develop and express ideas freely and openly and to construct arguments in their thinking, which can later be expressed in writing. Critical thinking; particularly the freedom to question the validity of propositions and their assumptions is the central platform of a successful approach to academic study in Western contexts. However, as Ballard (in Crooks & Crewes, eds, 1995:151) reminds us, there are 'social and cultural constraints on the expression of such thinking'.

Reading

The reading component of our pre-departure program has recently undergone something of a revolution, due to the now very pervasive influence of the Internet. The approach to reading has traditionally been to draw on the very wide range of skills and strategies materials published in the 1980s (c.f. Sim & Laufer-Dvorkin 1982, Kennedy & Hunston 1982, Walter 1982, Elliot & Strutt 1984, Romstedt & Tevis McGory 1988), so as to expose EAP students to a variety of text types and topics. Classroom work then focused on skimming and scanning, developing reading speed, intensive reading and building up students' ability to tolerate uncertainty, access background knowledge predict linguistic and rhetorical features of texts and develop interpretation skills. However, not only has the theoretical basis of reading 'skills' and 'strategies' been called into question (Rosenshine, in Spiro, Bruce & Brewer (eds) 1980, Susser & Robb 1990), but most such materials tend to concentrate on short texts and a limited range of topics. EAP students, on arrival for courses in English medium countries will be exposed to very challenging reading material intended primarily for educated native speakers.

Our response to the above challenge has been to shift the focus in reading materials towards fully authentic texts obtained via the Internet, and through exploiting the

resources of the British Council Library more exhaustively. Research work based on academic journal articles, books, magazines and other reference publications now forms an integral part of the EAP program. The great advantage of this approach is that it allows pre-departure students to study subject content. In effect, we have therefore subsumed the study of subject content under the aegis of the traditional skill-based paradigm without making it the central pillar of the training program. This is because we believe that what EAP learners need first and foremost are the study skills required to cope with the huge volume of reading they are going to face on arrival in an English medium environment. The study of short texts followed by comprehension questions will in no way equip them with the ability to interpret, digest, synthesize and evaluate the quantity of material that will face them in Britain, Australia, Canada or the US.

Writing

The early stages of writing skills work on our EAP courses is closely linked with the language upgrading component. Starting at the sentence level, learners are first trained to link concepts using simple conjunctions. They then proceed to work on complex sentences and a wider range of cohesive devices, building up to a focus on paragraph structure and content. This formal, structural focus is complemented by work on planning, organising ideas, developing, extending and supporting lines of argumentation. In this way, the writing component overlaps and extends the thinking skills developed in the speaking skills work described above. Glendinning & Mantell (1983) is an extremely popular and extensively exploited source of material for the above aims. As the program proceeds, more complex academic tasks are introduced and developed through the use of sources such as Jordan (1990), which is very useful for introducing learners to the range of discourse types appropriate for the writing test in the IELTS examination (e.g. comparison and contrast, description of process and procedure, cause and effect).

Learner Training and Study Skills

As well as classroom work, this component of the training involves the computer laboratory, language laboratory, and crucially, the study center. In the classroom, work focuses on making learners aware of their preferred learning styles and strategies, training them in note-taking from audio and written sources, assisting them in planning their learning and prioritizing tasks, helping them to categorize material learned by establishing and maintaining an efficient file with separate sections for grammar and vocabulary points, introducing them to brainstorming, mind maps, spider graphs and other task planning strategies. Another crucial role of the classroom in our EAP programs is that of inducting learners into the ethos of Western university academic culture; co-operative learning, problem solving, group discussions, information exchange, presentations, turn-taking conventions and the like. This is absolutely vital here in Indonesia, where typically learners have been socialized into a culture based on teacher-centredness, teacher-directiveness and of course, teacher-dependence.

Study Unit time is integrated into the learning program. Our EAP students use it for a variety of self-directed tasks, particularly those which follow up classroom work in the four skills. These activities include video viewing, listening to audio tapes (especially for lectures and IELTS examination training) and reading a whole range of material from coursebooks to test papers to newspapers to grammar books. Material for written work and oral practice, though less comprehensive than for reading and listening, is directed towards practice for the IELTS writing and speaking tests. The role of the trainer as a resource, guide, monitor, facilitator, friend and manager has not been overlooked, as we conduct frequent staff development sessions centred around the philosophy of independent learning and student autonomy. The challenge of weaning learners away from inappropriate, passive attitudes to study has been taken up and greatly supported by input from leading visiting British academics, who have given seminars and workshops on self-

access and independent learning. Crucial published materials packages for training learners to study include Gawith (1991) and Waters & Waters (1995).

Both the computer and language laboratories play roles in our approach to learner training and study skills work. The computer room is used not only for editing written work, correcting scripts, drawing graphs, tables, histograms, pie-charts and other visual material, in order to prepare learners for the IELTS writing test, but also for inducting learners into the practice of using computer laboratory resources; spreadsheets, printing, software, hardware, network function and dysfunction! Learners need to be made aware of both the creative potential and the frustrations (e.g. viruses and printer breakdowns) often faced when using such resources. The language laboratory, though less often used in learner training, is exploited in preparing learners for the speaking test in IELTS, particularly for role-play work, and for students' personal recordings and self-evaluation.

Cultural Orientation

A very important aspect of the pre-departure training we offer to learners proceeding to study in the UK is to orient them to aspects of the culture of the target learning environment. This can be divided into three general categories. One strand of this orientation looks at general aspects of living and studying in Britain (e.g. arrival formalities, shopping, travel, socializing, money management, sightseeing, food, weather, politeness conventions, religious faiths and the like). This focus aims to offer up to date information on students' survival needs in the early days and weeks after they arrive, and is very closely related to the oral work described above. A number of in-house British Council videos have been developed for this purpose over the years, and we supplement with the most recent information available from staff returning from leave visits. A second strand of the cultural orientation looks at the historical perspective, examining institutions such as parliament, religions, the Monarchy, structure of local government, the voting system, key historical figures, traditions generally, and the whole question of heritage. This component can be optional, and is often provided on longer courses, or where particular groups of students are planning to study for an extended period in Britain. The third aspect is that of familiarization towards the target academic culture. This includes an overview of the structure of both undergraduate and postgraduate courses, their aims and objectives, as well as more specific advice on conventions such as turn-taking in seminar groups, the nature of relationships between students and their academic and personal tutors, punctuality conventions, access to study facilities, aspects of hierarchy and a great deal more.

Conclusion

The above described programme of pre-departure training for postgraduates proceeding to study in Britain is both wide-ranging and thorough in the preparation it offers to learners. In Indonesia, at the British Council Language Centre in Jakarta, we prepare postgraduate students for departure to Britain on the Chevening Awards³ scheme. Open to all members of the Indonesian public, approximately 60 candidates are selected annually for scholarships to undertake postgraduate study in Britain from between 3,000 and 4,000 applicants. Both the English language and study skills abilities of the candidates we send to the UK are highly developed, and we believe that this is at least partly the result of the nature of the skill-based EAP training program described above. Such programs are therefore, we believe, ideally suited to pre-departure training for EAP learners intending to study in English medium learning environments. They provide guidance, support, encouragement and above all, motivation for our learners to achieve academic success and then to return to Indonesia and contribute to the development of their country.

Using evidence from the learning successes of participants on the Canadian immersion programmes, Krashen has argued (1982, 1985) that sheltered, subject-content based teaching, in which native speakers are excluded and input is provided by non-native

English speakers, could lead to better performance in the target language, as well as in the target academic subject. While his argument is supported by some experimental evidence (cf. Edwards et al 1984, Wesche 1984), and by some of the conditions for optimal input for acquisition (e.g. relevance and interest level of subject content), some potential contradictions should also be noted. His affective filter hypothesis argues that low anxiety appears to be conducive to second language learning. We would suggest that neither immersion programs nor subject content based courses are likely to provide conditions of low stress. On the contrary, learner anxiety is raised by a combination of the new and unfamiliar environment in which they find themselves, and by the rigours of the Western academic conventions, to which they must conform. Furthermore, we believe that the exclusion of native speakers, a common practice in sheltered, content-based teaching, is no guarantee that the input the learners receive will be comprehensible.

The skill-based paradigm for pre-departure EAP training has served our learners in Indonesia very well in their preparation for study in Britain. This is supported by the excellent academic results these learners traditionally achieve in their studies. By providing cultural and academic orientation, comprehensive training in study skills and thorough preparation for the IELTS examination in the familiar and therefore stress-free environment of the learner's country of origin, our scholars not only benefit in academic terms, but they return to Indonesia very well equipped for the professional challenges they face in developing their country. The notion that skill-based EAP courses can be 'rather artificial and de-motivating' (Gaffield-Vile 1996:114) is certainly not the experience of our students on either our undergraduate or postgraduate schemes of pre-departure training.

Notes

1. In this article the term 'mistake' is used to denote "wrong language that a native speaker would not usually produce" (after Barton & Walton 1991:21).
2. The term 'genre' is here defined as "a distinctive category of discourse of any type, spoken or written" (after Swales 1990:33). The use of the term in connection with listening refers specifically to spoken text.
3. The British Chevening Awards is a scholarship program funded by the Foreign and Commonwealth Office which sponsors overseas scholars to attend Masters degree programs in Britain.

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Teacher's Tips: Online Grammar Teaching and Learning

Caroline Ho Mei Lin

Nanyang Technological University, Singapore

The access to a wide range of resources. The ease and speed of getting information to large numbers of students. The attractive layout and graphics. The links to numerous other sites. The students getting feedback without teachers having to mark their work...

These may easily entice and attract teachers to the Internet (or Net) with its plethora of resources and teaching materials. Not only is the amount of information accessible on the Net extensive but the rate of growth of the Net since its inception has been unbelievably rapid. Indeed, the World Wide Web (or Web) with which the Net is most commonly associated has itself grown since 1993 with the introduction of the graphical web browser software. The number of pages on the Web has doubled on the average of every 3 to 5 months since then. It is no wonder then that the growth of the Web is regarded to be 'unparalleled in the entire modern history of spoken and written communication' (Maddux, 1996, p. 64).

Grammar Resources on the Net

The available resources for grammar on the Net can broadly be categorised into two main types: information-based and teaching resources. These are sites which provide: information on grammar items including lists of grammar items, Frequently Asked Questions (FAQ) on correct grammatical usage, online grammar clinics/help centres/forums inviting questions with responses assured and also explanations of grammar rules with appropriate examples and teaching resources including lesson plans, worksheets and activities, tasks or exercises.

I would like to focus on the second area, namely, the teaching resources or materials available for grammar teaching and learning and share some pointers on the use of these resources, in particular, for individualised instruction and independent learning by students.

A careful selection and adaptation of available resources needs to be carried out in order to ensure that students learn to put to appropriate use their understanding of grammar to communicate meaningfully, appropriately and fluently. The onus is on teachers to integrate the available resources into their present instructional programme. The general approach and underlying principles shaping the nature of the content of sites vary. There may be a structured series of individual, uncontextualised sentences in a number of so-called grammar 'quizzes' for easy and fast review or practice. These could include multiple choice, matching, word ordering, changing word forms, classification, fill-in-the-blank, sentence/clause/phrase manipulation, sentence completion and creation. Other sites, however, offer tasks requiring more independent student research where the responses are essentially student-generated. For instance, students have to search the Web as a corpus for available data in where they collect and analyse examples of words or phrases used in authentic communication.

The purpose of using the resources available is of central concern: whether for remediation or as enrichment and extension activities. Ultimately, teachers need to exercise discretion in the appropriate selection and adaptation of resources or materials so as to maximise the potential of the resources on the Net. The resources should provide for flexible, self-pacing opportunities in order to meet the specific needs and address

particular areas of weaknesses of students. The sites may provide for language tasks from a range of competence levels and different entry points.

There is a need for teachers to select self-directed tasks and programmes that teach students how to work independently, explore, discover and learn to make choices. Increasingly as the new millennium approaches, there is a shift from meeting students' needs in terms of 'learning prescribed subject matter' to one of 'learning to learn and wider empowerment' (Hackbarth, 1996, p.255). The challenge is thus for us to empower our students, not just to provide meaningless drills, nor to control them in their choice of responses made. Only then can a greater ownership of classroom activities and responsibility for students' own learning be developed.

The quality of feedback to responses given is crucial in determining the usefulness of resources for independent learning. Feedback can be used to provide information to learners about their performance to enable them to use the information to correct their errors. On some sites, encouraging feedback and the necessary explanations to aid in understanding are given if not almost immediately, at least transmitted within a few days or so. There is sufficient support and guidance given in the form of elaboration and appropriate examples to aid students in their understanding of the grammar item in focus. However, in some sites, incorrect answers given may also not always have adequate explanations to help students' understanding.

Students also need opportunities to sufficiently challenge them and to stimulate their thinking skills as they engage in discovery activities which help them deduce grammar rules through appropriate activities. The degree of challenge and difficulty level of tasks from various sites differ markedly. The structured, isolated exercises are more predictable, being repetitive in nature with a more limited range of variety and do not necessarily challenge students to the same degree. The degree of interactivity provided by the sites whereby students are led to explore and think through their choices in coming to a decision is to be considered. Skills which develop students' thinking that include the following: induction and deduction, classifying, abstraction and rationalisation and justification are offered in some sites where opportunities for deduction, induction and constructing support for responses are provided. We need to work towards providing students the opportunity to discover and deduce grammar rules for themselves from the guided tasks given with appropriate notes and comments.

The use of a range of stimuli from text, graphics and sound (where available) in resources is to be carefully integrated in order to provide not only a variety of learning experiences but also cater to a range of learning styles and approaches to language learning. Some students require a visual stimulus in the form of graphic illustration which may be present as a trigger or stimulus for response to the text. Others may prefer a format of filling up tabular forms or in the form of a chart.

A knowledge of the linguistic terms and grammar rules alone does not necessarily imply an ability in knowing how to use the language appropriately and effectively. Tasks which merely engage students in scoring in purely structured tests or quizzes do not necessarily help develop students' proficiency or ability in using language effectively and appropriately in a communicative context. There is a need for materials or resources with a certain degree of authenticity and realism that parallel as closely to real life as possible the use of language. Sufficient contextual information and background material need to be included.

There is a need to consider if the online resources merely test or teach students grammar items. Not all sites consistently provide quick diagnosis and prompt feedback given to responses. Related to the issue of teaching through providing an enjoyable and worthwhile learning experience is the motivational factor that prompts the use of the resource, namely, whether there is the 'value addedness' of the material in helping students

acquire a better understanding and use of language as compared to existing print and audio-visual resources.

Conclusion

The Net has broken down the walls of time and space, giving every individual the ability to be a lifelong learner. We need, through teacher selectivity, monitoring, and appropriate adaptability or modifications, to provide opportunities and sufficiently prepare our students to work independently. Students, as research has shown, learn best through exploration. We, as language teachers, must consider how to expand their space and opportunities for learning. When students become actively engaged in discovering information for themselves, they will be able to solve problems and learn on their own. Then only can we say that we have effectively used information technology to expand and enhance independent learning in our classrooms and made it an integral part of classroom instruction.

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Integrative L2 Grammar Teaching: Exploration, Explanation and Expression

Pavel V. Sysoyev

The Tambov State University, Tambov, Russia

Abstract

This paper addresses the issue of L2 grammar teaching to ESL students with the focus on form and meaning. A method of integrative grammar teaching, consisting of three major stages (a) *exploration*, (b) *explanation*, and (c) *expression (EEE)*, is proposed. To illustrate how each of these stages function, several experimental lessons were conducted. The paper describes and discusses the lessons themselves, their rationale, and their implementation of the proposed method. An evaluative questionnaire conducted after the experimental lessons, shows that students preferred to learn L2 grammar using the *EEE method*, as opposed to form-based or meaning-based only approaches.

Introduction

Beginning in 1970's interest in the teaching of 'real-language' has increased as scholars have become more and more interested in the language used in various social and cultural settings. As a result, there has been a rapid shift of research and practice from audiolingual and grammar-translation methods to the exploration of communicative language teaching, and much attention has been paid to focusing on global and integrative tasks, rather than on discrete structures. In her entry to the Routledge Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics, Savignon (forthcoming) makes clear that "communication cannot take place in the absence of structure, or grammar, a set of shared assumptions about how language works..." Therefore, as she continues, Canale and Swain (1980) included grammatical competence into their model of communicative competence. However, a review of the research starting from 1970's (Ellis, 1997) shows that communicative L2 teaching was perceived as a departure from grammar in favor of focusing on the meaning only. Comparison of communicative (also referred as meaning-based) to form-based (also referred as structure-based) approaches in L2 teaching shows that communicative language teaching enables students to perform spontaneously, but does not guarantee linguistic accuracy of the utterances. On the other hand, form-based approaches focus on the linguistic and grammatical structures, which makes the speech grammatically accurate. But this accuracy is observed in prepared speech only, and students lack the ability to produce spontaneous speech.

There are not many studies that compare communicative to form-based approaches. Prabhu (cited by Beretta & Davies, 1985) conducted an experiment in communicative language teaching and found that the experimental group, which received meaning-based instruction, did well on the meaning-based test, but showed low results on the discrete-point test. The control group, on the other hand, having received structural instruction, performed better on the grammar structure tasks, rather than on the global and integrative tests. The outcome of this experiment is quite logical and obvious and can be explained by the washback effect. Students' performance was better on the tasks they were trained for. The question then rises, what method is the most effective? It has become popular these days to refer to the goals and needs of students. Therefore, if students need grammar for communication, it should be taught communicatively, that is, meaning-based. On the other hand, if students need the grammar knowledge to be able to translate from L2 to L1, and that is what they are going to be graded on, then form-based approaches will

be more appropriate. However, these are polar opposite positions that leave no room for nuance.

In learning an L2 grammar, students face a dilemma. On the one hand, students need to know the rules, as that is what they are tested on at schools. On the other, with a number of foreign visitors, or living in an L2 country there is a good need for communication in an L2. That is why there is a need to look at the ways of combining *form* and *meaning* in teaching foreign languages.

Integrative Grammar Teaching

As a possible solution, integrative grammar teaching combines a form-based with a meaning-based focus. Spada and Lightbown (1993) have also argued "that form focused instruction and corrective feedback provided within the context of communicative interaction can contribute positively to second language development in both the short and long term" (p. 205). Thus, integration of form and meaning is becoming increasingly important in current research. Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell (1997) call it "a turning point" in communicative language teaching (p. 141), in which "explicit, direct elements are gaining significance in teaching communicative abilities and skills" (p. 146). Kumaravadivelu calls this a "principled communicative approach" (cited by Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell, 1997). Of course, depending on the students and their particular needs, either form or meaning can be emphasized. But in having various students with different needs in the same group, or having various needs in the same students, an integrative grammar teaching approach creates optimal conditions for learning for everyone in the classroom. Musumeci (1997) mentions the idea of connecting *form* and *meaning* in grammar teaching as a developing trend in reference to the proficiency oriented curriculum. She points out that students should be able to learn explicit grammar rules as well as have a chance to practice them in communication in the authentic or simulation tasks. Interestingly, Musumeci advocates giving students a chance to look at the language on a sentence level to see how certain grammatical rules are applied.

Integrative grammar teaching, which presupposes students' interaction while learning, can be viewed as a cognitive process of learning an L2 that reflects the sociocultural theory proposed by the Russian psychologist Vygotsky (1978). In talking about the development of a child's brain and his socialization, Vygotsky argues that there is a strong relationship between learning and cognitive development, in which cognition develops as a result of social interaction and sharing the responsibility with a parent or a more competent person. From an early age, children look to their parents for clues to acceptable social behavior. This brings us to Vygotsky's *zone of proximal development* (ZPD) in which there are two main stages of an individual's development. The first stage is what a child or learner can do by himself; the second stage is his potential, what he can accomplish with the help of another, more competent person. The distance between two points is called the *zone of proximal development*. Vygotsky also introduces the notion of a *mediator* - a person who helps students to accomplish what they cannot do by themselves. According to Appel and Lantolf (1994) and Lantolf and Pavlenko (1995), the role of the mediator in teaching an L2 is placed on an L2 teacher, whose task is to direct students in the right direction and help them reach the second stage in the ZPD.

Similar to Vygotsky's theory is the often-criticized Krashen's (1981, 1985) *Input Hypothesis*, also well-known as the "*i +1*" hypothesis. According to this hypothesis *i* represents students' current level of L2 proficiency, and *+1* is level of the linguistic form or function beyond the present students' level. Krashen's *Input Hypothesis* and Vygotsky's *Zone of Proximal Development* are basically describing the same cognitive process of social interaction in students' development. For Krashen, optimal input should be comprehensible, i.e. focused on the meaning and not on the form. In this study students

will be focusing on the form, but actively, through *communicative, meaning-based, exploratory assignments*. Even though well-criticized for lack of empirical evidence (Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Gregg, 1984; McLaughlin, 1987, etc.), the significant contribution of the Input Hypothesis to the field of applied linguistics is that it shows how teachers can focus on the actual level of students, adjusting the complexity of the material so that learners will be able to reach what initially was beyond their level.

In this research I would like to share my understanding of integrative grammar teaching, combining *the form* and *the meaning*, and propose what I call the *EEE method*, which consists of three equally important stages: *exploration, explanation, and expression*.

- **Exploration** is the first stage of integrative grammar teaching.

This stage is characterized by "*inductive learning*." Students are given sentences illustrating a certain grammar rule and are asked as a group to find the pattern and, with the help of the teacher, to formulate the rule. Many scholars have arguing against passive or inactive learning (see, for example, Johnson, 1995; and others) in which teachers refer to a textbook for explanations of rules. I completely agree with this critique. Students should be given opportunities to figure out everything by themselves, receiving help only when necessary. To make the task easier in the beginning, some grammatical forms or endings can be highlighted. Students tend to prefer assignments that allow them to explore the language. The knowledge they obtain becomes theirs and it is often much easier to remember. Exploration, then, works as an excellent tool for motivation.

- **Explanation** is the second stage of learning. As students find sequences or patterns in the examples they used during the *exploration* stage, the teacher or the students can summarize what was previously discovered, now focusing on the form. In some situations it may be essential to go to the textbook and together with students relate 'textbook rules' with the examples and findings of the *exploration* stage. The *explanation* stage is quite important because students feel safer when they know the rules and have some source to go back to in case of confusion or for future reference. Depending on students' proficiency, confidence, and actual performance, this stage can sometimes be omitted. However, students should be aware of and experience the strategies they may use to refer to the explicit rules, if needed.

- **Expression** is the third and last stage of the process. After discovering certain grammatical patterns in the *exploration* stage and getting to know the rules in the *explanation* stage, students start practicing the production of meaningful utterances with each other in communication and interactive tasks. The rationale of this stage is to provide students experience in applying their acquired knowledge in practice by making meaningful utterances. On the one hand, this may also serve as a motivation technique, since learners can actually see what they can do with what they have learned. On the other, the expression stage gives them the opportunity to practice communicating under the teacher's supervision, which usually assures the students that they can produce a correct utterance. Communicative interaction will be better if it is content-based, which allows students to relate it to something they care or know about, thus making it authentic.

To show how the proposed method of integrative grammar teaching can function and what students' attitude towards it will be, several lessons were conducted to see how the method really works and what its potential is. The subjects were 10 undergraduate international students from Russia (n=4), Ukraine (n=2), Taiwan (n=1), and China (n=3), whose TOEFL scores were lower than 500 points. All students were enrolled into the ESL

program and had previously experienced grammar teaching in their home countries. That explains the use of more complex grammatical constructions, compared to the rules used in the study. However, their mistakes in the first and third stages show that students have some knowledge, but it is not systematized. This experimental study was conducted during out-of-class time as free tutoring. The lessons were audio-taped and transcribed for analysis of classroom discourse.

As we examine the excerpts from the ESL lessons that were conducted based on the EEE method, the explanation and interpretation of the patterns of classroom participation will be provided. The topic of the lesson presented in Excerpts one, two, and three is "The formation and use of the present simple tense."

Excerpt 1.

The rule: The use of the ending -s with verbs in the present simple tense.

Stage 1. Students were given the following sentences and were asked to find the grammatical pattern. All instruction was done in English.

- 1). I go_ to school *every day*.
- 2). My **mother** works_ at the IBM company.
- 3). **Water** boils_ at 100 C.
- 4). My **friends** play_ tennis with me.
- 5). **They** ride_ bicycles.

1. T: Now, I want you to look at the board. You will see several sentences. In some of them we add "-s" to the verb, in some we do not. (T points at every sentence.) Thus, where ending "s" is, it is underlined (sentences 2 and 3). In sentences where we don't have "-s" (points at 1, 4, and 5) the underlining shows where it could be. Words in bold determine whether we should add "-s" to verbs or not. Your task will be to think why we sometimes use and sometimes don't use "-s" with verbs. Imagine yourself being scholars who are finding the pattern or making a new rule. Do you see any sequence?

2. Chien: because of the ... how do you say the ... the nouns in the first.

3. T: OK, so we do not use ending -s with "I", right?

4. Chien: Yes.

5. T: Ok. We don't use it with an "I". Do we use it with "mother"?

6. Chien: Yea.

7. T: Is it only with "mother" or with any noun?

8. ...

9. T: ok is "mother" singular or plural?

10. Olga: Singular, right?

11. T: If instead of "mother" we use a different word, such as "father" or "son" will we put ending "s" or not?

12. Olga: Yea, because that singular, right? If it is singular we should put "s."

13. T: But "I" is also in singular.

14. Olga: Yea

15. T: And "mother" is in singular.

16. Olga: Yea

17. T: So, why do we add "s" to the verb used with "mother" and don't add "s" with "I"?

18. Olga: ...

19. Chien: Because I is a first ... what is that?

20. T: First person.

21. Chien: Ye, and that's the third person.

22. T: That is a third person. Right. So, we do not add "s" with the nouns in the third person. Good, so, if we pass to "Water boils at 100 C". What is here?
23. Olga: We use -s in singular, right, and that is a third person, no not a third person ...
24. Alex: Third person? Yea.
25. T: Third person. That is correct. Ok, now let's go to the examples number 4 and number 5. Here we have "friends play" and "they ride."
26. Olga: That is plural, right? My friends play tennis with we, that is right because that's the plural, right?
27. T: Hu hu.
28. Olga: And they ride cycles. That's right, because it is plural too.
29. T: Good. So, can we form a rule?
30. Chien: Yes, you mean?
31. T: In what cases we add
32. Alex: -s at the end of the verbs?
33. T: Yea.
34. Alex: If the noun is singular and third person and this is present simple tense we add -s at the end of the verbs.
35. T: And if it is in plural?
36. Alex: we don't put -s.

Teacher-Student Interaction in Exploration of the New Rules

Excerpt one is a good example of an initiation, response, evaluation (IRE) interactional sequence (Mehan, 1979). The teacher begins by introducing the topic for group exploration and then elicits students' responses. The way the teacher gives the task in turn 1 is actually amazing and potentially very powerful: "Imagine yourself being scholars who are finding the patterns or making a new rule. Do you see any sequence?" This invitation to participate had a tremendous effect on the students. It contained several implicit messages. One was that because "making new rules" is a discovery, it is acceptable to make mistakes; students need not to be afraid of talking and expressing the thoughts. Another was encouraging confidence and students' potential, who were responsible for investigation and participation in the learning process. The flow of teacher-student dialogue, as a rule, depends primarily on the students' reactions, responses, and their understanding of what is to be learned. If students do not understand something, or misinterpret the rule, the teacher tries to control it and puts them on the right track by paraphrasing their statements or with leading questions. This occurs in turn 12, Olga overgeneralizes, saying "If it is singular we should put '-s.'" The teacher quickly responds in turn 13 by shifting students' attention to the first sentence "I go to school every day," by saying "But 'I' is also in singular," thus, telling them that the pattern they have found should be clarified or revised. Moreover, in turns 15 through 17, the teacher guides the cognitive thinking of the group by using leading questions, keeping the students' thinking under control. Here he says "But 'I' is also in singular [turn 13] and 'mother' is singular [turn 15]. So, why do we add -s to the verb used with "mother" and don't add -s with "I"?" [turn 17]. But a couple of times, in turns 18-20 and 31-32, students initiated the co-construction of the teacher-student dialogue, when some learners took the opportunity to answer teacher's question, which were addressed to a different student. We will get back to this later.

The classroom interaction is governed by the teacher and by the students, a situation which creates optimal conditions for learning. Thus, in turn 2, Chien does not know how to call "I" from the first sentence and asks the teacher to help him "because of the ... how do you say the ... the nouns in the first." Responding to Chien's implicit request,

the teacher does not give him the grammatical term Chien is expecting in order not to confuse the other students with terminology. However, it might have been done. By his answer in turn 3, "OK, so we do not use ending -s with 'I,'" instead of saying the word "pronoun," the teacher gives a clue to the group that an inductive style of learning is more important than the use of terminology and that they are expected to say what they see in a way that makes them feel comfortable. They were encouraged not to worry about the metalanguage. However, the interactional sequence (teacher-student communication) established at the beginning, breaks several times into "student-student" interaction. Thus, in turn 19, Olga answers the question, which was initially expected from Chien, saying "Because it is ... what is that ..." He knows the answer but does not have the lexical competence to respond immediately. In turn 24, Alex, breaking the student-teacher sequence, enters the discussion and helps with Olga's confusion "We use -s in singular, right, and that is a third person, no not a third person ...," by saying "Third person, yea."

The break in the teacher-student response sequence is a vivid example of how ZPD theory works. The teacher starts from where the students are and with his help they improve their knowledge of grammatical structure. As soon as they reach a certain level on which they (or at least some of them) feel confident, they are eager to show their understanding of the subject matter by, for example, breaking into the student-teacher dialogue. It completely agrees with Lantolf (1993) who emphasizes that ZPD is negotiated between the teacher and the student(s).

Paraphrasing is an important technique used in cognitive learning. Instead of giving the explicit answer, the teacher employs different strategies to help them discover the answer by themselves. In turn 7, the teacher says, "Is it only with "mother" or with any other noun?" and, not getting any answer from the group, the teacher rephrases the question in turn 9: "is 'mother' singular or plural." Thus, the teacher gives contextual clues as to what is expected. The clue turns out to be essential and in turn 10, Olga enters the discussion, saying "Singular, right?" In turn 30, the teacher asks Chien "Ok, can you formulate the rule?" Chien was eager to speak but did not understand the question, which explains his words ("yes, you mean?" [turn 31]). That made the teacher become more detailed in giving the task. "In what cases we add," in turn 32, was enough for Alex to grasp what is expected; moreover, he continued for the teacher: "'s' or 'es' at the end of the verbs?"

Inevitably, at least at the beginning of integrative grammar teaching, students look to and ask the teacher for clarification and confirmation that they are saying the right things. Vivid illustrations of this can be found in turns 3, 10, 24, 26, 32, when either by rising intonation or with the help of the clarifying word "right?," students expected approval on behalf of the teacher. Interestingly, it looks as if students picked up "right?" from the teacher, who used it first for clarification in turn 3. The response to students' request for clarification is usually done by the teacher in the form of a brief message ("hu, hu" [turn 27]). Sometimes the teacher does not give direct approval, but rather catches the correct idea from a student, extends it, and keeps the discussion going.

The analysis of the types of questions used by the teacher in the activity is reflected by students' participation. The activity starts with Yes/No questions (turns 1, 3, 5, and 9). They are primarily used when students participate only slowly. Thus, to ensure they are not lost, the teacher says, "OK. We don't use it with "I," do we use it with "mother"?" [turn 5]. When the students' participation decreases, alternative questions are used as the teacher reinforces and encourages students. There may be several explanations to students' slowing down. The first may be that the instructional method was new and even though students were told what was expected of them, they were not sure about what to do. The second may be in the nature of each new task. At first, when students were introduced to the unknown format, it was new and took much time to figure out how they were supposed to behave. However, when the learners grasped the idea about the

formation of the tense and were active in their responses, the teacher used *wh*-questions, which challenged them to think and directed them in the right way [turns 22, 31, 35].

This classroom participation structure follows the IRE interactional sequence. As Johnson's (1995) research shows, the teacher and students set implicit rules of interaction. At the beginning, at turn 1, students are waiting for the teacher to initiate the discussion by giving an assignment. Then, starting from turn 2, once students are asked a question, they receive the responsibility for completing the information cycle by interpreting what they see to make up grammatical rules. As it was stated above, in some cases some students break the established rule by answering their peer's questions without waiting for the teacher. As we saw, the teacher supported such break-ups, since it involved several students in the discussion, thus giving equal opportunities for interaction.

Excerpt 2.

Stage 2. In the *explanation* stage, the teacher ends the first stage and tells the students the explicit grammatical rules. Sometimes, depending on the level of difficulty of the particular grammatical construction, students may be asked to open the book to a certain page and with the teacher go through the rule.

T: Very good. You proved to be very good scholars and found the rule correctly. You were right. In using the present simple tense, we add ending *s* (*-es*) to the verb in the first person singular, that is, when it refers to 'he,' 'she,' and 'it,' like in our examples: 'My mother works at the IBM company,' and 'Water boils at 100 C' (shows on the board). In the other cases, like you can see here (points at the other examples) we have just the infinitive of the verb or the way it is in the dictionary without 'to.' You can use Present Simple tense to describe what you or others usually/often/sometimes do. For example, "My wife's name is Linda. She works at the Giant. She is a cashier. She likes to talk to people," and so on. Or we can use this tense to talk about facts that represent a universal truth. For example, "The sun rises in the East. Water boils at 100 C."

Even though this task is similar to the grammar explanations typical in the learners' L1 countries, the teacher tried to make this "routine" activity cognitive and that is why he compares examples used in the first stage with examples given in the textbook. Even though it sounds simple, this technique has a great effect on learners. It serves as a bridge between what students consider "theory," or what is usually given in textbooks, on the one hand, and "practical use," what students have discovered, on the other. In the *explanation* stage it is important to make a connection between the examples and the explicit rules. This connection will help learners build on what they already have discovered. After the explanation of the explicit rules, the teacher again gives students meaningful examples of how and in what situations the tense can be used. For example, the specific example about the teacher's wife illustrates the rules in a content-based utterance, which can be a good technique for modeling. After discovering the rules and providing students with models of their usage, it will be interesting to see how learners are going to use their knowledge in the actual interaction.

Excerpt 3.

Stage 3. Expression. The teacher divides students into pairs and gives them the task.

1. T: Now split into pairs and tell your partner about each of your family members, friends, relatives: where they live, where they work, what they like to do, and so on. You can imagine some things, if you want. Like if you do not have a brother, imagine that you do and think what he does. After you listen to each other's stories, you will be asked to report to the whole group about your partner's family or friends. Ok? Do you have any questions?

2. Ss: ...

Students split into pairs and began working in pairs. Interestingly, the tape recorder had been placed near one pair (Olga and Alla), who apparently did not see it. Their discussion was extremely valuable and interesting.

3. Olga: So what we need to do?
4. Alla: I will tell you about my family and you tell me about your. Then I will tell them about you and you about me.
5. Olga: So I ... not tell them about me?
6. Alla: No. You will tell them about me and I will tell them about you. Is it ok?
7. Olga: ye.
8. Alla: ok. My family is very big. I have mother, father, two sisters and a brother.
9. Olga: Wow, How old are they?
10. Alla: I don't know about parents. Tanya, my sister is 12, Dasha, another sister is 16, and Anton ... my brother is 14.
11. Olga: They are smaller than you.
12. Alla: Yes. So, now I will tell you about them.
13. Olga: OK
14. Alla: Tanya go ... goes to school. She likes to read books about love.
15. Olga: Wow. I like about love also.
16. Alla: Dasha plays on the piano. She goes to the musical school in my town. She plays very good. My brother Anton likes video games. He plays SEGA. And my parents works ... oh work at school.
17. T: How are you doing here? Do you have any questions?
18. Alla: No, it's ok.
19. Olga: it's ok.
20. T: ok.
21. Olga: Your parents teach?
22. Alla: Yes, they are teachers and they teach mathematics. Now, what about you?
23. Olga: ok. My family is small. My mother, father and I. My mother work at factory.
24. Alla: You must say "works".
25. Olga: ok. Works at factory. Why?
26. Alla: because mother is one, singular and third person, remember?
27. Olga: oh, yes. I forgot. My father works in his office. He is a businessman. He like ..ss to read newspapers about politics and likes to eat tasty food.
28. Alla: Does your mother cook or you go to the restaurants?
29. Olga: Yes.
30. Alla: what yes?
31. Olga: ah?
32. Alla: does your mother cook and you eat at home or you go to a restaurant? (more emphatically)
33. Olga: oh, at home. We eat at home. Yes, my mother cook..ss good food.
34. Olga: so, what do we need to do now?
35. Alla: he will ask me to tell about you and you will tell him about me.
36. Olga: ye, ye, ye.

37. T: Ok. Now your time is up. Now everyone will need to tell the whole class about your partner. Who wants to start.

In transcribing, I decided to pass other students' answers and go to the pair near the tape-recorder.

38. T: OK. Now, it is your turn. Who would like to begin, Olga or Alla?

39. Alla: I want.

40. T: ok.

41. Alla: Here is Olga. Her family is small. Her mother works at the factory and her father is a businessman. He likes tasty food, and he ... goes to the restaurants. And her mother cooks good food. And Olga studies English, he he.

42. T: Very good. It is so nice if a woman cooks well. Right? Ok. What about you Olga? Tell us about Alla's family.

43. Olga: Alla's family is big. Her father work and mother work, I mean her father and mother work at school. They teach mathematics. Her sister plays on the piano, and another sister reads books about love, hehe.

44. T: So, Alla has two sisters.? And one plays the piano. Interesting.

45. Olga: yes, she has two sisters. And she has one brother. He like(s) SEGA ... likes to play ... SEGA.

At the beginning of excerpt three, the teacher establishes the structure for student-student interaction. Arranged in pairs students take turns telling about their families using Present Simple Tense. Presumably, every student will have an equal opportunity to be the leader when telling about his family and then change the roles. The way it turns out in the classroom, though, shows the complexity of the group interaction. In turn 1, the teacher asks if there are any questions. Nobody asks any because there will be an opportunity to clarify the assignment with the peers and nobody wants to show that he/she did not understand the task. Once students are in a group, they assign themselves roles. In this case, the role distribution is based on "who knows what to do." Immediately after the students split into pairs, Olga asks Alla about the assignment "So what we need to do?" [turn 3]. Thus, from the very beginning in this particular pair Alla, being asked and being referred to as to the expert, will be playing the role of a leader.

Being a self-imposed leader and hence implicitly responsible for the completion of the task, Alla several times shifts back to the major topic of the discussion. We can see this in turn 12, "Yes, so now I will tell you about them." In turn 15, Olga reacts to the previous phrase and says that she "like[s] about love too." Alla simply ignores Olga's comment and sticks to the core topic of the discussion.

As leader, Alla seems to consider herself responsible for grammatical accuracy during the activity. She corrects herself, for example "Tanya go ... goes to school" [turn 14], "My parents works ... work at school" [turn 16] and she also suggests the right answer when her partner makes errors. In turn 23, Olga makes a grammatical mistake, saying "My mother work at factory." Alla immediately corrects her giving the correct for of her sentence "You must say 'works'" [turn 24]. Her correction leads to the explanation of the rule, in turn 26, "because mother is one, singular, and third person, remember?" Using the word "remember," Alla is trying to relate a particular grammatical feature from the context to the previous stages, thus showing the implementation of form in producing meaningful utterance. In some cases, Alla focuses on the content and asks Olga to elaborate when eliciting information about her mother [turns 28-32]. "Does your mother cook or you go to the restaurants?" [turn 28]. Olga does not understand the questions and responds "yes" [turn 29]. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) see the source of this misunderstanding in incorrect intonation. Quite often ESL/EFL students pronounce Yes/No questions and alternative questions with the same falling intonation, which does not show to the interlocutor the choice. In turn 30, Alla tries to clarify what the right

answer (from the choice) is, saying "What yes?" It was not enough for Olga, who does not understand what she needs to say "Ah?" [turn 31]. That makes Alla clarify the question more emphatically, making it more explicit "Does your mother cook and you eat at home or you go to a restaurant?"

Excerpt 3 represents a meaning based task, which reflects the nature of social interaction. It enables students to simulate a real-life situation, asking follow-up questions and reacting consequently. For example, in turn 9, after hearing that Alla has brothers, Olga interrupts her and asks "How old are they?" Or, in turn 28, after Alla heard that Olga's father likes to eat good food, she asks "Does your mother cook or you go to the restaurants?" What family members usually do is not important from the perspective of the task, but rather is a natural reaction of a listening interlocutor. Furthermore, in turn 11, after Alla tells her brothers' ages, Olga gives a remark "They are smaller than you" [turn 12]. Or after Olga heard that Alla's sister Dasha likes to read books about love [turn 14], she responds in turn 15, "Wow. I like about love also." Thus, the major advantage of combining form and meaning is that in practicing the form in meaning-based tasks, students negotiate the meaning in their L2. That results in spontaneous use of the target language.

Another interesting thing is that Alla, playing the role of the dyad's leader, is focusing on the form. For example, in turn 24, she says "you must say works." As for Olga, in the opposite, she is concentrating on the meaning. As I mentioned before, she shifts the natural flow of the interaction to subject matter that she finds more interesting [turns 9, 11, and 15]. Interestingly, in turn 21, Olga still remembers that Alla's parents work at school [turn 16] when the teacher interrupts the discussion to offer help [turn 17]. After the teacher leaves she restarts the flow of the discussion by asking Alla "Your parents teach?" Focusing on both form and meaning, even though doing so may be good, is very difficult to do. It seems that when Olga is focusing on the form, she uses the right form of the verb, for example, in turn 25, (speaking about Alla's father) "... works at factory." At the same time, in turn 27, "He like ...ss to read," and turn 33, "My mother cook ...ss good food," when Olga focuses on the meaning, she forgets about the form. That is exactly what Pica (1985) argues is the trouble for L2 learners when they switch their attention from the form to the meaning.

Group work in the third stage of the *EEE instructional method* is very powerful. Students are often less comfortable asking the teacher questions. Peer interaction creates a certain micro-world that enables the students to negotiate the assignment, clarify tasks, and even provide each other with corrections. It definitely develops their strategic competence (Savignon, 1972). In excerpt 3, students twice rejected the teacher's help and coped with the problem alone. It can be assumed, even though we obviously cannot be sure, that if the students did not have the opportunity to work and negotiate the meaning in groups, some questions would remain unsolved.

The last part of the excerpt (turns 38-45) shows the way the teacher reacts in listening to the students' talk. Instead of interrupting, which would be disruptive, the teacher listens to the very end and then corrects the mistakes by repeating the sentence in the grammatically correct way. In turn 43, Olga says "... plays on the piano," which is a typical mistake of ESL students whose L1 is Russian, in which the preposition 'on' identifies the object of the activity. The teacher, then, in turn 44 repeats and rephrases the sentence, emphasizing and modeling the correct use "So, Alla has two sisters. And one plays the piano. Interesting."

Although groups can be very effective, teachers should not be naive about group interaction. Even though it looks like students are creating meaningful utterances by themselves, the instructor holds the responsibility for making sure that there is no misuse, that 'leaders' do not impose wrong forms and rules, and that students have equal opportunities to participate and express their thoughts. In turn 18, Alla very abruptly

makes it clear to the teacher that his help is not wanted. However, we cannot be sure that Olga wanted the same. Thus, teachers need to find other strategies and techniques of controlling what is going on in groups, without explicitly "invading" a group.

An Evaluative Questionnaire

The method worked fairly successfully with the students. They were willing to respond and participate in classroom communication. To find out their attitudes towards learning grammar using the *EEE* method, an anonymous evaluative questionnaire was administered to the group after several lessons of integrative grammar teaching. The questions were formulated in such a way that the learners would be able to express their attitudes towards each task of the new method, as well as towards form-focused instruction only. The reliability of the instrument was investigated using the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 ($t(10)=26.28$ at $p<0.001$). Respondents were asked to indicate, using a five-point Likert-type scale (+2 to -2), their reaction to a series of statements by selecting one of the possibilities. The scores of the questionnaire were adjusted in such a way that a positive response meant a positive attitude towards integrative grammar teaching. The mean score was 1.33, which signifies the students were positive towards the *EEE* method. The questions on the questionnaire are presented in Appendix.

Conclusion

This paper described a way of combining form and meaning in teaching L2 grammar to ESL students. What I call the *EEE* method, consisting of three stages (*exploration*, *explanation*, and *expression*) has been proposed. A series of experimental lessons were administered to ESL students to study the patterns of classroom interaction during each of the suggested stages. As the analysis of the lessons shows, in the first, *exploration stage*, learners look at certain sentences and discover a grammatical pattern under an instructor's supervision. This stage also involves cognitive learning. Instead of being given an explicit rule, students spend some time discussing and discovering grammatical patterns, which, as the survey shows, helps them understand the rules. A teacher is given the role of the mediator working within the zone of proximal development. He starts at the point where his students are and pushes them, with his help, to grow and improve their L2 competence. In the second, *explanation stage*, the teacher explains explicit rules, which, as Lightbown (1980) and Pica (1985) show, will make their speech more grammatically accurate. It is important for the teacher to connect the rules to the examples from the exploration stage, which builds on what students already know, as well as provides content-based examples for the third stage. In the third, *expression stage*, students use new structures in interaction, producing meaningful utterances. This stage prepares L2 learners for spontaneous L2 use by helping them focus equally on form and on meaning in using their language in communication. Finally, the evaluative questionnaire, which was administered to determine the attitudes of the students towards a new method of grammar teaching, showed that students liked the method and thought its work was effective.

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Developing Intercultural Awareness and Writing Skills Through Email Exchange

Caroline Ho Mei Lin

Nanyang Technological University, Singapore

This paper is based on an international information technology-based collaborative project, initiated by the British Council, between primary level pupils from two schools in Singapore and Birmingham (UK). Through the electronic exchange of information, the pupils explored different writing tasks for various purposes and types of audience. The pupils' confidence, awareness and understanding of their own and their correspondents' cultures were enhanced in this intercultural and cross-curricular project. The study offered insights into how information technology can be used as a tool not only to develop pupils' confidence, language skills and creativity, but also to develop their sense of awareness of intercultural concerns, and of their being part of a dynamic, international, global community. The project also yielded discernible shifts in teachers' traditional roles and responsibilities, and the part they played in their students' participation as the project developed. Notable differences were also observed in pupils' expectation of teachers in the two countries.

Introduction

Current advances in computer technology and the rapid pace of change in the communications revolution are affecting the way English Language (EL) teachers use information technology (IT) to develop pupils' language skills. There is now a wide range of opportunities open to classroom practitioners from creating online self-access quizzes to the use of authentic online materials as input for activities, and for promoting collaborative projects through computer-mediated communication (Hegelheimer, Mills, Salzmann and Shetzer, 1996).

This paper focuses on the last area, namely, exploring how teachers and pupils in two countries collaborate on an international IT-based collaborative project for a specific purpose. The study also examines the role and place of the EL teachers over a period of time as the project develops, and discusses the implications for both the EL teachers and learners.

Background

In 1997 the British Council invited schools in UK and Singapore to register to work on a collaborative project. This involved producing a web site with details of the voyage of a British warship, HMS *Illustrious*, on route from UK to Hong Kong via Singapore. Two primary schools and two secondary schools in Singapore were selected to participate in this project with two primary schools and two secondary schools in Birmingham.

This paper focuses only on the primary schools involved in the project, Robin Hood Primary School in Birmingham and Xinmin Primary School in Singapore. Each school researched various sources of information, including CD-ROMs, encyclopaedias and communicated with the crew on board the ship through electronic mail (email). The project stretched over two months of active correspondence, research and writing up of material. The project is seen as the beginning of a long-term relationship between the schools, which enable young pupils to gain a greater insight into the life and culture of differing peoples.

Planning Stage

Three members of staff from Birmingham first invited the staff of Xinmin Primary School in Singapore to participate in the project which was termed 'Operation Oceanwave' in early 1997. Both schools were excited over the challenge of having their pupils involved

in what appeared to be an exciting Social Studies project where they would be communicating in a real-life context with a real audience- the officers on board the warship as well as their counterparts in the respective schools. During the first visit, the British staff checked out the Singaporean Information Technology (IT) configurations, their infrastructure and educational strategies in the use of IT as a tool for learning. Valuable information was exchanged on IT implementation and the schools' websites were also explored.

Areas Researched

Each school decided on specific areas to research into and to present their findings. The following were the areas of specialisation by the two schools:

'Portsmouth port' and 'Lovely grub!' by Robin Hood Primary School, and 'Facts about the ship', 'Port of Singapore' and 'Route of the ship' by Xinmin Primary School. In addition, Xinmin Primary School also displayed their personal welcome and 'Singapore gallery' on the website.

Stages of Implementation

The project went through the following stages over a two-month period.

Stage 1:

The Deputy Head Teacher of Robin Hood School first emailed Xinmin Primary School with short notes and brief information on her school. Messages from some of the pupils in her school were also included. This was greeted with much enthusiasm by a teacher from Xinmin Primary School who in turn reciprocated with background information on her school:

'My name is Baljeet Sandhu and I am a member of the Xinmin Primary School staff. I received a cc of your letter together with the letters of the children in your school. They sound extremely delightful and eager as all children are, curious to find out and learn more about other parts of the world. I was about to have a HUP (Helping Under-Achievers Programme) lesson then and I thought it would be a wonderful idea to have my children talk about themselves and have email-pals over there.

The first set of messages from the Singaporean pupils in response to the pupils in Birmingham were also included.

This was the initial stage of socialisation and building up of rapport between staff and pupils of the two schools. It is noted that the teachers played a central role at this critical stage where it was they themselves who actively mediated, and did the actual sending and retrieving of messages for their respective students. The following message from the Birmingham staff reflects clearly the belief in the impact of the messages not merely on the students but on the teacher herself:

'Here are the email replies as promised and also some new letters. All the children are very enthusiastic and want to email your pupils but I can only manage a few at a time. They think I have nothing else to do! Anyway I hope you enjoy the e-mails. I know the children here at Robin Hood will look forward to the return mail.'

There is also the expectation from the Birmingham students that it is their teacher who would facilitate their exchange of messages as evident in 'They think I have nothing else to do!'

The focus of the pupils' subsequent messages at this stage remained very much on exchanging personal background information such as age, personal attributes, family members, hobbies and preferences in terms of subjects studied in school.

Stage 2

From the personal sphere of friends, family and school, the pupils began to move towards other areas of interest, extending beyond the world of personal relationships to that of other people and countries other than their own. It was noted that, even at this stage, teachers' influence was not responsible for the topics initiated for discussion.

Queries were raised, for instance, with regard to food and cultural practices associated with their specific cultures:

From Emily Lim Sheue Chyn (Singapore) to Lucy Karim (Birmingham):

'I like potato chips but not toast. Could you please tell me about England?'

From Lin Yiling (Singapore) to Lauren Arnold (Birmingham):

'This year for Chinese New Year, I got a lot of hongbaos. I will tell you what it is. I get hongbaos (red packets) with money in it. It is good luck for the Chinese.'

From Peh Zonghui (Singapore) to Daniel Black (Birmingham):

'What is Easter?'

The following messages were in response to the questions posed on specific aspects of their countries:

From Lucy Karim (Birmingham) to Emily Lim Sheue Chyn (Singapore):

'In another part of your letter you wanted to know more about England so I will tell you a bit more about England. London is the capital of England. I have been to London once to watch Birmingham City football team play football. England is a big place. The Prime Minister is called John Major. The Queen's name is Elizabeth. If I write to you again I will tell you more about England.'

From Daniel Black (Birmingham) to Peh Zonghui (Singapore):

'Zhonghui you wanted to know about Easter. It is a Christian festival celebrating the rise of Jesus after he sacrificed himself to save the life of other people. As well as a holiday we have chocolate Easter eggs and other presents.'

Stage 3

Pupils went beyond communicating with their overseas counterparts to the crew on board the warship who were posed specific questions. For example, the Singaporean pupils selected the following categories:

- history of the ship: 'When was the battleship built?', 'How many battles has the battleship been engaged in so far?'
- physical structure: 'What is the dimension and the weight of the ship?', 'Why is the flight deck of HMS Illustrious curved upward and forward?'
- the crew: 'How many crew are there on the battleship?'
- functions and maintenance: 'What is the horsepower needed for the ship to move at the fastest speed?', 'How do you dispose waste from the ship?'
- voyage of the ship: 'How long does the ship take to sail from England to Hong Kong including all the stopovers?'
- main activities of the ship: 'What are the main activities on board the ship in a typical day?'
- weaponry carried by the ship: 'How many anti-aircraft missiles can the battleship carry?'

Stage 4

This final stage involved consolidating the information gathered and putting the data collated together in a coherent whole. The teachers became heavily involved at this stage with the revising, editing and proof-reading of the write-up of the texts generated, and in designing the website for presentation of the material researched.

Analysis

The initial messages exchanged display a need for pupils and their teachers to begin by constructing a mental representations of each other through the sharing of basic information such as who they are and where they come from. These 'identification indicators' include name, age, school, where they live, grade level, looks or physical attributes characteristics, favourite hobbies or friends etc. The names of students is the most frequent indicator in messages. This is followed by age, school, area in which they live, physical attributes, family, and other interests. The messages also clearly indicate a

signature, signalling the identity of the sender of the message. This shows the sender's assuming responsibility for the messages without anonymity. The analysis showed that full signature (name and surname) occurred in a number of the messages with the rest carrying partial signatures or first names only. The teachers, at this stage, acted more as technical facilitators, enabling the smooth transmission and retrieval of messages exchanged among the pupils.

The nature of content of the messages ranges from phatic to specific or topical, depending on whether the message tends towards merely establishing contact and building rapport such as 'What is your favourite sport?', 'What sort of food do you like?', 'What pop groups do you like?', 'What do you do in your spare time after school?' or specifically focussing on a topic or issue for discussion such as 'Could you please tell me about England?', 'What is Easter?', 'What are your schools like in Singapore?' and 'How many computers do you have in your school?'. Again, at this level, the topics for discussion were decided upon by the pupils themselves as they responded to each other's interests.

As the project developed in the later stages, communication extended beyond the pupils themselves to including the staff or crew on board the carrier. More specific questions eliciting detailed information on the technicalities involved in the journey such as 'Is the water of the Straits of Malacca deep enough for the battleship to pass through?', and 'What do you do if the ship runs out of fuel when it is at sea?' were still generated by the students themselves, guided by their personal areas of interest without any strong influence from their teachers.

The progression from a purely phatic-social level of communication into one seeking out specific, detailed and precise information in the electronic interaction clearly benefits the pupils not only in terms of their general knowledge but also their cognitive development. What is more significant is that the learning is self-directed by the pupils themselves rather than set by the teachers in charge within the confines of a fixed schema of topics.

The Singaporean pupils have been identified as 'under-achievers' who are involved in a special programme, the Helping Under-Achievers Programme (HUP), aimed at helping them attain their inherent potential. It is noted that the Singaporean pupils preferred to correspond with their British counterparts on a one-to-one basis. They felt more comfortable knowing that they were communicating with a person on an individual basis rather than talking about themselves in general as a class. Dependence on their teachers' guidance was not evident in selecting what they chose to share in their messages. This preference for communication of their personal interests on an individual basis was also shared by the British pupils.

However, the Singaporean pupils showed a preoccupation with form, being meticulous and concerned with the spelling, grammar and syntax of their messages. This was where they relied on their teachers to check their messages first for spelling, punctuation and grammatical errors before messages were sent out. The teachers were, for them, a support for the technicality of their writing rather than in the generation of content for their messages and in directing their queries.

Pupil Impact

The study showed that an international IT-based collaborative project between students from different countries yielded a number of positive results. Students proved to be more motivated and displayed a positive attitude towards writing. Analysis of the electronic messages also showed a maturity in pupils' cognitive development over time in the type of questions posed. The project also enhanced pupils' thinking skills as they responded to specific messages directed to them and as they made decisions with regard to the project. They learnt to work collaboratively and, in so doing, improved their communication skills.

They were also given the opportunities to transfer what they learnt from one environment (the information from email messages with the crew) to new settings (presenting the information on the website). As a result, pupils were actively engaged in a project through the dynamic and interactive mode of communication. The project further allowed them to actively participate in an experiential or 'living' curriculum which extends beyond their textbooks, and involved them in authentic tasks and situations with real-life audiences as global citizens.

Teacher Impact

Clearly, the success of a project of this nature rests on the attitude and motivation of the teachers involved. It is noted that the school in Birmingham actually had its own Deputy Head Teacher involved in the initial stages of the project. The teacher from Singapore had a personal interest in the nature of the work. The teachers' management of collaborative learning and the monitoring of the learning process is also acknowledged to be critical factors for the effectiveness of any IT-based project (Ho,1997).

While the teachers played a critical role in laying the foundation and in establishing contact first with each other, and then later with their respective pupils, it is observed that the extent and degree of influence of the teachers remained on the level of technical facilitator and general 'watch-dog' over the technicalities of writing, and did not extend itself forcibly in the area of content generation or in shaping the specific direction the project would take. The pupils' autonomy and control over their own learning became even more significant in such a project which is largely self-directed and guided by their personal learning process of discovery. It is at the final stage of the project where the teachers' input is visibly seen in helping the pupils to present the information collated in the most attractive and appropriate manner in the design of the respective websites.

It is interesting to note, moreover, a significant difference between the two countries involved, arising perhaps from the educational system with its own areas of emphasis and expectations in each country. The Singaporean teacher was expected to attend to the technicalities of writing, namely, refining grammar, spelling, punctuation concerns, and general proof-reading of her students' messages before sending out the messages. There was a strong need from the Singaporean students to want to appear 'grammatically correct' and polished when interacting with their British counterparts. The Birmingham pupils were more intent on having their messages sent out as quickly as possible with the anticipation of responses from their Singaporean peers.

Other Projects

The two schools in Birmingham and Singapore have agreed to continue with further IT-based projects in the future. The first of these, implemented in January 1998, is on 'Festivals' where pupils in both schools will be exchanging information on their different cultural festivals celebrated in their respective countries. These include the various festivals observed by the different ethnic groups in Singapore such as Chinese (or Lunar) New Year, Hari Raya Puasa, Deepavali, and Christmas in UK. This project, it is hoped, will lead to a project on a larger scale that involves studying both the similarities and differences between Singapore and Birmingham, and possible solutions to overcome any problems identified. The third project involves both schools displaying their pupils' artistic efforts in an electronic art gallery.

The 'Operation Oceanwave' Project itself has developed to a second phase, 'Project OceanWave II' (Ong, online), again initiated by the British Council, involving another two schools in Singapore collaborating with their UK counterparts. This involves the HMS Grafton on its visit to Singapore in 1998. More information is available on the Internet website of the British Council (The British Council, online).

Pedagogical Implications

1. Know the Who:

Teachers themselves first need to know well the people involved in the project, namely their fellow colleagues as collaborators in the project and the differing backgrounds of their schools and pupil profiles. This initial stage of getting to know each other through personal sharing of their individual selves and their work lays the foundation necessary for the building up of ties for their respective students in the two schools.

2. Know the What:

The subject matter involved and the specific areas for research and follow-up by each school will have to be worked out clearly with specific objectives delineated right from the start. This will prevent any overlap of study in the research to be carried out and also clarify how the final outcome(s) will benefit the pupils in both schools.

3. Know the Why:

Both teachers and pupils need to understand the underlying overall purpose of the project and also how it will help both teachers and pupils in specific areas. This will lead to a fuller appreciation and motivation on the part of individual schools to work towards meeting their specific targets set.

4. Know the How:

A clear step-by-step process of implementation as outlined in the specific stages discussed will determine clearly the procedure involved and what is required at each stage. This framework is a useful guide as to how much time and effort are required at each stage as the extent of involvement of teachers and the technical support staff will differ at each stage of the project.

Conclusion

There is no doubt that the challenge provided by the availability of modern information technology provides not only students but also teachers exciting possibilities for innovative classroom challenges in the teaching and learning of EL. In this study, for the teachers, it was experiencing a progression from an initial sharing among themselves of their personal selves and school culture, to one where their students appeared to take over the project in a direction of their own. The pupils' personal understanding of the world then extended to beyond the traditional confines of the classroom. The move away from set tasks associated with conventional classroom-based instruction encouraged a natural move towards and support of work which evolved directly from students' own interests, experiences and responses. This autonomy and self-directed management of their own learning process helped them bridge ties and cross national boundaries. The role and responsibility of the EL classroom practitioners is observed to shift from being the traditional 'sage on the stage' to what is now more of a 'guide by the side'. The direct influence and control of the teacher in specific areas also differed in the two countries according to pupils' expectations and how they perceive their teachers could help them.

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Issues Affecting On-line ESL Learning: A Singapore Case Study

Jaya Kannan
Cynthia Macknish
Temasek Polytechnic, Singapore

Many studies suggest that on-line learning is positive for the learner, but our experience in running an on-line ESL writing course for Chinese students at the tertiary level in Singapore indicates that there are various challenges to meet in the areas of motivation, feedback, self-directed learning and computer technology. Particular mention will be made in this paper, of difficulties in assessment, differences in perception of feedback, problems in encouraging students to be more self-directed and the need to cope with the unreliability of technology. We will examine these factors in an attempt to share our experience, raise issues and make recommendations.

Background

"Singapore is well on its way towards an information society, with higher PC and Internet adoption rates than other IT savvy countries..."

- Straits Times, 21 Jan 2000

The Ministry of Education in Singapore provides enviable access to computers and financial support, as part of the huge thrust to incorporate information technology in education. Keeping in line with this the English Language Enhancement Programme (ELEP) at Temasek Polytechnic, Singapore includes an on-line component called the Test Taking Skills (TTS) as supplementary work. ELEP is an intensive language and learning skills programme which culminates in LATIS, a Language Assessment Test for International Students seeking admission to Temasek Polytechnic. The curriculum focuses on language and learning skills and runs for twelve weeks.

Recognising the student need for test-taking skills, we designed the on-line test-taking skills course, which has several advantages:

- it helps to prepare students for the written essay component of LATIS
- it gives students opportunities to apply the skills they learned in the classroom and practise essay writing
- it exposes students to computers and helps them build up their on-line skills
 - it is a powerful medium for peer learning
 - it provides an alternative learning environment
 - it prepares students for e-learning

In this age of building intelligent classrooms, providing opportunities to hone a variety of skills is of essence. One of the many purposes of using the on-line component is to provide an alternative learning environment.

There were many concerns regarding our on-line component, particularly considering the profile of our students. All the students in this cohort were from China, with a background in teacher-directed learning with little exposure to computers. They appeared to possess certain common characteristics when they joined the programme, which at times had an impact on their learning. They were diligent and keen to please the teacher, yet hesitant to participate and highly competitive.

The on-line test-taking skills course builds on the writing skills learned in the classroom. Although on-line tasks were graded, students had the option of doing the tasks

in any order. Activities included multiple-choice questions, short answer questions, rewriting given texts using appropriate styles, essay planning, identifying topic sentences, assessing sample essays and essay writing practice.

The information for the analysis was collated from various sources including, tutor observations, verbal and written comments from tutors and students, students' on-line work, cyber tutor feedback and evaluation forms. As student feedback was not completely reliable, we found that ongoing tutor observation was a more useful indicator since

"Observation is one of the most reliable tools for determining how students are progressing in class and can be purposefully employed to gather information about a wide variety of learners abilities, skills, and competencies."¹

When we evaluated our online course, we found that four inter-related issues influenced the effectiveness: motivation, feedback, self-directed learning (SDL) and technology. The importance of motivation overrides them all, making it difficult to draw absolute conclusions about any one factor in isolation.

Motivation

Many questions arose regarding student motivation:

- Are students motivated to work on the on-line course?
- What type of motivation do the students feel (extrinsic, intrinsic etc)?
- What are the factors affecting their motivation?
- Do students use their competitive nature for positive or negative motivation?
- Is it possible to "know" about students' motivation at all?

We have identified four stages of student motivation throughout the on-line component. The dominant feelings of the students varied from initial apprehension to curiosity followed by a peak in interest and ending in a decline in interest.

1. Apprehension Stage

"In our class there are some students not familiarize computer, maybe they do not like to use computer to learn." [sic] -- student comment

The initial apprehension was probably due to fear of the unknown. This was understandable considering that the majority of the students had little or no experience using computers. It is possible that the students felt that the on-line component would be an additional burden to their workload.

2. Curiosity Stage

"During these days I felt my English has improved because the TTS [online course] created a English atmosphere so that I can study English step by step." [sic] -- student comment

We were relieved to observe that after the introductory briefing and technical skills training, most students began to feel more comfortable in the new learning environment. The factors that contributed to their increase in interest included:

- familiarisation provided by the training
- awareness of the importance of the course for the LATIS preparation
- the presence of a peer who was an experienced computer-user and willing to help
- the novelty of using a computer to learn English
- an increase in confidence with the hands-on experience

As Pennington has pointed out, incidental learning is especially effective when using a computer.² We found this particularly true at this curiosity stage.

Other factors like lack of computer skills, perception that on-line work is not "real" work, because it is not tangible, and overwhelming workload possibly affected student motivation in a negative way.

3. Peak Stage

"When I using computer, I felt very interesting and pleasant. I know it useful." [sic] -- student comment

Pennington suggests, "One singularly motivating aspect of computers exploited by micro worlds is the challenge of figuring them out."³

We observed that by the time students reached this stage, they had 'figured out' how to use the computers and had had greater exposure to the on-line materials, which resulted in improved motivation. Positive feedback from the tutor may have also helped in motivating the students. The students' familiarisation with the TTS materials and the equipment created a higher comfort level for most students.

4. Fall Stage

"Too many similar exercises and some topics are not interesting enough." -- student comment

We noticed that student interest in the on-line tasks began to wane in the fourth week. This was evident from the decline in the number of submissions we received and student comments.

Student feedback mentions the following flaws in our on-line courseware:

- too much scrolling required
- too much text
- lack of graphics
- too many exercises
- no clear instructions for paragraph formatting (even the tutors did not know how to do this)

Often the effects of instructional design on learner motivation are underestimated. Careful thought needs to be given to all aspects of courseware design including clarity of instructions, as suggested by Keng-Soon:

"The students may perceive the instruction as boring or difficult to comprehend. They become discouraged because the effort required to get at the task may exceed the effort required to carry it out; as a result of low motivation, less language learning may occur."⁴

On the other hand, we were amazed at how quickly the students' computer skills improved and with easy access to the Internet, students began to explore other avenues like e-mail and web surfing. With greater exposure, their interests widened and we observed that students were not always on task in the lab. It is a paradox that we wanted the students to gain computer expertise, but we were less appreciative of them using that expertise to surf the web during school hours.

One other important factor influencing student decline in motivation was the fact that no grades were awarded for their on-line coursework. We decided not to give grades but rather feedback in the form of detailed comments. We are convinced that "elaborated or cognitive feedback"⁵ is more beneficial for the learning process than "outcome feedback"⁶ (numerical or letter grades). This is supported by Egbert, who states:

"If feedback is seen as information that helps the learners understand just completed tasks, or assists with present or future tasks, then assessment that gives information to the learner is an important type of feedback in the learning classroom."⁷

By not giving grades, we could also be more fair to the majority of the students in this cohort who had very limited computer abilities. In this way we could avoid the problem of having to separate language skills from computer skills.

It is a generally accepted phenomenon that on-line learning environments are far from perfect technologically. Some of the technical difficulties that affected learner motivation in our course included server problems, faulty passwords, printer malfunctions and loss of data. A severe impediment to the on-line programme came when all of the student submissions were inadvertently deleted. It was a struggle both for the tutors and the students to overcome the frustration and redo the lost assignments.

During the various stages of the course the tutor took on many avatars from technical trainer to facilitator to the unenviable role of police officer (restraining the students from surfing and e-mailing). At the same time, the students moved from the "fear of the unknown" in the apprehension stage to the novice, tutor-dependent stage followed by an independent stage with a comfortable level of discovery learning, in a very short time span.

This may be surmised from the fact that students lingered on after school hours to work in the lab, or completed their on-line tasks early to make time to use the computer for their own personal purposes. These students did not own computers at home and had to rely on the facilities in the school.

Though it is believed that students understood the importance of completing the TTS course as preparation for the assessment test, whether they realised that it contributed to the "process of learning" is questionable. Students seemed to focus more on passing the exam rather than on improving their English. This implies that their interest in TTS was governed by their extrinsic motivation rather than their intrinsic motivation.

On the positive side, we observed in the computer lab that students were more motivated to share information. Contrary to this, in the classroom, students seldom took the initiative to seek help from peers. There could be various reasons for active peer-learning in the computer lab:

- As the students were not being graded, they were unable to rank themselves against one another. Therefore there was no fear of competition.
- The on-line environment was new to most students, so their eagerness to overcome the unknown outweighed their fear of losing face.
- The teacher took over the role of facilitator so the students may have felt more freedom to interact.

Though the lack of marks observably had a positive affect on their motivation to interact, at the same time it is possible that the students were demotivated to put forth a great effort for the very same reason.

In addition, they were hesitant to share their knowledge publicly on the electronic discussion board. This could be a result of the fact that it was an optional activity and students had the advantage of speaking face to face in the lab. Interestingly, the face-to-face sharing focused on computer skills rather than language skills, by the students' own admission.

Recommendations

Though there is no foolproof method to ensure motivation, we believe that the following recommendations can avoid some of the pitfalls:

- Computer skills training should be provided on an ongoing basis -- this could mean building on the basic computer skills like use of the keyboard to more advanced computer features like "hard returns" for paragraphing and skills relevant to the particular on-line materials being used -- like posting work on the discussion board.
- Communication channels between tutors and students should be open and continuous. In circumstances where the tutors and students have the

opportunities to meet face to face, the on-line course and the students' progress could be discussed.

- Exploit the Internet medium while designing materials. The WELL project shows that the "commonest use of Web resources is as a source of materials which are downloaded by the lecturer and distributed to students. Instances of interactive use or exploitation of communicative potential are very limited."⁸

We should modify the TTS programme so that other computer activities such as e-mailing and surfing can be used in a 'purposeful way'. It is not sufficient to simply be aware of student interests. Designing materials and tasks within the framework of the syllabus that exploits student interests should be the key.

- Redesign the pages regularly based on feedback, in an attempt to improve the effectiveness of the programme. For example, we need to reduce the amount of text, increase the size of the response boxes to avoid excessive scrolling, eliminate the "delete" icon.

- A buddy system for the students would be useful for peer learning and support when they are faced with technical or task-related difficulties.

- We could give grades.

Feedback

What is "good" feedback? Does tutor feedback contribute to the learning process? What effect does it have on student motivation? Do students follow-up?

What is meant by feedback?

This section deals with the tutor's comments on the student work. As mentioned earlier, we decided that this would be more valuable and useful to the learning process than giving grades. But we must confess that this created some difficulties.

"The exercises should be added up..." -- student comment.

Different perceptions of good feedback

A difficulty was getting students to agree with the tutor on the meaning of good feedback. Good feedback for the students meant identification and correction of all language and content errors. For the tutors, good feedback started with positive and encouraging comments, pointing out errors but not correcting them, using leading questions to help students to reflect on their work and make improvements.⁹ On many occasions, getting students to think critically helped them to find and correct their own mistakes.

"... feedback aids learning but students need a lot of encouragement to use the feedback in order to reflect on their work."¹⁰

While tutors thought that asking leading questions and getting students to think for themselves was "good" feedback, sometimes the students were frustrated with the perceived "lack of help".

Students also saw long comments from tutors as tantamount to a poor student answer, which could be due to their cultural background. . For some students, long, detailed feedback from the tutor, however positive, was equated with faultfinding and loss of face.¹¹ How can we help students change this perception in an on-line environment?

Students felt that they did not know where they stood on a norm-referenced scale.

No matter how useful the cyber tutor thought the on-line feedback was to the learning process, the students did not place the same value on the feedback. They wanted to know how well they were doing relative to their peers, which could be a reflection of their competitive nature. For students, detailed feedback was not equivalent to marking.

Communication was not cyclical, just IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback)

Having gone through fifteen years of teacher-directed learning, students cannot be blamed for having difficulties adapting to self-directed learning. A Hong Kong study on self-access centres talks about a similar problem.

"With the practice of teacher directed learning over the years at primary and secondary levels...students are so used to this way of learning. Students may be able to appreciate the flexibility and the autonomy provided in the self-access system, however, they may also have psychological and practical problems in employing this new method of learning."¹²

We hoped that students would be more forthcoming with self-selection¹³ in participating on the electronic discussion board in comparison to the classroom. However they were used to the teacher having the last word and they transferred this practice to the online learning environment. For example, tutors hoped that the students would follow up on the tutor feedback by contributing to the discussion board and /or by seeking clarifications via e-mail to the tutor. But students did not exploit the discussion board or the e-mail facility as much as we would have liked. One student commented, "if we could get chance to add to something after teacher's review that will be better", but she was not motivated to translate this idea into action, when given the chance.

While we need to find ways and means to help the students adapt to the new learning environment and expectations, we need to be realistic because it can be an insurmountable task within the short time frame of the course. Hence we recognise the importance of expanding the communication beyond IRF both in the classroom and the on-line learning environment. Learning can be effective when skills are transferred across the curriculum. Also the need to integrate the on-line component with the classroom activities is crucial.

We do not know whether the students were motivated to read the comments and apply them to their work.

Students agreed with the following statements regarding the cyber tutor's on-line feedback.¹⁴

- a. The feedback on the exercises was often easy to understand.
- b. The tutor's on-line feedback encouraged me to learn.

Despite this positive response, there is no reliable evidence to prove that the feedback really contributed to student learning. In fact, there was no formal follow-up system to monitor whether or not the students reflected on their work and/or made corrections or improvements. Nor did they take any initiative to seek clarification or help regarding the feedback. Reasons contributing to this could be fear of appearing weak, apathy, low motivation, or uncertainty of procedures.

This is symptomatic of transferring traditional classroom expectations to the on-line learning environment in that students still perceive themselves to be only receivers of information. They need to become more active learners and take the process further by becoming enquiring learners. At the same time, tutors have the responsibility of creating an atmosphere conducive to enquiry learning.

Unresolved issues

- Feedback as a form of assessment is acceptable to tutors but not students.
- As there are no marks, should we expect students to do the tasks?
- Links between motivation and feedback need to be investigated.
- Time for writing quality feedback is limited. Cyber tutoring takes more time than expected.
- Maybe there is Self-directed Learning sufficient time for students to follow up on the feedback.

Recommendations

The questions raised above do not have simple answers. Yet, it is useful to reflect on them and consider some solutions:

- Define terms like "good feedback" clearly and clarify expectations between tutors and students continually.
- Try to develop an understanding of why tutors shouldSelf-directed Learning spoon feed but empower the students to think for themselves in the on-line learning environment. This can be strengthened through discussions in class and in consultations.
- Provide guidance on developing strategies to learn from mistakes.
- Continue to encourage reflection and critical thinking skills throughout the programme.
- Have the tutors post student work on the discussion board more regularly and ask for student comments.
- Follow up feedback with some sort of monitoring system e.g. reflection journal or resubmission.

Self-directed Learning (SDL)

What is SDL? Does the on-line learning environment, provide more opportunities to develop SDL than the classroom?

"Give some direct or teach me how to do it" [sic] -- student comment

In an instruction-led on-line course the degree of interaction between the computer and the learner is not balanced and is therefore dependent on how motivated the student is to be a self-directed learner. Hence the student should take greater responsibility for his learning but this does not mean that he/she has to learn alone.

We believe that self-directed learning includes:

1. knowing when to seek help from the tutor and/or peers
2. seeking other sources of help
3. setting goals
4. recognising strengths and weaknesses
5. understanding the importance of learning from mistakes
6. having an inquiring mind
7. learning through discovery
8. working at one's own pace and managing time effectively
9. making decisions

The on-line TTS course provides opportunities for students to apply and practise the skills learnt in the classroom. The materials were so designed that students presumably could work on their own, at their own pace within the time frame of the course. On the electronic survey students agreed that "most of the materials helped me learn on my own".

We thought that the instructions were clear and self-explanatory to allow self-directed learning. The tasks were graded, but students had the option of doing the tasks in any order. But one student complained, "some assignments are in wrong sequence". And another admitted "I made a mistake once because I misunderstood it [the instructions]."

We believed that features like Frequently Asked Questions (FAQs), the electronic discussion board and e-mail would promote self-directed learning, would be exploited in an attempt at becoming more self-directed learners. It was hoped that shy students would participate more actively in this less personal environment. The tutor assumed that the on-line environment would be a preferable working environment because the students could take ownership or control of their learning, without the teacher's obtrusive presence. The general tutor perception was that SDL would be a natural concomitant.

Tutors often expected students to adapt to the learning styles quickly and easily. In reality, students cannot be blamed for their preferred learning styles and need to be

taught how to adapt to the new styles. Tutors did not always take into consideration that they must instruct students in how to adapt to new systems. Do we as tutors feel that students should agree with our value judgements regarding learning methods?

Students were required to complete 17 writing tasks. Working on the discussion list was optional. But we hoped that they would take advantage of it, as we had spent considerable effort in the class extolling the virtues of peer learning. We were disappointed to note that the students did not post their work on the discussion board or use e-mail regularly to clarify doubts. Though the students were trained to use these features and were using e-mail for personal reasons, they did not extend them to schoolwork. We caSelf-directed Learning, however, assume that because the features are accessible, they will be used. There may have been many factors involved:

- a. Students did not know how (to work on the task, use the discussion list, e-mail...)
- b. Students forgot how
- c. Students were not motivated
- d. Students simply wanted to meet the requirements, then move to surf the Internet
- e. Students were apathetic
- f. Students did not have enough time
- g. Students were afraid to ask for help
- h. Students may have been threatened by the medium
- i. Students were afraid to post work because of fear of criticism/exposure
- j. Students' competitive nature prevented them from sharing information
- k. It took too much time to post answers and wait for comments.

Though we have attempted to list some factors that may influence SDL, it is not possible to come to definite conclusions, as the students' cognitive processes are not always clearly evident. Coming from a teacher-directed background, the students need more time and experience before they can become more confident self-directed learners.

One other issue remains. How much guidance should we provide? Where does instruction end and facilitation begin? Perhaps it is ironic that the students need some guidance in how to become a self-directed learner, but we found that it was crucial to teach some basic skills like time management, decision-making, and goal setting. Students also needed to be aware of the importance of learning from their mistakes.

We can create an environment that is as conducive as possible to SDL using the on-line medium, but we found that in the end it is the student who determines the degree of SDL that he or she is capable of at any given time. This is supported by Boud et al:

"...only learners themselves can learn and only they can reflect on their own experiences."¹⁶

Recommendations

- Monitor/observe students closely and address needs when they arise.
- Address individual needs in one-to-one consultations, e-mail, face-to-face contact etc.
- Have tutors select and post student work regularly -- for students to learn on their own, we must provide enough examples.
- Remind students to check the summary of their submissions regularly.
- Continue to provide opportunities for SDL and encourage students as much as possible.

Technical Problems

"First teach some students how to use computer. For my case, I spend so much time to research how to use it. In fact most of our classmates did Self-directed Learning use computer before." [sic] -- student comment

Do technical problems affect learning? Can we distinguish between computer skills and language skills? What if the student knows more than the tutor?

There were a range of computer abilities among the learners, but the majority of students had little or no experience, though it should be noted that one student knew more about computers than the lab facilitator and was always willing to help his classmates.

In the beginning, students were impressed with the facilities available and the novelty of using computers was motivating. As mentioned earlier, their initial apprehension was eased with hands-on experience and most students quickly mastered the basic skills like using the keyboard and mouse, going to the TTS course URLs etc. In a short period of time, with increased exposure to computers, students' expectations soared. For example, students started to complain about the printing facilities, inconsistent use of passwords, the school's slow intranet speed, (probably comparing it to the speed of YAHOO) etc. Kelly observes:

"With the abilities of the technology come certain user expectations of what a screen is supposed to show -- expectations that come from experience with the cinema, television and computer games."¹⁷

One of the challenges that the tutor faced was dealing with complaints. Students expected the facilitator to be a computer expert as well as a language expert. Frustration levels mounted when the facilitator could Self-directed Learning solve the problems. Although there was a technical support officer on the team, some of these problems were also beyond her control.

How much technical knowledge/training do the lab facilitators and cyber tutors need, in order to work effectively in an on-line learning environment? There are two schools of thought regarding on-line learning. One is that students need training in basic skills before the course starts. The other is that students will learn as they go along.¹⁸ From our experience with the last two cohorts, we found the need to provide some initial training in basic computer skills and then allow opportunities for self-directed learning.

The technical difficulties faced by the students directly affected their motivation and hence their performance.

Studies reveal that the "student's difficulty in the manipulation of the software usually undermine the student's interest in the class." [sic]¹⁹

As mentioned earlier, the loss of student submissions was the most serious technical problem we faced. The frustration was evident in the student comments such as, "The work I have done are lost. That experience is unforgettable." [sic] This is something that can be addressed. But a clear distinction needs to be made between technological gaffes such as these that can be easily avoided in the next run and problems involving the server that are beyond our control.

These problems exist for the tutor as well. In addition, providing detailed feedback on-line demands more time than traditional marking because it is necessary to log on to the network, scroll through the student responses and deal with the fact that it is not easy on the eyes looking at the monitor for long periods. In certain circumstances, when tutors work at home, they must pay to remain connected to the network.

One student commented, "All the test-taking could do on paper. Nothing special." [sic] From this we gather that not there is a need to "teach to the many different learning styles that exist in the class -- a difficult if not impossible task."²⁰

Although we recognize that e-learning will be an integral part of future academic life in our school, and we provide opportunities and encourage on-line learning, perhaps

we should be more flexible and think about the implications of offering a paper and pencil alternative for those students whose learning styles don't match the demands of our on-line course. (How this can be implemented is beyond the scope of this paper).

Recommendations

- Make students aware of facilitator's role and lack of technical expertise.
- Ensure the presence of a technical support officer.
- Admit that technical problems will always be a factor -- there is no flawless system.
- Redesign the pages to eliminate the scrolling and delete button.
- Train the facilitator and cyber tutors in greater depth based on FAQs.
- Monitor the students and provide additional training when necessary.

Conclusion

Overall, the survey results of the TTS courseware indicate that the students were generally positive regarding materials, feedback and preparation for LATIS (see Appendix A). We have to bear in mind however, that the students' responses may not be a valid representation of their true feelings as they were keen to provide answers that would please the tutor. Current research also suggests that students are inaccurate reporters of what they have learned, sometimes claiming to have learned things that did not occur in the lessons being evaluated.²¹

Regarding the four issues: motivation, feedback, self-directed learning and technology, several concerns remain.

- The difficulty in assessing student motivation in an on-line environment.
- The conflict between the purposes of providing useful feedback and awarding grades.
- The difficulty in matching tutor and student expectations of self-directed learning. (e.g. participation on the electronic discussion board)
- The danger of applying teacher-centred classroom practises to the medium of on-line learning.
- The difficulty in bridging the gaps in perceptions between tutors and learners.

Warschauer points out that the "effectiveness of CALL cannot reside in the medium itself but only in how it is put to use."²² An awareness of the need for change in the pedagogical practices, expectations and behaviours of both students and tutors is only the first step. Throughout the process of curriculum planning and course implementation we need to:

- explicitly communicate the purpose and importance of the on-line tasks
- integrate the on-line tasks with classroom programme
- exploit student interests in the instructional design
- develop strategies to encourage active peer learning
- ensure that the tutors have necessary technical expertise

Despite the several concerns that have been outlined, it is desirable to incorporate IT into our ESL programme. It should be remembered that the TTS course is not a course in isolation, but well integrated with classroom activities.

We hope that with greater exposure to on-line learning environments, students and tutors will become more effective in their roles as independent learners and facilitators.

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Geography and Geology Lexemes as a Part of Semantic Domains

Barno T. Turdikulova
Gulistan State University, Gulistan, Uzbekistan

Introduction

In the field of toponymy, the syntactic and semantic aspects of geographical and geological names are usually implicated, directly or indirectly, according to the context in which the names are used or analyzed. Although theoretical semantics deals *inter alia* with the relation between logic and language and truth-conditional theories, this will not be discussed as semantic concepts, but will be assumed as being the theoretical framework behind the question: what do geographical names mean? It is important to ask the right questions in order to get the relevant answers.

Challenges and Requirements

The necessity to know what names mean or what the syntactic patterns are becomes clear when we keep in mind what experts in authoritative bodies regarding geographical names ask themselves when they draw up guidelines. Experts are interested in what feature is actually being named and how it is described, which in semantic terms is the relation between logic and language; whether it is a dialectal name with either a literal or figurative meaning; how the name relates to the socio-economic, cultural or physical characteristics of the environment, etc. Semantics is where geography, linguistics and mapmaking meets, which leads to the question of finding the right linguistic form for the specific entity. When dealing with syntax and meaning and their interrelatedness, however, it is not so much a question of right or wrong, but rather: what makes sense and is it relevant? In this regard the syntax and semantics of geographical names will be discussed integratively.

Semantic Domains

According to a well-known philosopher, Popper, there are three kinds of worlds: the physical world, the mental world and the world of contents of thought, which includes products of the human mind, of which language is one. To name objects is therefore part of the genetic make-up of man. What is amazing though is that most people are able to use language correctly, name places, people and objects, even though they do not have a set of syntactic or semantic rules on hand. The way in which man names rivers, mountains, valleys, towns and other environmental entities reflects how he thinks and lives and what his psychological disposition and subconscious mind produces in his daily contact with universal semantic domains like entities, events, abstract concepts and the relations between these domains. These four domains proposed by Eugene Nida (1975:174), tend to correspond, albeit not in all languages, to grammatical classes, although all four domains can be presented, for instance, by nouns only. An event which is often represented by a verb, could also be represented by a noun, e.g. the word battle. Grammatical meaning is, however, additive and does not change the category of the root. How can we use semantic domains to classify geographical names? Let us take a look at some features relevant for our purpose: Entities are animate or inanimate. Inanimate entities are either natural or manufactured, e.g. natural geographical features like hill, sea, lake, farm, sun, etc.; natural substances like iron, rock, mud, fire, etc. and plant-related products like forest, bush, thorn, blossom, etc. Manufactured entities can be artifacts like carriage, crown, statue, paper, instrument, etc.; processed substances like bread, wine, honey, perfume, poison, etc. and constructions like gate, fence, camp, ship, etc. Each entity can in turn be categorised

into smaller categories, e.g. geographical entities can have three subcategories with items of a celestial-atmospheric nature (sun, sky, etc.), supernatural nature (paradise, hell, etc.) or relating to the planet earth with items which are generic (region, country), features of land (mountain, desert), features of the sea (lake, island, bay), cultivated areas (farm, field) and politically defined areas (domain, province, empire).

In the same way events can have twelve categories referring to events which are

1. physical (rain, overflow, burn)
2. physiological (eat, reproduce, sleep, drown)
3. sensory (hear, feel, touch, see, smell)
4. emotive (desire, hate, fear)
5. intellectual (reason, remember, decide, learn)
6. communicative (signal, speak, write, pray)
7. social (meet, marry, honor)
8. controlling (conquer, rule, resist)
9. movement (move, enter, run)
10. impact (break, cut, destroy)
11. transfer (distribute, receive, exchange)
12. complex actions or processes involving more than a singular event (sow, shear, cook, weave, sacrifice).

In this way meanings are not treated as lexical units but are classified according to themes. Geographical names are structured in various transformations by using combinations of any of the items describing any category of any domain.

For example, a name like Happy Valley is a compound expressing the relation between an abstract state and a geographical feature of land, denoting a place. Similarly Somerset West is a compound expressing the relation between the name of a human being imposed on a place and a spatial relation. In this way geographical names with specific components referring to certain domains can be listed for purposes of research, e.g. names referring to sun as in Sunnyside, Sun City, Sunland; names with a spatial reference of east/west, upper / lower, middle, center, etc. as in Somerset West, East London, Northcliff, Southbroom, Midlands, Middledrift, Waterval-Bo, Upper Tongaat, Lower Houghton, Onderstepoort, etc. The higher the frequency of certain domains, the clearer the inferential possibilities concerning a country or community's cultural, historical or environmental picture, keeping in mind that with names inference eventually becomes reference.

Semantic Units and Syntactical Patterns

Many names are formed with inflections or stems or roots, e.g. the genitive form Simon's Town or the adjectival component Sunny- in Sunnyside. The syntactical patterns of geographical names have many variations. Most geographical names | are compounds with a stem and generic component functioning as a semantic unit whether written as one or two words, which are language specific writing patterns. In Afrikaans we have Kaapstad which is Cape Town in English, Oranjerivier which is Orange River, etc. The generic component could also precede the naming component as in Lake St. Lucia and Mount Everest. Names formed from African languages often represent full statements like "this matter is settled" (Pelindaba) and "it is better here than in the south" (Phalaborwa).

Geographical names, being examples of compounding, which is also an economy device, have the same basic semantic patterns than other noun-noun compounds in language, eg. relations expressed with paraphrases like:

- x with/of y Thabazimbi (mountain with/of iron)
- x resembles y Vaal River (river like the colour grey)
- x belongs to y Simon's Town (town of Simon)
- x at y Barkley East (Barkley in the east)
- x for y Signal Hill (hill for signalling)

x where y happened Rustenburg (town where they rested)

These prepositional phrases express concepts of constitution as in Thabazimbi, resemblance as in Vaal River, belonging as in Simon's Town, location as in Barkley East, purpose as in Signal Hill and action as in Rustenburg. These concepts correlate with the semantic domains mentioned above. Many compounds could fall under more than one category, but that is not the point. What is important is to know that each geographical name has at least one, be it explicit or not, semantic pattern as its internal structure. Exactly what prepositional paraphrase is at the base of each name could prove to be an interesting piece of research exposing perhaps etymological facts about the name.

The semantic domains being but one aspect of the meaning of names, do not explain why a statement like "and this is happy peaceful South Africa" or "Congratulations! You have just won a whole week at Naboomspruit!" is to some people a contradiction in terms because in the first case the name South Africa evokes other feelings than peace in some people and Naboomspruit is not everyone's idea of the ideal holiday resort, especially if one prefers a place like Durban.

Lexical Meaning of Geographical Lexemes

What, if any, are the conventional expectations people have when they see or here the name of a place, river, mountain, etc.? Everyone has a frame of reference which gives meaning to certain words in the language, but what more do we have to know about a geographical name than its purpose of locating a referent? Does the name Thabazimbi mean anything to someone who does not know that it is situated at the foot of a mountain being mined for iron ore, and for someone who does not know it is derived from an African description meaning 'mountain of iron'? Geographical or other environmental factors supply us with information as to the motivational force behind the choice of a name, but do they define the concept? Contrary to what Pulgram says "...they deepen our knowledge of the named object, but they are incapable of redefining it once it has been named" (Pulgram, 2009:70), one could state that there are four ways to define a place, i.e. a quantitative definition according to latitude and longitude; an ordinal definition according to a named/numbered grid on a map; a description by means of the name of the place and fourthly by reference to its infinite corpus of possible connotations which ever is relevant to its identification, e.g. "the place where the 1992 Olympics were held" (Barcelona). Features or attributes unique to a place is ultimately transposed on the name, be it environmental or more subtle like an experience someone had at the place.

Names indicating botanical, zoological, archaeological, geographical, geological, historical and cultural features indeed tell us more about man and his environment, but most of all we begin to move into the behavioural sciences as we find out how man sees the world and reacts to it. However, when the coreferential lexical meaning of the name fails to explain its etymology, it can always be interpreted by the principle of relevance.

Toponyms with obvious etymological transparency are for instance Sandflats, Lakeside, Adam's Mission, Crocodile River, Platkop, Bushveld, etc. Culture specific names and syntactical features, for instance the lack of compounds in African languages, can be seen in names like Monate, which looks like a simplex but is indeed a description meaning 'it is nice'. (Cf. Pelindaba and Phalaborwa above). The indigenous name for Blouberg, a mountain without vegetation on its summit is called Monna a se na morini meaning 'man without beard'. The motivational transparency of structures like Kenton on Sea, Trent on Main, Vina del Mar, etc. is clear. One should, however allow for humour and irony in names, when the motivational factors are ascribed to hopes, feelings or expectations rather than environmental qualities. When a town in the middle of nowhere is called Washington, or a name like Palm Springs appears on a map indicating that it is in the middle of a desert or drought-stricken area, it comes close to literary style.

Nevertheless, to be able to use a geographical name or understand statements in which it is used in other contexts than referring to a place, river or mountain, knowledge of conventional and associative meanings connected with the place is valuable. Affective connotations may differ according to experience and acquired prejudices about places - connotations which form part of the descriptive backing of a name.

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Semantic Features of Geography and Geology Lexemes

Barno T. Turdikulova
Gulistan State University, Gulistan, Uzbekistan

Introduction. The Descriptive Backing in Names

The backing of descriptions which names have is a concept introduced by Strawson in his theory of reference. It was Donnellan who said that a name is worthless without a backing of descriptions which can be produced on demand to explain the application (Donnellan, 2010:335). This descriptive backing amounts to the collective content of all conventional beliefs and connotations attached to a name. It stands to reason that this descriptive backing also has a subjective content as it is based on individual experience and knowledge about a place, person or object bearing this name. The set of assumptions about a place corresponds to what Wilson describes as the "encyclopaedic entry for the concept" (Sperber & Wilson, 2016:87). These assumptions are open-ended with new information being added by various entries from various sources. According to Sperber & Wilson information relating to a specific "conceptual address" are to be distinguished as either logical or encyclopaedic or lexical. A name like Barcelona could have no logical entry but its continual accumulation of encyclopaedic matter qualifies it for a concept appropriate to be used in natural language other than referring to a place. On this level geographical names, like other names are as much a part of the lexicon as other words. Several linguists and philosophers have argued against the idea that names are unique. Kripke and Putnam actually stated that "proper names are far from being unique. Their reference is fixed by an initial act of 'baptism' and maintained by a causal chain which relates each of their particular uses to this initial act." (In Sperber and Wilson 2016:91.) This is what is called the causal theory of reference which allows for appropriate encyclopaedic entries to form the meaning of a concept. The entries/connotations/additional information are inferential but become descriptive backing on which referential meaning is based when using the name.

In the prototype theory logical properties do not determine the meaning of a word either, but a mental model of the thing the word refers to is used to refer to things where the prototype is applicable. Let us compare the name of a colour, for instance blue, with a geographical name like Barcelona. Like colour names a proper name cannot be defined in terms of logical properties but by means of descriptions:

- blue is the name of a colour which can be seen as the colour of the sky, a flower, water, something between indigo and green, etc.

- Barcelona is the name of a city, with a population of x, followed by descriptions indicating its exact geographical position or salient properties like being a city known for its picturesque architectural attractions, the place where the 1992 Olympics is/was held, etc. Each advertisement or song referring to Barcelona then adds to its associative meaning.

What is really the issue here is that any existential or associative information can be used to make the use of names meaningful in natural language. The descriptive backing of geographical names in particular forms the basis of deductive inferences giving meaning to expressions in which it is present. This descriptive backing and its conventional use is clear in statements like:

- Wall Street is upsetting the apple cart again, or
- They are waiting for Pretoria's answer.

Because names are believed not to have lexical meaning, there has to be some semantic content to enable us to use names in this way. Many metaphors have geographical names on which the meaning is based, e.g.

- Today you are going to meet your Waterloo
- We should cross the Rubicon and get on with the process.

Successful communication depends on shared knowledge assumed by both speaker and hearer. These assumptions rest on the encyclopaedic entries, the relevant entries of the concept. Names like Waterloo and Rubicon have historical backing which has become conventional meanings. Although both names invariably have other more exclusive connotations, it is the conventional meaning which is assumed to be relevant in idiomatic and metaphorical expressions with names.

Identification by Descriptive Backing

Using a name always presupposes a referent with a certain descriptive backing acting as a means of identification, for instance, when a name is used in an existential proposition, it refers to something which has some conceptual content. Searle, (2009:135) says that "an existential statement does not refer to an object and state that it exists, rather it expresses a concept and states that that concept is instantiated". This brings him to the conclusion that proper names must have some conceptual or descriptive content when they are used in existential statements. Searle's famous words that names function not as descriptions but as pegs on which to hang descriptions boils down to the same thing that Strawson referred to as the descriptive backing of names.

When a name is used as identification of the referent, for instance, when someone inquires about a certain town or city - where it is located, what makes it special, why is it worth visiting, what distinguishes it from any other place, what happened that makes it important - all the information considered to be relevant for the identification of this place could be regarded as descriptive backing not only for referential purposes but as a means of identifying. This is where identifying descriptions and proper names makes it semantically possible to say things like

- Salisbury is Harare but Harare isn't Salisbury any more
- You're looking for Hong Kong? Go to Cape Town.

When we use the descriptive backing of names as the semantic content of the name we are dealing with the theoretical issue of presupposition.

Presupposition

In onomastical context presupposition functions on two levels: The first level is the mere application of a name in the relation x presupposes y where x is the name and y is a proposition, conventional fact or predicate, as in x = the name Paradise, and y = the conventional belief that Paradise is a place with everything one could wish for. A statement like: 'This place is Paradise' is then self-explanatory. Theoretically the presupposition cannot be neutralised even when negated in a statement like: 'This place isn't Paradise at all' because it is not the relation between x and y which is being negated but the relation between "This place" and that which Paradise stands for. When that which a name stands for, its associative meaning, is unacceptable to a community it is often replaced by a new name.

Presupposition also plays a role in the speech act situation being the information that the speaker assumes he is sharing with the hearer. When the relation x presupposes y has the same meaning for both speaker and hearer, the name can be used successfully in conversations. The expression 'Durban is home to me' has several possible implications as to why someone would want to associate home with Durban. It is more than a statement of locality of residence because it could involve personal feelings and values which has to be shared by the hearer to attain its perlocutionary effect. At the core of reference and predication lies the principle of unique differentiation and predication working in

harmony with the principle of relevance. Geographic Lexemes are linguistic signs representing abstract mental structures. Their use in natural language not only enriches the vocabulary but stimulates conversation due to the inferential nature of propositions they represent.

How do we identify the propositions intended in the choice or use of a geographic name? Obviously by first of all looking at the lexical meaning the name might have, keeping in mind that names are often given in an arbitrary way. Inferential possibilities, however, are always bound to the principle of relevance - and what is relevant is the form of the word, the specific language or culture it represents and its referential use in communication situations. Where names which are culture specific, for instance traditional Muslim names, Afrikaans names or African names, are concentrated in a certain area it either suggests that the past or present inhabitants were/are members of a certain cultural group or that the body responsible for naming the place, its streets or suburbs had strong bonds or sentiments regarding that culture, e.g. the Scandinavian names in Valhalla, a suburb to the south of Pretoria. (Liebenberg in NOMINA AFRICANA, 2018:109).

The Semantic Vagueness of Geographic Lexemes

According to Kempson (2017:124) there are basically four types of vagueness in language and these types show a certain interrelatedness. When applied to names we find that all four are applicable, making names the best examples to illustrate vagueness as a semantic concept.

The first type, namely referential vagueness applies when the meaning of the lexical item is quite clear but its applicability is uncertain, as in topographic terms referring to specific environmental features of size, population, height, etc. which are uncertain, e.g. town / city, mountain / hill. The second type of vagueness, namely indeterminacy of the meaning of an item applies in instances where the motivational factors are uncertain, e.g. what the relation is between the proper name and the generic item in for instance Graham's Town or Orange River; what the motivational factors are for naming a place Hopetown or Johannesburg. The third type of vagueness occurs when an item has multiple meaning and there is a lack of specification. When someone says "I want to go to a place called Hillcrest" the name does not guarantee identification because it has more than one referent. There are seven entries for Hillcrest in the South African Post Office code book. The utterance could either mean that the speaker wants to go to any place as long as it is called Hillcrest, or that he wants to go to the town in Natal/ the suburb in Wellington or Kimberley or Pinetown or Pretoria, etc. The first possibility is what Kempson refers to as multiple meaning due to the disjunction of different possibilities - which is also the fourth type of vagueness.

When an interpretation allows for multiple implications which can be applied simultaneously the term is vague. If we keep in mind that semantic information increases in relation to the elimination of uncertainty, it is obvious why names are regarded as vague with propositions of which the meaning is inherently uncertain.

Studying the semantic content of names can open up many motivational factors which could clear up uncertainties in the referential possibility of a name. The opentexturedness of a name allows for infinite possibilities of associative meanings which makes the definition in terms of a complete set of criteria for one referent virtually impossible. What lies behind the high frequency of well known names like Hillcrest, Hillside, Morningside, Fairview, Newtown, Panorama, Protea Park, Mountain View, (which all have six or more entries in the official Post Office code book) in no way changes the unique reference each name has in a specific context. Communication will only break down when the wrong assumptions lead to the wrong interpretation in the use of these names, which is why there is a different post office code for each Hillcrest entry, etc. The fact that names are countable reflects its usefulness in syntax. Being part of language man

uses it to express certain concepts. Like he nominalises verbs or verbalises adjectives he also takes proper nouns and uses them as common nouns. Any noun with the feature 'semantically singular' can function as countable nouns, e.g. Two coffees, please or There are seven Hillcrests in the book = Two cups of coffee, please/ There are seven entries of Hillcrest in the book.

In precision semantics Pinkal (2013:47) assumes that knowing the meaning of an expression is knowing the ways the expression can be made more precise. This means that multiplicity of meaning does not have to lead to vagueness, because when the principle of relevance is applied the relevant propositions are taken into account. Names corresponding to common nouns are used for descriptive purposes, but the seven places called Hillcrest have different features, making each entity unique. Waismann's words on common nouns describe this as words having systematic ambiguity while at the same time there is a sort of family likeness between all the uses, and it is that which makes us denote them by one word (Waismann, 2013:135). What is important in the semantic approach to names is that when names are used a cognitive process of categoration takes place in the minds of the speaker and hearer, based on association rather than denotation. As in any situation where language is used successfully reference relies on the fact that the conditions, presuppositions, values and descriptive backing only applies to one referent. Shared knowledge about a place naturally makes the use of the name easier, as it satisfies what Lyons calls the psychological salience of the subject.

"What is known is of course, almost by definition, more salient than what is unknown, and, other things being equal, the more recently that something has been mentioned and put into the universe of discourse, or the more familiar something is to the participants in a conversation, the greater will be its psychological salience" (Lyons, 2017:510). This also applies to a specific name used to refer to a place already known officially or unofficially under a different name.

Saliency could also make the use of different names with a salient relation quite meaningful, for instance, a name like Sodom triggers Gomorra. In the world of sailing Cape to Rio forms a pair and on a different note Nagasaki and Hiroshima share associative meaning. When used individually one name acts as a mediating response for the other name.

Can we call the descriptive backing of the two names and their interrelatedness part of their meaning? The fact that they can be replaced by synonymical descriptions, albeit with less effect, makes the names meaningful. Stereotypical meanings of geographical names like South Africa - land of sunshine are what Eikmeyer & Rieser call "reconstructions of hypotheses speakers have concerning the properties of an object" (2013:149). In the same way two names are associated on the grounds of a stereotypical event.

Referential Transparency

The vagueness of topographical terms regarding geographical, geological or other physical features, complicate the inferential process as to number of inhabitants, size, etc. We also have false generics, e.g. when Bloemfontein and Hammanskraal do not refer to a fountain or kraal but to residential areas. This illustrates how arbitrary lexical meaning in names is, although it indicates a possible motivational factor in the etymology of the name. Topographic terms are also language specific and reflect contact with other languages in a particular country. In South Africa terms like -veld, -koppie, -kloof, -krans, -poort, -vlei, -kraal, -spruit, etc. are typical Afrikaans generic components. In American names we find indigenous terms like -ranch, -pup, -prairie, -canyon, etc. In most English speaking communities terms like -brook, -creek, -pond, -marsh, -lake, -river, mount, etc. are found. Toponyms with exclusive meanings like those given by mountaineers, hikers and campers eventually lose their exclusivity when they enter the place name vocabulary the same way

new common nouns become part of a language. The names of tracks, trails and routes become generalised through frequent usage as a means to refer.

Meaningful nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, numerals from the different languages in a country are part of structures like Upper Delta, Nooitgedacht, Kwambonambi, East London, Derdepoort, uMpumalanga, etc. The indicators Like upper, nooit, kwa, east, etc. are only vague with reference to the location of the referent. If you do not know where the Delta is the transparent common noun upper would not be of any use to indicate where the place is. The referential vagueness as to population or size, infrastructure or other physical attributes of Cape Town in comparison to Greytown, Washington and Wellington in the Cape Province, Johannesburg and Ventersburg, Edinburgh (Scotland) and Edinburg (Orange Free State), leaves us with the only relevant conclusion, i.e. that the lexical meaning is arbitrary and is a mere indicator of the prepositional content which could be verified.

The fact that the suburb Northcliff happens to be a large cliff facing north in no way explains that it is a suburb of Johannesburg that can be reached by following a certain route. To merely look for a cliff facing north could end you up in Roodepoort. The one thing that makes a name unlike other lexical items is the fact that any place can be called Northcliff if the name has a special meaning for someone. Of course there are certain guidelines to be followed, but this does not stop someone from naming his beach cottage Northcliff. This accounts for the various referents a name can have. Alan Gardiner used this varying degree of descriptive backing that names have to classify names as pure names and less-pure names.

"The purist of proper names are those of which the sound strike us as wholly arbitrary, yet perfectly distinctive, and about which we should feel, if ignorant of their bearers, no trace of meaning or significance." (In Combrink, 2014:254).

This implies that the higher the motivational transparency of a name, the "less-pure" it is. To grade names according to levels of purity, however, is to contradict the very nature of names. Although it is only natural to look for meaningful explanations of the relation between name and object one cannot ignore the arbitrary base on which people, places and other objects are given a name. In the naming process a certain sense of permanency is assumed, regardless of whether the named object undergoes changes or not, or whether other referents are known by the same name.

Homonymical names, surnames, etc. are classified by Gardiner as less-pure. These names are regarded as classnames by Pulgram on the grounds of the amount of extra-linguistic factors identifying the name. To him a true proper name is

"a complete description of a specimen, of an individual, regardless of the number of the characteristics and peculiarities that either the speaker or writer, or hearer or listener, provides or is able to supply. Whatever particulars are necessary or wanted can be added from the storehouse of accumulated knowledge concerning the subject." (Pulgram, 2009:170).

This of course contradicts the statement that names which are arbitrarily given are meaningless. Any name that can be defined in terms of extra-linguistic characteristics have meaning. Knowledge of the nature of names described in terms of transparency, be it motivational, lexical or propositional transparency, brings a deeper understanding of the social impact a geographic name could have. This knowledge is valuable in designing universal or official policies on names.

Geographical Lexemes as Semantic Units

Semantic units include all linguistics features of names, eg. phonological, graphical, morphological and syntactical features. The employment of the definite article, be it capitalised or not, in geographical names, e.g. the Cape, the Namib or The West Indies, The Ivory Coast, etc. as against the zero article in for instance Natal, South Africa,

Switzerland, etc. reflect how language in general is used. Names function not only as descriptions in making unique reference, but are elliptical constructions for a phrase. Syntactically all names with zero article can be used in structures where an article precedes the name and is followed by a common noun or clause, e.g. the Natal region or the Switzerland we know. Most geographical names with a definite article seem to presuppose a descriptive phrase which was shortened or economised - a natural tendency in language use, e.g. the Seychelle (islands), the Namib (desert), the Cape (peninsula/province). Names like The Ivory Coast and The Grand Canyon resemble structures like the Natal region where Natal has an adjectival function. Collectives like The Seychelles, the Cango Caves, The Valley of a Thousand Hills, etc. are all semantically singular like all other names taking the definite article and function as a unit.

When names that usually take the definite article are used without the article as in West Indies has the best team or Grand Canyon here I come, it displays a common phenomenon in language variation and style to express well acquaintedness or affection. The vocative use as in the last example compares with the use of son or child in the same way.

Names with prefixes or suffixes are pronounced as one word and often written as such, e.g. Ladysmith (but Lady Grey), King William's Town (but Queenstown) etc. where the meaning of lady or king is not relevant. Similarly, the names of animals and plants, e.g. bushbuck, yellowwood, hartbees, etc. are although resembling a compound, semantic units referring to a species. As part of a name, as in Bushbuckridge, it could not be separated should a disjunctive spelling be preferred. The only linguistic viable possibility is Bushbuck Ridge. Whether written as one word or two, the name is a semantic unit.

A zero generic term is customary in English with names like Rio Grande, Sierra Nevada, El Dorado, etc. where the generic river, mountain, etc. is presupposed. Names like El Dorado, La Rochelle, Las Palmas are seen as semantic units, very often written as one word in some South African names, e.g. Eldoraigue, Eldorado Park. Guidelines on the alphabetization of different names are ultimately based on what is essentially regarded as the name and what is part of the structure. Advisory bodies have to decide on whether to enter names like Mount Everest, Lake St. Lucia or Cape Agulhas under Mount, Lake or Cape or under the proper name Everest, St. Lucia and Agulhas. Decisions have to be made on the semantic status of the articles in El Dorado, La Rochelle and Las Vegas as against the article in Den Haag, The Heads and Die Koppe.

Semantically and syntactically articles and any preceding generic terms are, regardless of the specific language, to be considered part of the name, in which case generic terms cannot be used in the following way:

Lakes St.Lucia and Michigan

Mounts Everest and Kilimanjaro

Being a debatable issue the semantic unity of a name and its parts is often a matter of frequency of use and saliency. Lake St.Lucia as a unit is more conventional than for instance St.Lucia Lake, although St.Lucia (without lake) is most common. Convention is an important factor to be taken into account when decisions have to be made on names and changing names. Changing Geographic Lexemes implies changing concepts based on conventional use, and this includes the spelling and pronunciation of the name and the vast amount of descriptive backing the name has in its present form. Before changing a name it should be kept in mind that linguistic norms should be adapted from the right/wrong issue to the issue of what makes sense and what is relevant.

Morpho-syntactic engineering should be kept to a minimum when names are salient items of reference, and not even the possibility of semantic overloading should cause a name like Drakensberg Mountains to be changed to an unfamiliar Drakens

Mountains. Like St. Lucia the use of the Drakensberg as a unit is common as a means to refer.

On the other hand, if there are names in everyday use which have a higher frequency of use than an existing name, it should be recorded for consideration towards possible adjustment.

Names representing a phrase or description should comply with general language rules of the particular language. This is why names like Thabazimbi and Pelindaba are written as one word. In the same way Queenstown and Dewetsdorp are semantic units representing a genitive relation, i.e. "the dorp of De Wet(English)/ De Wet se dorp"(Afrikaans). According to the compound rule in Afrikaans a word with a genitive s cannot be written disjunctively as it does not have an independent status as a word. Sometimes this s is obsolete in which case it should be dropped if policy requires a disjunctive spelling in Afrikaans. In English an apostrophe 's poses no problem as in Graham's Town. If the s indicates a plural form the word can stand on its own with the s still intact.

Conclusion

All names have meaning - artificially coined names, mountain names, river names, names imposed on places, names of historical, cultural or popular figures, events being named, etc. all contribute to make the world a colourful and interesting place to live in. Geographical names offer various research possibilities in the field of genetic semantics. It includes etymological studies, the study of of intralingual cognates, interlingual cognates, morphological variants and multiple meaning in items. In etymological studies the present meaning of an item is traced to the origin of the word which might expose certain shifts or changes of meaning corresponding to social changes. Intralingual cognates refer to items within one language which are genetically related but differ in form, eg. -ton/-town in Germiston and Queenstown; -burg/-bury in Edinburg and Malmesbury.

Interlingual cognates are comparisons of related forms across different languages, e.g. English -dale/Afrikaans -dal , as in Riversdale/Riversdal; Uniondale/Groblersdal. Morphological variants can be found in one language in the inflection and compounding of a specific item as sun in Sunnyside, Sun City and Sunland; or rus in Volksrust, Rustenburg and Odendaalsrus. Various applications of one name to different places with varying degrees of similarity could prove to be an interesting field of study as is the whole field of genetic semantics which could explain the relation between genetic identity and structural identity in geographical names.

Variation is an inherent quality of language and a reflection of how it is made - important enough to qualify as a specialist field of study in Sociolinguistics. The heterogeneous nature of language communities guarantees variation in language use, ultimately surfacing as syntactical variation in geographical names. Names displaying dialectal features reflect the dynamic principle of language change which can also be accounted for sociolinguistically in all developing languages. Each community, whether socially or geographically determined, has the potential to name or rename an entity. Some names are spontaneous utterances while others are formed after long and serious consideration.

For examples of language and culture specific spellings of South African place-names various articles have appeared in issues of NOMINA AFRICANA and valuable information can be found in Raper's DICTIONARY OF SOUTH AFRICAN PLACE NAMES.

Considering variation in the syntax and motivational transparency of geographical names, the responsibility to continually redefine requirements for well formed but original names ultimately falls on the shoulders of advisory bodies. Like the ideal standard

language, official place names should reflect the cultural diversity of its users as well as their history and the environmental features of the country.

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What is Learner Autonomy and How Can It Be Fostered?

Dimitrios Thanasoulas

Nagoya North Grampus University, Nagoya, Japan

1. Introduction

Over the last two decades, the concepts of learner autonomy and independence have gained momentum, the former becoming a 'buzz-word' within the context of language learning (Little, 1991: 2). It is a truism that one of the most important spin-offs of more communicatively oriented language learning and teaching has been the premium placed on the role of the learner in the language learning process (see Wenden, 1998: xi). It goes without saying, of course, that this shift of responsibility from teachers to learners does not exist in a vacuum, but is the result of a concatenation of changes to the curriculum itself towards a more learner-centred kind of learning. What is more, this reshaping, so to speak, of teacher and learner roles has been conducive to a radical change in the age-old distribution of power and authority that used to plague the traditional classroom. Cast in a new perspective and regarded as having the 'capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action' (Little, 1991: 4), learners, autonomous learners, that is, are expected to assume greater responsibility for, and take charge of, their own learning. However, learner autonomy does not mean that the teacher becomes redundant, abdicating his/her control over what is transpiring in the language learning process. In the present study, it will be shown that learner autonomy is a perennial dynamic process amenable to 'educational interventions' (Candy, 1991), rather than a static product, a state, which is reached once and for all. Besides, what permeates this study is the belief that 'in order to help learners to assume greater control over their own learning it is important to help them to become aware of and identify the strategies that they already use or could potentially use' (Holmes & Ramos, 1991, cited in James & Garrett, 1991: 198). At any rate, individual learners differ in their learning habits, interests, needs, and motivation, and develop varying degrees of independence throughout their lives (Tumposky, 1982).

2. What is Autonomy?

For a definition of autonomy, we might quote Holec (1981: 3, cited in Benson & Voller, 1997: 1) who describes it as 'the ability to take charge of one's learning'. On a general note, the term autonomy has come to be used in at least five ways (see Benson & Voller, 1997: 2):

- for situations in which learners study entirely on their own;
- for a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning;
- for an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education;
- for the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning;
- for the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning.

It is noteworthy that autonomy can be thought of in terms of a departure from education as a social process, as well as in terms of redistribution of power attending the construction of knowledge and the roles of the participants in the learning process. The relevant literature is riddled with innumerable definitions of autonomy and other synonyms for it, such as 'independence' (Sheerin, 1991), 'language awareness' (Lier, 1996; James & Garrett, 1991), 'self-direction' (Candy, 1991), 'andragogy' (Knowles, 1980;

1983 etc., which testifies to the importance attached to it by scholars. Let us review some of these definitions and try to gain insights into what learner autonomy means and consists of. As has been intimated so far, the term autonomy has sparked considerable controversy, inasmuch as linguists and educationalists have failed to reach a consensus as to what autonomy really is. For example, in David Little's terms, learner autonomy is 'essentially a matter of the learner's psychological relation to the process and content of learning--a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action' (Little, 1991: 4). It is not something done to learners; therefore, it is far from being another teaching method (*ibid.*). In the same vein, Leni Dam (1990, cited in Gathercole, 1990: 16), drawing upon Holec (1983), defines autonomy in terms of the learner's willingness and capacity to control or oversee her own learning. More specifically, she, like Holec, holds that someone qualifies as an autonomous learner when he independently chooses aims and purposes and sets goals; chooses materials, methods and tasks; exercises choice and purpose in organising and carrying out the chosen tasks; and chooses criteria for evaluation.

To all intents and purposes, the autonomous learner takes a (pro-) active role in the learning process, generating ideas and availing himself of learning opportunities, rather than simply reacting to various stimuli of the teacher (Boud, 1988; Kohonen, 1992; Knowles, 1975). As we shall see, this line of reasoning operates within, and is congruent with, the theory of constructivism. For Rathbone (1971: 100, 104, cited in Candy, 1991: 271), the autonomous learner is a self-activated maker of meaning, an active agent in his own learning process. He is not one to whom things merely happen; he is the one who, by his own volition, causes things to happen. Learning is seen as the result of his own self-initiated interaction with the world.

Within such a conception, learning is not simply a matter of rote memorisation; 'it is a constructive process that involves actively seeking meaning from (or even imposing meaning on) events' (Candy, 1991: 271).

Such "inventories" of characteristics evinced by the putative autonomous learner abound, and some would say that they amount to nothing more than a romantic ideal which does not square with reality. This stands to reason, for most of the characteristics imputed to the "autonomous learner" encapsulate a wide range of attributes not commonly associated with learners. For instance, Benn (1976, cited in Candy, 1991: 102) likens the autonomous learner to one '[w]hose life has a consistency that derives from a coherent set of beliefs, values, and principles--[and who engages in a] still-continuing process of criticism and re-evaluation', while Rousseau ([1762] 1911, cited in Candy, 1991: 102) regards the autonomous learner as someone who 'is obedient to a law that he prescribes to himself'. Within the context of education, though, there seem to be seven main attributes characterising autonomous learners (see Omaggio, 1978, cited in Wenden, 1998: 41-42):

1. Autonomous learners have insights into their learning styles and strategies;
2. take an active approach to the learning task at hand;
3. are willing to take risks, i.e., to communicate in the target language at all costs;
4. are good guessers;
5. attend to form as well as to content, that is, place importance on accuracy as well as appropriacy;
6. develop the target language into a separate reference system and are willing to revise and reject hypotheses and rules that do not apply; and
7. have a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language.

Here, some comments with respect to the preceding list are called for. The points briefly touched upon above are necessary but not sufficient conditions for the development of learner autonomy, and many more factors such as learner needs, motivation, learning strategies, and language awareness have to be taken into consideration. For example, the first point hinges upon a metalanguage that learners have to master in order to be regarded as autonomous, while points 4) and 7) pertain to learner motivation. In view of this, an attempt will be made, in subsequent sections, to shed some light on some of the parameters affecting, and interfering with, learners' self-image as well as their capacity and will to learn. It is of consequence to note that autonomy is a process, not a product. One does not become autonomous; one only works towards autonomy. One corollary of viewing autonomy in this way is the belief that there are some things to be achieved by the learner, as well as some ways of achieving these things, and that autonomy 'is learned at least partly through educational experiences [and interventions]' (Candy, 1991: 115). But prior to sifting through the literature and discussing learning strategies, motivation, and attitudes entertained by learners, it would be pertinent to cast learner autonomy in relation to dominant philosophical approaches to learning. The assumption is that what is dubbed as learner autonomy and the extent to which it is a permissible and viable educational goal are all too often 'based on [and thus constrained by] particular conceptions of the constitution of knowledge itself' (Benson, 1997, cited in Benson & Voller, 1997: 20).

3. Learner Autonomy and Dominant Philosophies of Learning

In this section, three dominant approaches to knowledge and learning will be briefly discussed, with a view to examining how each of them connects up with learner autonomy. Positivism, which reigned supreme in the twentieth century, is premised upon the assumption that knowledge reflects objective reality. Therefore, if teachers can be said to hold this "objective reality," learning can only 'consist in the transmission of knowledge from one individual to another' (Benson & Voller, 1997: 20). Congruent with this view, of course, is the maintenance and enhancement of the "traditional classroom," where teachers are the purveyors of knowledge and wielders of power, and learners are seen as 'container[s] to be filled with the knowledge held by teachers' (ibid.). On the other hand, positivism also lends support to the widespread notion that knowledge is attained by dint of the 'hypothesis-testing' model, and that it is more effectively acquired when 'it is *discovered* rather than *taught*' (ibid.) (my italics). It takes little perspicacity to realise that positivism is incongruent with, and even runs counter to, the development of learner autonomy, as the latter refers to a gradual but radical divorce from conventions and restrictions and is inextricably related to self-direction and self-evaluation.

Constructivism is an elusive concept and, within applied linguistics, is strongly associated with Halliday (1979, cited in Benson & Voller, 1997: 21). As Candy (1991: 254) observes, '[o]ne of the central tenets of constructivism is that individuals try to give meaning to, or construe, the perplexing maelstrom of events and ideas in which they find themselves caught up'. In contrast to positivism, constructivism posits the view that, rather than internalising or discovering objective knowledge (whatever that might mean), individuals reorganise and restructure their experience. In Candy's terms (Candy, 1991: 270), constructivism 'leads directly to the proposition that knowledge cannot be taught but only learned (that is, constructed)', because knowledge is something 'built up by the learner' (von Glasersfeld & Smock, 1974: xvi, cited in Candy, 1991: 270). By the same token, language learning does not involve internalising sets of rules, structures and forms; each learner brings her own experience and world knowledge to bear on the target language or task at hand. Apparently, constructivism supports, and extends to cover, psychological versions of autonomy that appertain to learners' behaviour, attitudes, motivation, and self-concept (see Benson & Voller, 1997: 23). As a result, constructivist approaches encourage and promote self-directed learning as a necessary condition for learner autonomy.

Finally, critical theory, an approach within the humanities and language studies, shares with constructivism the view that knowledge is constructed rather than discovered or learned. Moreover, it argues that knowledge does not reflect reality, but rather comprises 'competing ideological versions of that reality expressing the interests of different social groups' (Benson & Voller, 1997: 22). Within this approach, learning concerns issues of power and ideology and is seen as a process of interaction with social context, which can bring about social change. What is more, linguistic forms are bound up with the social meanings they convey, in so far as language is power, and vice versa. Certainly, learner autonomy assumes a more social and political character within critical theory. As learners become aware of the social context in which their learning is embedded and the constraints the latter implies, they gradually become independent, dispel myths, disabuse themselves of preconceived ideas, and can be thought of as 'authors of their own worlds' (ibid.: 53).

4. Conditions for Learner Autonomy

The concern of the present study has so far been with outlining the general characteristics of autonomy. At this juncture, it should be reiterated that autonomy is not an article of faith, a product ready made for use or merely a personal quality or trait. Rather, it should be clarified that autonomous learning is achieved when certain conditions obtain: cognitive and metacognitive strategies on the part of the learner, motivation, attitudes, and knowledge about language learning, i.e., a kind of metalanguage. To acknowledge, however, that learners have to follow certain paths to attain autonomy is tantamount to asserting that there has to be a teacher on whom it will be incumbent to show the way. In other words, autonomous learning is by no means "teacherless learning." As Sheerin (1997, cited in Benson & Voller, 1997: 63) succinctly puts it, '[t]eachers--have a crucial role to play in launching learners into self-access and in lending them a regular helping hand to *stay afloat*' (my italics).

Probably, giving students a "helping hand" may put paid to learner autonomy, and this is mainly because teachers are ill-prepared or reluctant to 'wean [students]--away from teacher dependence' (Sheerin, 1997, cited in Benson & Voller, 1997: 63). After all, 'it is not easy for teachers to change their role from purveyor of information to counsellor and manager of learning resources--And it is not easy for teachers to let learners solve problems for themselves' (Little, 1990, cited in Gathercole, 1990: 11). Such a transition from teacher-control to learner-control is fraught with difficulties but it is mainly in relation to the former (no matter how unpalatable this may sound) that the latter finds its expression. At any rate, learner-control--which is ancillary to autonomy--'is not a single, unitary concept, but rather a continuum along which various instructional situations may be placed' (Candy, 1991: 205). It is to these 'instructional situations' that we will turn in the next section. In this section, it is of utmost importance to gain insights into the strategies learners use in grappling with the object of enquiry, i.e., the target language, as well as their motivation and attitude towards language learning in general. A question germane to the discussion is, what does it mean to be an autonomous learner in a language learning environment?

4.1. Learning Strategies

A central research project on learning strategies is the one surveyed in O'Malley and Chamot (1990). According to them, learning strategies are 'the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information' (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 1, cited in Cook, 1993: 113)--a definition in keeping with the one provided in Wenden (1998: 18): 'Learning strategies are mental steps or operations that learners use to learn a new language and to regulate their efforts to do so'. To a greater or lesser degree, the strategies and learning styles that someone adopts 'may partly reflect personal preference rather than innate endowment' (Skehan, 1998: 237). We will only

briefly discuss some of the main learning strategies, refraining from mentioning communication or compensatory strategies (see Cook, 1993 for more details).

4.1.1. Cognitive Strategies

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 44), cognitive strategies 'operate directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning'. Learners may use any or all of the following cognitive strategies (see Cook, 1993: 114-115):

- repetition, when imitating others' speech;
- resourcing, i.e., having recourse to dictionaries and other materials;
- translation, that is, using their mother tongue as a basis for understanding and/or producing the target language;
- note-taking;
- deduction, i.e., conscious application of L2 rules;
- contextualisation, when embedding a word or phrase in a meaningful sequence;
- transfer, that is, using knowledge acquired in the L1 to remember and understand facts and sequences in the L2;
- inferencing, when matching an unfamiliar word against available information (a new word etc);
- question for clarification, when asking the teacher to explain, etc.

There are many more cognitive strategies in the relevant literature. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) recognise 16.

4.1.2. Metacognitive Strategies

According to Wenden (1998: 34), 'metacognitive knowledge includes all facts learners acquire about their own cognitive processes as they are applied and used to gain knowledge and acquire skills in varied situations'. In a sense, metacognitive strategies are skills used for planning, monitoring, and evaluating the learning activity; 'they are strategies about learning rather than learning strategies themselves' (Cook, 1993: 114). Let us see some of these strategies:

- directed attention, when deciding in advance to concentrate on general aspects of a task;
- selective attention, paying attention to specific aspects of a task;
- self-monitoring, i.e., checking one's performance as one speaks;
- self-evaluation, i.e., appraising one's performance in relation to one's own standards;
- self-reinforcement, rewarding oneself for success.

At the planning stage, also known as pre-planning (see Wenden, 1998: 27), learners identify their objectives and determine how they will achieve them. Planning, however, may also go on while a task is being performed. This is called planning-in-action. Here, learners may change their objectives and reconsider the ways in which they will go about achieving them. At the monitoring stage, language learners act as 'participant observers or overseers of their language learning' (ibid.), asking themselves, "How am I doing? Am I having difficulties with this task?", and so on. Finally, when learners evaluate, they do so in terms of the outcome of their attempt to use a certain strategy. According to Wenden (1998: 28), evaluating involves three steps: 1) learners examine the outcome of their attempts to learn; 2) they access the criteria they will use to judge it; and 3) they apply it.

4.2. Learner Attitudes and Motivation

Language learning is not merely a cognitive task. Learners do not only reflect on their learning in terms of the language input to which they are exposed, or the optimal

strategies they need in order to achieve the goals they set. Rather, the success of a learning activity is, to some extent, contingent upon learners' stance towards the world and the learning activity in particular, their sense of self, and their desire to learn (see Benson & Voller, 1997: 134-136). As Candy (1991: 295-296) says, 'the *how* and the *what* of learning are intimately interwoven-- [T]he overall approach a learner adopts will significantly influence the shape of his or her learning outcomes' (my italics). In other words, language learning-- as well as learning, in general-- has also an affective component. 'Meeting and interiorising the grammar of a foreign language is not simply an intelligent, cognitive act. It is a highly affective one too--' (Rinvolucri, 1984: 5, cited in James & Garrett, 1991: 13). Gardner and MacIntyre (1993: 1, cited in Graham, 1997: 92) define 'affective variables' as the 'emotionally relevant characteristics of the individual that influence how she/he will respond to any situation'. Other scholars, such as Shumann (1978) and Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) attach less importance to learners' emotions, claiming that 'social and psychological factors' give a more suitable description for students' reactions to the learning process. Amongst the social and affective variables at work, self-esteem and desire to learn are deemed to be the most crucial factors 'in the learner's ability to overcome occasional setbacks or minor mistakes in the process of learning a second [or foreign] language' (Tarone & Yule, 1989: 139). In this light, it is necessary to shed some light on learner attitudes and motivation.

Wenden (1998: 52) defines attitudes as 'learned motivations, valued beliefs, evaluations, what one believes is acceptable, or responses oriented towards approaching or avoiding'. For her, two kinds of attitudes are crucial: attitudes learners hold about their role in the learning process, and their capability as learners (ibid.: 53). In a sense, attitudes are a form of metacognitive knowledge. At any rate, 'learner beliefs about their role and capability as learners will be shaped and maintained-- by other beliefs they hold about themselves as learners' (ibid.: 54). For example, if learners believe that certain personality types cannot learn a foreign language and they believe that they are that type of person, then they will think that they are fighting a "losing battle," as far as learning the foreign language is concerned. Furthermore, if learners labour under the misconception that learning is successful only within the context of the "traditional classroom," where the teacher directs, instructs, and manages the learning activity, and students must follow in the teacher's footsteps, they are likely to be impervious or resistant to learner-centred strategies aiming at autonomy, and success is likely to be undermined.

In a way, attitudes are 'part of one's perception of self, of others, and of the culture in which one is living [or the culture of the target language]' (Brown, 1987: 126), and it seems clear that positive attitudes are conducive to increased motivation, while negative attitudes have the opposite effect. But let us examine the role of motivation.

Although the term 'motivation' is frequently used in educational contexts, there is little agreement among experts as to its exact meaning. What most scholars seem to agree on, though, is that motivation is 'one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of second or foreign language (L2) learning. Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process' (Dornyei, 1998: 117). According to Gardner and MacIntyre (1993: 3), motivation is comprised of three components: 'desire to achieve a goal, effort extended in this direction, and satisfaction with the task'.

It is manifest that in language learning, people are motivated in different ways and to different degrees. Some learners like doing grammar and memorising; others want to speak and role-play; others prefer reading and writing, while avoiding speaking. Furthermore, since '[the learning of a foreign language] involves an alteration in self-image, the adoption of new social and cultural behaviours and ways of being, and therefore has a significant impact on the social nature of the learner' (Williams, 1994: 77, cited in Dornyei,

1998:122), an important distinction should be made between instrumental and integrative motivation. Learners with an instrumental orientation view the foreign language as a means of finding a good job or pursuing a lucrative career; in other words, the target language acts as a 'monetary incentive' (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993: 3). On the other hand, learners with an integrative orientation are interested in the culture of the target language; they want to acquaint themselves with the target community and become integral parts of it. Of course, this approach to motivation has certain limitations (see Cookes and Schmidt, 1991, cited in Lier, 1996: 104-105), but an in-depth analysis is not within the purview of this study. The bottom line is that motivation is 'a central mediator in the prediction of language achievement' (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993: 3), as various studies have shown (see Kraemer, 1990; Machnick and Wolfe, 1982; et al.).

4.3. Self-esteem

Closely related to attitudes and motivation is the concept of self-esteem, that is, the evaluation the learner makes of herself with regard to the target language or learning in general. '[S]elf-esteem is a personal judgement of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that the individual holds towards himself' (Coopersmith, 1967: 4-5, cited in Brown, 1987: 101-102). If the learner has a 'robust sense of self', to quote Breen and Mann (1997, cited in Benson & Voller, 1997: 134), his relationship to himself as a learner is unlikely to be marred by any negative assessments by the teacher. Conversely, a lack of self-esteem is likely to lead to negative attitudes towards his capability as a learner, and to 'a deterioration in cognitive performance', thus confirming his view of himself as incapable of learning (Diener and Dweck, 1978, 1980, cited in Wenden, 1998: 57).

Now that we have examined some of the factors that may enhance, or even militate against, the learner's willingness to take charge of her own learning and her confidence in her ability as a learner, it is of consequence to consider possible ways of promoting learner autonomy. To say, though, that learner autonomy can be fostered is not to reduce it to a set of skills that need to be acquired. Rather, it is taken to mean that the teacher and the learner can work towards autonomy by creating a friendly atmosphere characterised by 'low threat, unconditional positive regard, honest and open feedback, respect for the ideas and opinions of others, approval of self-improvement as a goal, collaboration rather than competition' (Candy, 1991: 337). In the next section, some general guidelines for promoting learner autonomy will be given, on the assumption that the latter does not mean leaving learners to their own devices or learning in isolation.

5. How Can Learner Autonomy be Promoted?

To posit ways of fostering learner autonomy is certainly to posit ways of fostering teacher autonomy, as '[t]eachers' autonomy permeates into [learners'] autonomy' (Johnson, Pardesi and Paine, 1990, cited in Gathercole, 1990: 51). Nevertheless, our main focus will be on what the learner can do in order to attain a considerable degree of autonomy, even though the success of the learner is, to a great extent, determined--alas! vitiated--by the educational system and the requisite role of the teacher.

5.1. Self-reports

According to Wenden (1998: 79-95), a good way of collecting information on how students go about a learning task and helping them become aware of their own strategies is to assign a task and have them report what they are thinking while they are performing it. This self-report is called introspective, as learners are asked to introspect on their learning. In this case, 'the [introspective] self-report is a verbalization of one's stream of consciousness' (Wenden, 1998: 81). Introspective reports are assumed to provide information on the strategies learners are using at the time of the report. However, this method suffers from one limitation: '[t]he concentration put on thinking aloud might detract from [learners'] ability to do the task efficiently' (ibid.: 83), thus rendering the outcome of the report spurious and tentative.

Another type of self-report is what has been dubbed as retrospective self-report, since learners are asked to think back or retrospect on their learning. Retrospective self-reports are quite open ended, in that there is no limit put on what students say in response to a question or statement that points to a topic in a general way. There are two kinds of retrospective self-reports: semi-structured interviews and structured questionnaires. A semi-structured interview may focus on a specific skill with a view to extracting information about learners' feelings towards particular skills (reading, listening, etc.), problems encountered, techniques resorted to in order to tackle these problems, and learners' views on optimal strategies or ways of acquiring specific skills or dealing with learning tasks. A structured questionnaire seeks the same information but in a different way: by dint of explicit questions and statements, and then asking learners to agree or disagree, write true or false, and so forth.

It could be argued that self-reports can be a means of raising awareness of learners' strategies and the need for constant evaluation of techniques, goals, and outcomes. As Wenden (1998: 90) observes, 'without awareness [learners] will remain trapped in their old patterns of beliefs and behaviors and never be fully autonomous'.

5.2. Diaries and Evaluation Sheets

Perhaps one of the principal goals of education is to alter learners' beliefs about themselves by showing them that their putative failures or shortcomings can be ascribed to a lack of effective strategies rather than to a lack of potential. After all, according to Vygotsky (1978), learning is an internalised form of a formerly social activity, and 'a learner can realize [his] potential interactively--through the guidance of supportive other persons such as parents, teachers, and peers' (Wenden, 1998: 107). Herein lies the role of diaries and evaluation sheets, which offer students the possibility to plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning, identifying any problems they run into and suggesting solutions. Let us have a look at the following diaries based on authentic student accounts of their language learning:

A.

Dear Diary,

These first few days have been terrible. I studied English for eight years; just think, eight years, but I only learned a lot of grammar. I can't speak a word. I don't dare. I can't express myself in the right way, so I am afraid to speak. The other day I started watching TV, so I could get accustomed to the sound. I don't understand TV news very well--only a few words. I can't get the main point. In school it's easy to understand, but I can't understand the people in the stores. What can I do?

Yours Truly,

Impatient

(from Wenden, 1998: 102)

B.

Dear Diary,

I read the New York Times every day. Every day I learn many new expressions--a lot of vocabulary. But I can't use this vocabulary in conversation. The same thing happens with what I learn at school. I can't use it when I want to talk to Americans or even with my own Spanish friends.

I need some help.

Yours Truly,

Confused

(from Wenden, 1998: 102)

Alongside diaries, students can also benefit from putting pen to paper and writing on their expectations of a course at the beginning of the term, and then filling in evaluation

sheets, or reporting on the outcomes of a course, at the end of the term. These activities are bound to help learners put things into perspective and manage their learning more effectively. Let us consider two such reports:

1.

What do I want to do this year?

"I want to speak more English and I'd like to spell better than I do now. I would like to work with another boy or girl who is willing to speak English with me and make some activities in English. Materials: Challenge to think and crosswords.

I would like to get a more varied language and I would like to be better at spelling, especially the words used in everyday situations. How: I will prepare 'two minutes' talk' for every lesson, I will write down new words five times and practise pronouncing them. I will get someone or myself to correct it. I will read at least two books - difficult ones - and make book-reviews."

(Beginning of term - 4th year of English

[from Dam, 1990, cited in Gathercole, 1990: 30])

2.

What do you feel you know now that you didn't know before?

"I think that we have grown better at planning our own time. We know more about what we need to do and how to go about it. We try all the time to extend our vocabulary and to get an active language. Evaluation also helped us. It is like going through things again."

(End of term - 4th year of English

[from Dam, 1990, cited in Gathercole, 1990: 32])

So far, one of the assumptions underlying this discussion on learner autonomy has been that the teacher has not relinquished his "authority"; rather, that he has committed himself to providing the learners with the opportunity to experiment, make hypotheses, and improvise, in their attempt to master the target language and, along with it, to learn how to learn in their own, individual, holistic way (see Papaconstantinou, 1997). It may be the case that learner autonomy is best achieved when, among other things, the teacher acts as a facilitator of learning, a counsellor, and as a resource (see Voller, 1997, cited in Benson and Voller, 1997: 99-106). In other words, when she lies somewhere along a continuum between what Barnes (1976, cited in Benson and Voller, 1997: 99) calls transmission and interpretation teachers. As Wright (1987: 62, cited in Benson and Voller, 1997: 100) notes, transmission teachers believe in subject disciplines and boundaries between them, in content, in standards of performance laid down by these disciplines that can be objectively evaluated - that learners will find it hard to meet the standards; interpretation teachers believe that knowledge is the ability to organize thought, interpret and act on facts; that learners are intrinsically interested and naturally inclined to explore their worlds - that learners already know a great deal and have the ability to refashion that knowledge.

The interpretation teacher respects learners' needs and is 'more likely to follow a *fraternal-permissive* model' (emphasis added) (Stevick, 1976: 91-93, cited in Benson and Voller, 1997: 100). It is with this type of teacher that the role of persuasive communication is most congruent.

5.3. Persuasive Communication as a Means of Altering Learner Beliefs and Attitudes

Inasmuch as the success of learning and the extent to which learners tap into their potential resources in order to overcome difficulties and achieve autonomy are determined by such factors as learners' motivation, their desire to learn, and the beliefs they hold about

themselves as learners and learning per se, it is manifest that changing some negative beliefs and attitudes is bound to facilitate learning. 'Attitude change [is assumed to] be brought about through exposure to a persuasive communication [between the teacher and the learners]' (Wenden, 1998: 126). According to the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) of attitude change developed by Petty and Cacioppo (1986, cited in Wenden, 1998: 126), there are several ways of bringing about this change, however, our concern will only be with persuasive communication.

A persuasive communication is a discussion presenting information and arguments to change a learner's evaluation of a topic, situation, task, and so on. These arguments could be either explicit or implicit, especially when the topic is deemed of importance. If, for instance, a deeply ingrained fear or belief precludes the learner from engaging in the learning process, persuasive communication purports to help bring these facts to light and identify the causes that underlie them. It should be noted, though, that no arguments to influence students' views are given. Rather, the communication comprises facts that show what learners can do to attain autonomy and that learners who do so are successful (see Wenden, 1998: 126). This approach is based on the assumption that when learners are faced with convincing information about a situation, 'they can be led to re-examine existing evaluations they hold about it and revise or change them completely' (ibid.: 127).

6. Conclusion

This study is far from comprehensive, as we have only skimmed the surface of the subject and the puzzle called learner autonomy. Many more pieces are missing. For instance, no mention has been made of the role of the curriculum in promoting learner autonomy, despite the debate on the relationship between classroom practice and ideological encoding (Littlejohn, 1997, cited in Benson and Voller, 1997: 181-182). At any rate, the main point of departure for this study has been the notion that there are degrees of learner autonomy and that it is not an absolute concept. It would be nothing short of ludicrous to assert that learners come into the learning situation with the knowledge and skills to plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning, or to make decisions on content or objectives. Nevertheless, learner autonomy is an ideal, so to speak, that can, and should, be realised, if we want self-sufficient learners and citizens capable of evaluating every single situation they find themselves in and drawing the line at any inconsistencies or shortcomings in institutions and society at large. Certainly, though, autonomous learning is not akin to "unbridled learning." There has to be a teacher who will adapt resources, materials, and methods to the learners' needs and even abandon all this if need be. Learner autonomy consists in becoming aware of, and identifying, one's strategies, needs, and goals as a learner, and having the opportunity to reconsider and refashion approaches and procedures for optimal learning. But even if learner autonomy is amenable to educational interventions, it should be recognised that it 'takes a long time to develop, and--simply removing the barriers to a person's ability to think and behave in certain ways may not allow him or her to break away from old habits or old ways of thinking' (Candy, 1991: 124). As Holyoake (1892, vol. 1, p. 4) succinctly put it, '[k]nowledge lies everywhere to hand for those who observe and think'.

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An Introduction to Syllabus Design and Evaluation

Roberto Rabbini
Bunan Gakuen, Warabi, Japan

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to examine the currents running through syllabus design and to highlight the issues relevant to teachers considering creating their own curriculum with specific reference to those based in Japan. It will hopefully also help instructors better evaluate their own programs and course books. It is therefore concerned with linguistic theory and theories of language learning and how they are applied to the classroom.

In the past, the focus of syllabuses has shifted from structure to situations, functions and notions to topics and tasks. In fact, as Nunan (1988:52) suggests, with the development of the latter it is palpable that "the traditional distinction between syllabus design and methodology has become blurred". So, how should we initially define syllabus?

Syllabus: A Definition

A syllabus is an expression of opinion on the nature of language and learning; it acts as a guide for both teacher and learner by providing some goals to be attained. Hutchinson and Waters (1987:80) define syllabus as follows:

At its simplest level a syllabus can be described as a statement of what is to be learnt. It reflects of language and linguistic performance.

This is a rather traditional interpretation of syllabus focusing as it does on outcomes rather than process. However, a syllabus can also be seen as a "summary of the content to which learners will be exposed" (Yalden.1987: 87). It is seen as an approximation of what will be taught and that it cannot accurately predict what will be learnt. Next, we will discuss the various types of approaches available to course designers and the language assumptions they make.

Product-Oriented Syllabuses

Also known as the synthetic approach, these kinds of syllabuses emphasize the product of language learning and are prone to intervention from an authority.

The Structural Approach

Historically, the most prevalent of syllabus type is perhaps the grammatical syllabus in which the selection and grading of the content is based on the complexity and simplicity of grammatical items. The learner is expected to master each structural step and add it to her grammar collection. As such the focus is on the outcomes or the product.

One problem facing the syllabus designer pursuing a grammatical order to sequencing input is that the ties connecting the structural items maybe rather feeble. A more fundamental criticism is that the grammatical syllabus focuses on only one aspect of language, namely grammar, whereas in truth there exist many more aspects to language. Finally, recent corpus based research suggests there is a divergence between the grammar of the spoken and of the written language; raising implications for the grading of content in grammar based syllabuses.

The Situational Approach

These limitations led to an alternative approach where the point of departure became situational needs rather than grammatical units. Here, the principal organizing characteristic is a list of situations which reflects the way language and behavior are used

everyday outside the classroom. Thus, by linking structural theory to situations the learner is able to induce the meaning from a relevant context.

One advantage of the situational approach is that motivation will be heightened since it is 'learner- rather than subject-centered' (Wilkins.1976: 16). However, a situational syllabus will be limited for students whose needs were not encompassed by the situations in the syllabus. This dissatisfaction led Wilkins to describe notional and communicative categories which had a significant impact on syllabus design.

The Notional/Functional Approach

Wilkins' criticism of structural and situational approaches lies in the fact that they answer only the 'how' or 'when' and 'where' of language (Brumfit and Johnson. 1979:84). Instead, he enquires "what it is they communicate through language" (Op.Cit.:18). Thus, the starting point for a syllabus is the communicative purpose and conceptual meaning of language i.e. notions and functions, as opposed to grammatical items and situational elements which remain but are relegated to a subsidiary role.

In order to establish objectives, the needs of the learners will have to be analyzed by the various types of communication in which the learner has to confront. Consequently, needs analysis has an association with notional-functional syllabuses. Although needs analysis implies a focus on the learner, critics of this approach suggest that a new list has replaced the old one. Where once structural/situational items were used a new list consisting of notions and functions has become the main focus in a syllabus. White (1988:77) claims that "language functions do not usually occur in isolation" and there are also difficulties of selecting and grading function and form. Clearly, the task of deciding whether a given function (i.e. persuading), is easier or more difficult than another (i.e. approving), makes the task harder to approach.

The above approaches belong to the product-oriented category of syllabuses. An alternative path to curriculum design would be to adopt process oriented principles, which assume that language can be learnt experientially as opposed to the step-by-step procedure of the synthetic approach.

Process-Oriented Syllabuses

Process-Oriented Syllabuses, or the analytical approach, developed as a result of a sense of failure in product-oriented courses to enhance communicative language skills. It is a process rather than a product. That is, focus is not on what the student will have accomplished on completion of the program, but on the specification of learning tasks and activities that s/he will undertake during the course.

Procedural/Task-Based Approaches

Prabhu's (1979) 'Bangalore Project' is a classic example of a procedural syllabus. Here, the question concerning 'what' becomes subordinate to the question concerning 'how'. The focus shifts from the linguistic element to the pedagogical, with an emphasis on learning or learner. Within such a framework the selection, ordering and grading of content is no longer wholly significant for the syllabus designer.

Arranging the program around tasks such as information- and opinion-gap activities, it was hoped that the learner would perceive the language subconsciously whilst consciously concentrating on solving the meaning behind the tasks. There appears to be an indistinct boundary between this approach and that of language teaching methodology, and evaluating the merits of the former remain complicated.

A task-based approach assumes that speaking a language is a skill best perfected through practice and interaction, and uses tasks and activities to encourage learners to use the language communicatively in order to achieve a purpose. Tasks must be relevant to the real world language needs of the student. That is, the underlying learning theory of task based and communicative language teaching seems to suggest that activities in which language is employed to complete meaningful tasks, enhances learning.

Learner-Led Syllabuses

The notion of basing an approach on how learners learn was proposed by Breen and Candlin (1984). Here the emphasis lays with the learner, who it is hoped will be involved in the implementation of the syllabus design as far as that is practically possible. By being fully aware of the course they are studying it is believed that their interest and motivation will increase, coupled with the positive effect of nurturing the skills required to learn.

However, as suggested earlier, a predetermined syllabus provides support and guidance for the teacher and should not be so easily dismissed. Critics have suggested that a learner-led syllabus seems radical and utopian in that it will be difficult to track as the direction of the syllabus will be largely the responsibility of the learners. Moreover, without the mainstay of a course book, a lack of aims may come about. This leads to the final syllabus design to be examined; the proportional approach as propounded by Yalden (1987).

The Proportional Approach

The proportional syllabus basically attempts to develop an "overall competence" (Op.Cit.:97). It consists of a number of elements with theme playing a linking role through the units. This theme is designated by the learners. It is expected initially that form will be of central value, but later, the focus will veer towards interactional components; the syllabus is designed to be dynamic, not static, with ample opportunity for feedback and flexibility (ibid:100).

The shift from form to interaction can occur at any time and is not limited to a particular stratum of learner ability. As Yalden (ibid:87) observes, it is important for a syllabus to indicate explicitly what will be taught, "not what will be learned".

This practical approach with its focus on flexibility and spiral method of language sequencing leading to the recycling of language, seems relevant for learners who lack exposure to the target language beyond the classroom. But how can an EFL teacher pinpoint the salient features of the approaches discussed above?

Syllabus Design and Evaluation

Initially, several questions must be posed. Do you want a product or process oriented syllabus? Will the course be teacher or learner led? What are the goals of the program and the needs of your students? This leads to an examination of the degree to which the various elements will be integrated, which is of great significance to White (1988:92) who comments:

A complete syllabus specification will include all five aspects: structure, function, situation, topic, skills. The difference between syllabuses will lie in the priority given to each of these aspects.

Eclecticism is a common feature of the majority of course books under the communicative banner currently on offer. Attempting to combine the various aspects of language has also been addressed by Hutchinson and Waters who state:

Any teaching material must, in reality, operate several syllabuses at the same time. One of them will probably be used as the principal organizing feature, but the others are still there (op.cit.:89).

What should the language teacher based in Japan make of this review? What points are relevant to them?

Traditionally, the grammar-translation method (mid-nineteenth century to Second World War) has been the staple of the language class in Japanese secondary education in spite of efforts from programs such as JET. Students are expected to understand and memorize lists of vocabulary, phrasal verbs / idioms, grammar rules etc for the purpose of translating selected texts and preparation for university entrance tests. On

graduating from either high school or university, many students remain unable to communicate at even a basic level.

Widdows and Voller (1991) found that Japanese learners desired oral-aural skills whilst rejecting a need for structural knowledge or technical writing. As Long and Russell (1999:27) observe:

It seems reasonable after years of English classes focused on grammar, Japanese students would want more conversational practice, want to have more confidence and better speaking skills.

This implies that a syllabus focusing on the communicative aspect of language would satisfy the needs and desires of young Japanese adult learners. Group psychology, years of passive learning and the grammatical syllabus under attack here, ensure that most 15 to 25 year olds in Japan remain at the false beginner / elementary level in communicative terms. Such learners lack confidence in their productive skills and require communicative activities to activate the language they have learned whilst building their self-assurance. The importance of adopting a communicative approach is compounded by the fact that the university entrance examinations are the "true driving force of EFL education in Japanese high schools" (Gorsuch 1999:9). Despite requests by the Japanese Ministry of education for syllabus designers to regard the four skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking equally, materials writers continue to base their trade on helping students prepare for exams. In viewing language as a system of grammatical and vocabulary items, the "communicative ethos of the course of study" (ibid:9) is neglected.

In light of this background, and given the monolingual nature of Japanese society and the lack of exposure to the target language outside the classroom, a task based strategy with a blend of approaches and emphasis on communicative learning, may well be one of the most suitable types of syllabus design on offer for language learners in Japan.

Conclusion

Clearly, there is a vast amount of material to disseminate when considering syllabus design. The numerous approaches touched on here all offer valuable insights into creating a language program. The synthetic approaches of structuralism, situational and functional-notional, all have objectives to be attained, a content to be processed and learnt. The foundations of the product syllabuses remain fundamentally similar, whereas the underlying assumptions about language and language learning from the analytic approaches differ greatly: process type syllabuses assert that learning a language is transient and cannot be itemized; pedagogical procedure takes precedence over content.

If our assumptions about the nature of linguistics and language learning is one of "language as communication" (Richards and Rodgers 1986:69) then a syllabus based around activities and tasks which promote real and meaningful communication will seem advantageous. We have shown that the false beginner in Japan will have learned structural rules to a surprisingly complex degree, yet may find it difficult to use, or indeed, may never have had an opportunity to use the language learned. Consequently, the belief that learning is facilitated by activities that include real communication, may be the most suitable belief to adopt in the Japanese classroom.

Further points to consider when critically reviewing a syllabus are the objectives of the course as well as the needs of the learners. Ultimately, and perhaps ideally, a hybrid syllabus will result purely due to pragmatic reasons. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987:51) suggest:

It is wise to take an eclectic approach, taking what is useful from each theory and trusting also in the evidence of your own experience as a teacher.

Thus, to what extent has an integration of the various approaches taken place? Does the syllabus specification include all aspects? If yes, how is priority established?

These questions must also form part of the criteria when designing or assessing your own syllabus.

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Motivation as a Contributing Factor in Second Language Acquisition

Jacqueline Norris-Holt
Aichi Shukutoku High School, Nagoya, Japan

This paper explores Gardner's socio-educational model and the significance of motivation as a contributing factor in second language (L2) acquisition. Motivation is defined as the learner's orientation with regard to the goal of learning a second language. Motivation is divided into two basic types: integrative and instrumental. Integrative motivation is characterised by the learner's positive attitudes towards the target language group and the desire to integrate into the target language community. Instrumental motivation underlies the goal to gain some social or economic reward through L2 achievement, thus referring to a more functional reason for language learning. Both forms of motivation are examined in light of research which has been undertaken to establish the correlation between the form of motivation and successful second language acquisition. Motivation in the Japanese EFL context is then discussed and studies which have been conducted in the field investigated.

Gardner's Socio-Educational Model

The work conducted by Gardner in the area of motivation was largely influenced by Mowrer (1950, cited in Larson-Freeman and Long 1994), whose focus was on first language acquisition. Mowrer proposed that a child's success when learning a first language could be attributed to the desire to gain identity within the family unit and then the wider language community. Using this as the basis for his own research Gardner went on to investigate motivation as an influencing factor in L2 acquisition.

Before examining the effect of motivation on second language learning it is first important to realise that it is one variable, which, combined with other factors, influences a learner's success. Gardner (1982), in his socio-educational model, identified a number of factors which are interrelated when learning a second language. Unlike other research carried out in the area, Gardner's model looks specifically at second language acquisition in a structured classroom setting rather than a natural environment. His work focuses on the foreign language classroom. The model attempts to interrelate four features of second language acquisition. These include the social and cultural milieu, individual learner differences, the setting or context in which learning takes place and linguistic outcomes (Gardner 1982).

The social or cultural milieu refers to the environment in which an individual is situated, thus determining their beliefs about other cultures and language. It is these beliefs which have a significant impact on second language acquisition. An example of this can be seen in the monocultural setting of Britain, where many believe it is not necessary to learn another language and that minority groups should assimilate and become proficient in the dominant language of the country. The same can be said of many other predominantly monocultural communities throughout the world. However, in other countries such as Canada, bilingualism and biculturalism, are often encouraged within society (Ellis 1997). Gardner (1979, cited in Skehan 1993) suggests that expectations regarding bilingualism, combined with attitudes towards the target language and its culture, form the basis of an individual's attitude towards language learning.

The second phase of Gardner's model introduces the four individual differences which are believed to be the most influential in second language acquisition. These include the variables of intelligence, language aptitude, motivation and situational anxiety (Giles and Coupland 1991). Closely interrelated with these variables is the next phase of the

model, referred to as the setting or context in which learning takes place. Two contexts are identified, namely formal instruction within the classroom and unstructured language acquisition in a natural setting. Depending upon the context, the impact of the individual difference variables alters. For example, in a formal setting intelligence and aptitude play a dominant role in learning, while exerting a weaker influence in an informal setting. The variables of situational anxiety and motivation are thought to influence both settings equally.

The final phase of the model identifies linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes of the learning experience. Linguistic outcomes refers to actual language knowledge and language skills. It includes test indices such as course grades or general proficiency tests. Non-linguistic outcomes reflect an individual's attitudes concerning cultural values and beliefs, usually towards the target language community. Ellis (1997) reasons that individuals who are motivated to integrate both linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes of the learning experience will attain a higher degree of L2 proficiency and more desirable attitudes.

Within the model, motivation is perceived to be composed of three elements. These include effort, desire and affect. Effort refers to the time spent studying the language and the drive of the learner. Desire indicates how much the learner wants to become proficient in the language, and affect illustrates the learner's emotional reactions with regard to language study (Gardner 1982).

Integrative Motivation

Motivation has been identified as the learner's orientation with regard to the goal of learning a second language (Crookes and Schmidt 1991). It is thought that students who are most successful when learning a target language are those who like the people that speak the language, admire the culture and have a desire to become familiar with or even integrate into the society in which the language is used (Falk 1978). This form of motivation is known as integrative motivation. When someone becomes a resident in a new community that uses the target language in its social interactions, integrative motivation is a key component in assisting the learner to develop some level of proficiency in the language. It becomes a necessity, in order to operate socially in the community and become one of its members. It is also theorised that "integrative motivation typically underlies successful acquisition of a wide range of registers and a nativelike pronunciation" (Finegan 1999:568).

In an EFL setting such as Japan it is important to consider the actual meaning of the term "integrative." As Benson (1991) suggests, a more appropriate approach to the concept of integrative motivation in the EFL context would be the idea that it represents the desire of the individual to become bilingual, while at the same time becoming bicultural. This occurs through the addition of another language and culture to the learner's own cultural identity. As Japan is predominantly a monocultural society, opportunities to use the target (L2) language in daily verbal exchanges are relatively restricted. There is also limited potential for integrating into the target language community.

Instrumental Motivation

In contrast to integrative motivation is the form of motivation referred to as instrumental motivation. This is generally characterised by the desire to obtain something practical or concrete from the study of a second language (Hudson 2000). With instrumental motivation the purpose of language acquisition is more utilitarian, such as meeting the requirements for school or university graduation, applying for a job, requesting higher pay based on language ability, reading technical material, translation work or achieving higher social status. Instrumental motivation is often characteristic of

second language acquisition, where little or no social integration of the learner into a community using the target language takes place, or in some instances is even desired.

Integrative vs Instrumental Motivation

While both integrative and instrumental motivation are essential elements of success, it is integrative motivation which has been found to sustain long-term success when learning a second language (Taylor, Meynard and Rheault 1977; Ellis 1997; Crookes et al 1991). In some of the early research conducted by Gardner and Lambert integrative motivation was viewed as being of more importance in a formal learning environment than instrumental motivation (Ellis 1997). In later studies, integrative motivation has continued to be emphasised, although now the importance of instrumental motivation is also stressed. However, it is important to note that instrumental motivation has only been acknowledged as a significant factor in some research, whereas integrative motivation is continually linked to successful second language acquisition. It has been found that generally students select instrumental reasons more frequently than integrative reasons for the study of language. Those who do support an integrative approach to language study are usually more highly motivated and overall more successful in language learning.

One area where instrumental motivation can prove to be successful is in the situation where the learner is provided with no opportunity to use the target language and therefore, no chance to interact with members of the target group. Lukmani (1972) found that an instrumental orientation was more important than an integrative orientation in non-westernized female learners of L2 English in Bombay. The social situation helps to determine both what kind of orientation learners have and what kind is most important for language learning. Braj Kachru (1977, cited in Brown 2000) also points out that in India, where English has become an international language, it is not uncommon for second language learners to be successful with instrumental purposes being the underlying reason for study.

Brown (2000) makes the point that both integrative and instrumental motivation are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Learners rarely select one form of motivation when learning a second language, but rather a combination of both orientations. He cites the example of international students residing in the United States, learning English for academic purposes while at the same time wishing to become integrated with the people and culture of the country.

Motivation is an important factor in L2 achievement. For this reason it is important to identify both the type and combination of motivation that assists in the successful acquisition of a second language. At the same time it is necessary to view motivation as one of a number of variables in an intricate model of interrelated individual and situational factors which are unique to each language learner.

Motivation in the Japanese Context

The issue of motivation and the successful acquisition of English in Japan is complex. One cannot simply observe input, in terms of the amount of time spent studying the language and then output, expressed as linguistic performance when investigating language learning. In order to examine language learning in the Japanese context it is necessary to explore a number of factors which contribute to the way in which English education is conducted in Japan. One of the most influential factors is that of the structure of university entrance exams which ultimately determine the institution to which a student gains acceptance. Due to the way these exams are structured, schools and instructors are forced to educate students in a manner which will prove most useful to them. Therefore, the focus of what is taught in secondary school is geared toward sitting such entrance examinations. These exams are a rigorous test of grammatical understanding of the English language, with students being required to translate complex passages and have knowledge of extensive vocabulary and grammatical structures

(Morrow 1987). The focus of the exams is not directed toward the speaking and listening skills of students. For this reason schools see no need to prepare students for something which will not be examined. It has been suggested that having to undertake such university exams is the main reason or source of motivation for students studying English (LoCastro 1996). Certainly, a high percentage of both junior and senior high school students identify the major reason for English study as a necessity for achievement in examinations.

Research in Japan

In a study conducted by Berwick and Ross (1989), a group of 90 first-year Japanese university students enrolled in an international commerce and a compulsory English course were examined to determine their degree and form of motivation. The students were found to possess instrumental motivation, with the underlying reason for studying English being the entrance exam requirements for university. Typically, upon entrance to the desired establishment the student's interest to continue study declined. Prior to beginning the English class the students were tested for motivation, which was found to be low. However, on completion of 150 hours of class time the motivation level of students had improved. Some suggestions for this alteration in motivation included the use of a variety of instructional techniques and the recent adoption of an exchange program with an American sister university. This may have affected student perceptions and thus, their motivation to study the language.

In the same study (Berwick et al. 1989) it was proposed that motivation for studying English peaks in the final year of high school when students channel all their energy into studying for university entrance. Once students gain entrance to a university, motivation to continue English study is sometimes diminished. Many first-year students appear to have no academic purpose. In direct contrast to this, however, is the strong desire of many adults to once again resume study. This often takes place in the many private foreign language schools which provide classes at all hours of the day, catering for the busy employee who is often occupied until late in the evening. Some of the many reasons for the renewed interest of adults in studying include acquiring new skills necessary for the workplace and preparation for an overseas work transfer.

Benson (1991) noted that educators in Japan are often surprised by university student's lack of ability using spoken English, compared with that of their grammatical understanding of the language. He reported that university student's motivation to study English was often mixed. Some students appeared to be generally enthusiastic, but lacked application. Benson also found that some of the reasons suggested by students for English study could not be grouped as either integrative or instrumental forms of motivation. For this reason he constructed a third group labelled as "personal". This category included motivational reasons such as, "pleasure at being able to read English, and enjoyment of entertainment in English" (Benson 1991:36). The results from his study showed a preference for integrative and personal forms of motivation, even though this was restricted. Benson suggests that the student's rejection of instrumental motivation illustrates the view that students do not perceive English as having a vital role to play in their lives. He also makes the point that the rejection of instrumental reasons for the study of English may indicate that the Japanese language is considered adequate for normal daily verbal exchange.

Discussion

From information brought to light by Morrow (1987) on English in the Japanese education system it would appear that little has changed in the past 13 years. The teaching of English in junior and senior high school is still directed toward preparing students for university entrance examinations. Therefore, the underlying motivation to study the language is largely instrumental. Morrow claims that many English teachers have poor

listening and speaking skills, thus relying on their vocabulary and grammatical understanding of the English language. Although this may be true for many older professionals still engaged in the teaching of English, many younger teachers now entering the system appear to place greater emphasis on developing competency in all areas of the language. Some of these same teachers also work hard to incorporate greater use of oral English within the classroom. This can only work to motivate learners as they are exposed to English speaking Japanese teachers in the education system. Nakamura (1982, cited in Berwick et al. 1989) suggests that the Anglo-American instructors with whom students are presented can often instil psycho-social barriers to learning the English language. Perhaps in the past this may have been true, however with increasing numbers of communicatively competent Japanese teachers this is, perhaps, no longer valid.

Suggestions for Teachers

In order to make the language learning process a more motivating experience instructors need to put a great deal of thought into developing programs which maintain student interest and have obtainable short term goals. At university level this may include, as suggested by Berwick et al. (1989), any number of foreign exchange programs with other universities, overseas "homestay" programs, or any other activities which may help to motivate students to improve their target language proficiency. At the secondary school level, and especially in the senior years, this task may prove more difficult. With the focus of study being directed toward university entrance students may have little desire or indeed motivation to improve language proficiency. For the foreign language teacher this may result in a certain level of frustration due to the general lack of interest and commitment by some students. Teachers need to create interesting lessons in which the students attention is gained. This can sometimes be accomplished by the use of teaching strategies which are not often called upon by other teachers in mainstream subject areas. Encouraging students to become more active participants in a lesson can sometimes assist them to see a purpose for improving their communication skills in the target language. Successful communication using the target language should result in students feeling some sense of accomplishment. Research in the area suggests L2 achievement strongly affects learner motivation (Strong 1983, cited in Ellis 1997).

The use of an interesting text can also help to increase the motivation level of students in the classroom. Many Japanese texts often contain material which fails to capture the interest of students due to the heavy emphasis on vocabulary and grammar. Many foreign texts, however, which have been designed for EFL, and specifically the Japanese market, often contain topics which can create a great deal of classroom interaction and help to motivate students to develop their language skills. It is important for the instructor to take advantage of such discussion topics and help students to realise that, even though they may see no need to become proficient in a second language, the study of another language and culture can only enhance their perception and understanding of other cultures.

No matter what the underlying motivation to study a second language, what cannot be disputed is the fact that motivation is an important variable when examining successful second language acquisition. Japan is perhaps, a unique environment in which to learn English, especially when taking into consideration the many factors which influence the manner in which the language is taught. Although change may be slow to the education system, the introduction of the English language as a subject in elementary school, in the year 2002, can only help to further motivate students to achieve higher levels of proficiency in the future.

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Integrating Literature into the Language Lesson: EFL Context

Rafael Sh. Akhmedov
Zeyneb E. Akhmedova

Gulistan State University, Gulistan, Uzbekistan

This article considers the reasons why teachers often regard literature as inappropriate to the language classroom. These views reflect the historic separation between the study of language and the study of literature, which has led to the limited role of literature in the language classroom. However, the use of literary texts can be a powerful pedagogic tool. This article describes various approaches to teaching literature and provides a rationale for an integrated approach to teaching literature in the language classroom based on the premise that literature is language and language can indeed be literary.

Introduction

As teachers of English as a Foreign Language our main concern is to help learners acquire communicative competence. For this reason, we tend to focus on teaching standard forms of linguistic expression. However, despite acquiring linguistic accuracy, it is apparent that EFL speakers still have difficulties in comprehending the nuances, creativity and versatility which characterise even standard and transactional forms of English, as these humorous public notices demonstrate:

- We take your bags and send them in all directions. – Copenhagen airline ticket office
- Would you like to ride on your own ass? – Advertisement for donkey rides in Thailand
- You are invited to take advantage of the chambermaid. – Japanese hotel (<http://koti.mbnet.fi/neptunia/english.htm>)

Communicative competence is more than acquiring mastery of structure and form. It also involves acquiring the ability to interpret discourse in all its social and cultural contexts. For this reason, the use of literature in the EFL classroom can provide a powerful pedagogic tool in learners' linguistic development.

Focusing on Literature

Language, both spoken and written, comes in a variety of discourse types and, as teachers of language, we attempt to introduce our learners to as many of these as possible. The variety and types of discourse are perhaps best represented by Kinneavy's communication triangle (1983). This classification of discourse types includes **expressive**, which focuses on personal expression (letters, diaries, etc.); **transactional**, which focuses on both the reader and the message (advertising, business letters, editorials, instructions, etc.); and **poetic**, which focuses on form and language (drama, poetry, novels, short stories, etc.). Indeed, all these discourse types already play a significant role in teaching various aspects of language such as vocabulary and structure, or testing learners' comprehension.

However, there is often reluctance by teachers, course designers and examiners to introduce unabridged and authentic texts to the EFL syllabus. There is a general perception that literature is particularly complex and inaccessible for the foreign language learner and can even be detrimental to the process of language learning (Or, 1995). Indeed, it is difficult to imagine teaching the stylistic features of literary discourse to learners who have a less than sophisticated grasp of the basic mechanics of English language. This perception is also borne out by research (Akyel and Yalçın, 1990) which shows that the

desire to broaden learners' horizons through exposure to classic literature usually has disappointing results. The reasons why teachers often consider literature inappropriate to the language classroom may be found in the common beliefs held about literature and literary language. Firstly, the creative use of language in poetry and prose often deviates from the conventions and rules which govern standard, non-literary discourse, as in the case of poetry where grammar and lexis may be manipulated to serve orthographic or phonological features of the language. Secondly, the reader requires greater effort to interpret literary texts since meaning is detached from the reader's immediate social context; one example is that the "I" in literary discourse may not be the same person as the writer.

The result is that the reader's "interpretative procedures" (Widdowson, 1975) may become confused and overloaded. What this means is that the reader has to infer, anticipate and negotiate meaning from within the text to a degree that is not required in non-literary discourse. Thus, in our efforts to teach our learners' communicative competence there is a tendency to make use of texts which focus on the transactional and expressive forms of writing with the exclusion or restriction of poetic forms of language – i.e. literature. There is a perception that the use of literary discourse deflects from the straightforward business of language learning, i.e. knowledge of language structure, functions and general communication.

Why Teach Literature in the Language Classroom?

The classification of discourse types in this way would seem to suggest that there are distinct differences between literary and non-literary discourse. This reflects a historic divergence between language and literature, which Short (1996) refers to as a 'border dispute over territory' between linguists and literary critics. This divergence has resulted in the teaching of the two subjects as 'disconnected pedagogic practices' (Carter and McRae, 1996: xxiv). This is not to say there is no difference between literary and non-literary discourse; however, Carter and Nash (1990) suggest that rather than perceiving literary discourse as separate and remote from non-literary discourse, we ought to consider the variety of text types along a continuum with some being more literary than others. This view is part of the idea that the separation of literature from language is a false dualism since literature is language and language can indeed be literary. It is not difficult to find instances of standard transactional forms of discourse which make use of a whole array of literary devices. Headlines and advertisements are common examples of discourse which exploits literary language. The following examples make explicit use of alliteration, assonance, register, imagery, ellipsis and rhythm – stylistic devices which are more commonly associated with literature than with standard, transactional language.

- Headline: King Khan Goes for Gold (The Scotsman, 28.08.2004)
- Headline: Bookies' bonanza comes at a price (The Scotsman, 28.08.2004)
- Advertisement: You'll never put a better bit of butter on your knife
- Country Life butter
- Advertisement: Have a break, have a Kit Kat - Kit Kat chocolate
- Advertisement: Put a tiger in your tank – ESSO

The boundaries which are thought to exist between literary and non-literary discourse are not so distinct. Indeed, as Widdowson (1979) suggests, the procedures which are used to interpret literary discourse are essentially the same for interpreting any type of discourse.

Approaches to Teaching Literature

Having decided that integrating literature into the EFL syllabus is beneficial to the learners' linguistic development, we need to select an approach which best serves the

needs of EFL learners and the syllabus. Carter and Long (1991) describe the rationale for the use of the three main approaches to the teaching of literature:

The Cultural Model

This model represents the traditional approach to teaching literature. Such a model requires learners to explore and interpret the social, political, literary and historical context of a specific text. By using such a model to teach literature we not only reveal the universality of such thoughts and ideas but encourage learners to understand different cultures and ideologies in relation to their own. This model is largely rejected by those in TEFL since not only does it tend to be teacher-centred but there is little opportunity for extended language work.

The Language Model

The most common approach to literature in the EFL classroom is what Carter and Long (1991) refer to as the 'language-based approach'. Such an approach enables learners to access a text in a systematic and methodical way in order to exemplify specific linguistic features e.g. literal and figurative language, direct and indirect speech. This approach lends itself well to the repertoire of strategies used in language teaching - cloze procedure, prediction exercises, jumbled sentences, summary writing, creative writing and role play - which all form part of the repertoire of EFL activities used by teachers to deconstruct literary texts in order to serve specific linguistic goals. Carter and McRae (1996) describe this model as taking a 'reductive' approach to literature. These activities are disconnected from the literary goals of the specific text in that they can be applied to any text. There is little engagement of the learner with the text other than for purely linguistic practice; literature is used in a rather purposeless and mechanistic way in order to provide for a series of language activities orchestrated by the teacher.

The Personal Growth Model

This model attempts to bridge the cultural model and the language model by focusing on the particular use of language in a text, as well as placing it in a specific cultural context. Learners are encouraged to express their opinions, feelings and opinions and make connections between their own personal and cultural experiences and those expressed in the text. Another aspect of this model is that it helps learners develop knowledge of ideas and language - content and formal schemata - through different themes and topics. This function relates to theories of reading (Goodman, 1970) which emphasise the interaction of the reader with the text. As Cadorath and Harris point out (1998:188) "text itself has no meaning, it only provides direction for the reader to construct meaning from the reader's own experience". Thus, learning is said to take place when readers are able to interpret text and construct meaning on the basis of their own experience.

These three approaches to teaching literature differ in terms of their focus on the text: firstly, the text is seen as a cultural artefact; secondly, the text is used as a focus for grammatical and structural analysis; and thirdly, the text is the stimulus for personal growth activities. What is needed is an approach to teaching literature in the EFL classroom which attempts to integrate these elements in a way that makes literature accessible to learners and beneficial for their linguistic development.

Rationale for an Integrated Model for Teaching Literature

According to Duff and Maley (1990), the main reasons for integrating these elements are linguistic, methodological and motivational. **Linguistically**, by using a wide range of authentic texts we introduce learners to a variety of types and difficulties of English language. **Methodologically**, literary discourse sensitises readers to the processes of reading e.g. the use of schema, strategies for intensive and extensive reading etc. And, lastly, **motivationally**, literary texts prioritise the enjoyment of reading since, as Short and Candlin assert (1986), 'if literature is worth teaching...then it seems axiomatic that it is the response to literature itself which is important'. Interpretation of texts by learners can

bring about personal responses from readers by touching on significant and engaging themes. An integrated model is a linguistic approach which utilises some of the strategies used in stylistic analysis, which explores texts, literary and non-literary, from the perspective of style and its relationship to content and form. This involves the systematic and detailed analysis of the stylistic features of a text - vocabulary, structure, register etc. in order to find out 'not just what a text means, but also how it comes to mean what it does' (Short, 1996). This suggested model (O'Brien, 1999) integrates linguistic description with interpretation of the text although for the benefit of the foreign language learners it is not as technical, rigorous or analytical as the stylistics approach. With the careful selection of the text, it can be adapted for all levels.

Stage 1: Preparation and Anticipation.

This stage elicits learners' real or literary experience of the main themes and context of text.

Stage 2: Focusing

Learners experience the text by listening and or reading and focusing on specific content in the text.

Stage 3: Preliminary Response

Learners give their initial response to the text - spoken or written

Stage 4: Working at it - I

Focus is on comprehending the first level of meaning through intensive reading.

Stage 5: Working at it - II

Focus is on analysis of the text at a deeper level and exploring how the message is conveyed through overall structure and any special uses of language - rhythm, imagery, word choice etc.

Stage 6: Interpretation and Personal Response

The focus of this final step is on increasing understanding, enhancing enjoyment of the text and enabling learners to come to their own personal interpretation of the text. This is based on the rationale for the personal growth model.

Conclusion

There are many benefits to using literature in the EFL classroom. Apart from offering a distinct literary world which can widen learners' understanding of their own and other cultures, it can create opportunities for personal expression as well as reinforce learners' knowledge of lexical and grammatical structure. Moreover, an integrated approach to the use of literature offers learners strategies to analyse and interpret language in context in order to recognize not only how language is manipulated but also why. An integrated approach to the use of literature in the language classroom offers foreign language learners the opportunity to develop not only their linguistic and communicative skills but their knowledge about language in all its discourse types. The use of literary texts in the language classroom can be a potentially powerful pedagogic tool.

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Reasons for Using Songs in the ESL/EFL Classroom

Kevin Schoepp
Sabanci University, Istanbul, Turkey

Introduction

Songs have been part of the human experience for as long as we can remember. As Gugliemino (1986) stated, adults sing at religious services, bars, in the shower, and listening to the car radio. Songs have become an integral part of our language experience, and if used in coordination with a language lesson they can be of great value. Fortunately, with the expanding prevalence of the Internet and specifically the World Wide Web into both the classrooms and lives of students, access to music and lyrics has been made easier. This paper will focus on the reasons for using songs by demonstrating their effectiveness as a learning tool.

Theoretical Rationale

A large amount of literature which discusses the value of using songs in ESL/EFL classrooms is not empirically based. However, based upon teacher experience, the first hand knowledge of what actually occurs in a language classroom is, in fact, very valuable. The first step in developing a theoretical rationale for using songs in the classroom is to label the types of listening processes and then identify the reasons teachers and researchers provide. From here, we can see that the teachers' motives are actually grounded in theory. Patterns emerge from the literature as to why teachers and researchers find using songs valuable. These patterns include affective reasons, cognitive reasons, and linguistic reasons.

There are two processes involved in listening, and both can be utilized when songs are used in the classroom. The activity which is selected for a particular song will determine which of these processes is active. Cullen (1999) states that

The first is bottom-up processing where the listener builds up the sounds into words, sentences and meaning. The second is top-down processing where the listener uses background knowledge to understand the meaning of a message. Practicing both of these processes is essential for developing listening comprehension.

The affective, cognitive, and linguistic reasons for using songs which follow, are all grounded in learning theory, and provide insights into the benefits of songs in the classroom.

Affective Reasons

The Affective Filter Hypothesis is one of five proposed hypotheses developed by Steven Krashen. Basically, it is an explanation of how the affective factors relate to language learning. It is particularly appealing to teachers because it provides an explanation to why some learners learn and others do not.

Teachers have long recognized the need for students to have a positive attitude in regard to learning. Krashen (1982) explains that for optimal learning to occur the affective filter must be weak. A weak affective filter means that a positive attitude towards learning is present. If the affective filter is strong the learner will not seek language input, and in turn, not be open for language acquisition. The practical application of the Affective Filter Hypothesis is that teachers must provide a positive atmosphere conducive to language learning. Songs are one method for achieving a weak affective filter and promoting language learning.

With the affective filter weak, Saricoban and Metin (2000) have found that songs can develop the four skill areas of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Eken (1996, p.46) states that songs can be used:

- To present a topic, a language point, lexis, etc.
- To practice a language point, lexis, etc.
- To focus on common learner errors in a more direct way
- To encourage extensive and intensive listening
- To stimulate discussion of attitudes and feelings
- To encourage creativity and use of imagination
- To provide a relaxed classroom atmosphere
- To bring variety and fun to learning

Lo and Li (1998) offer similar suggestions, writing that songs provide a break from classroom routine, and that learning English through songs develops a non-threatening classroom atmosphere in which the four language skills can be enhanced. The belief that songs provide enjoyment and develop language skills is also noted by several other authors (Adamowski, 1997; Bechtold, 1983; Domoney & Harris, 1993; Griffee, 1992; Guglielmino, 1986; Lems, 1984; Little, 1983; Monreal, 1982). The enjoyment aspect of learning language through song is directly related to affective factors.

Cognitive Reasons

Songs also present opportunities for developing automaticity which is the main cognitive reason for using songs in the classroom. Gatbonton and Segalowitz (1988, p.473) define automaticity as "a component of language fluency which involves both knowing what to say and producing language rapidly without pauses." Using songs can help automatize the language development process. Traditionally, it was believed that automatization would occur through repetitive exercises in a non-communicative environment. However, the major shift towards the communicative teaching methodology requires that automatization occur in a different manner. Gatbonton and Segalowitz (1988, p.476) state that we must "place students in an environment in which it is appropriate to use target utterances in a genuinely communicative fashion." The nature of songs is fairly repetitive and consistent. For example, a song such as "Sailing" by Rod Stewart provides ample opportunities for students to focus on the present progressive tense. The repetitive style of the song lends itself to an activity in which students create their own present progressive sentences based upon their own interest. After listening to the song, students create their own lyrics following the same tune as the song. Lyrics such as: I am writing, I am writing, in my notebook with my friends, are common examples of the type of language that students produce.

Linguistic Reasons

Besides automatization, there is also a linguistic reason for using songs in the classroom. Some songs are excellent examples of colloquial English, that is, the language of informal conversation. A song such as "My Best Was Never Good Enough" by Bruce Springsteen is a prime example of a song that demonstrates colloquial language use. This song is full of phrases like "Every cloud has a silver lining," and "Every dog has his day." Of course, the majority of language most ESL students will encounter is in fact informal. Using songs can prepare students for the genuine language they will be faced with.

Finally, two studies, Domoney and Harris (1993) and Little (1983) investigated the prevalence of pop music in the lives of EFL students. Both studies found that music is often the major source of English outside of the classroom. The exposure to authentic English is an important factor in promoting language learning. It relates directly to both the affective filter and automaticity. If students are exposed to songs which they enjoy, more learning is likely to occur since they may seek out the music outside of the classroom. The repetitive style of songs then helps to promote automatization of colloquial language.

Conclusion

As demonstrated, the three theoretical reasons are all intertwined and help to demonstrate the value of using songs in the classroom. The next step in the procedure is to successfully integrate the songs into a language lesson. Because of the Internet, access to music, lyrics, and activities has been simplified which makes it easy for the teacher to effectively use songs in the classroom.

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Pronunciation: What Are the Expectations?

Marcus Otlowski

Osaka Technological University, Osaka, Japan

The usefulness of teaching pronunciation is a widely debated subject in the language teaching world. Some of the current research would suggest that teachers can make little or no difference in improving their students pronunciation. In contrast, there is research that indicates that the teacher can make a noticeable difference if certain criteria, such as the teaching of suprasegmentals and the linking of pronunciation with listening practice, are fulfilled. If the above views indicate the split in opinion about the teaching of pronunciation, can pronunciation be successfully taught, and if so, what are the pedagogical implications for the classroom teacher and the learner? This article, in light of the current research and opinions, asks the question 'Is it reasonable to expect all students to do well in learning the pronunciation of English?' The article consists of an examination of the role of pronunciation in current and past language programs, recent research on pronunciation and the learner, current pedagogical thinking on pronunciation and learning, and some proposed new roles for the teacher and student in the communicative classroom. It is hoped that this short overview of the role of pronunciation in EFL/ESL programs will prompt more teachers to reconsider the relationship between the learner and pronunciation.

Introduction

This paper examines whether it is reasonable to expect all students to do well in learning the pronunciation of a foreign language. For the purpose of this paper 'foreign language' will be deemed to be English and 'pronunciation' is defined as 'A way of speaking a word, especially a way that is accepted or generally understood.' (American Heritage Dictionary, 3rd.,1992) The paper looks at the role of pronunciation in language programmes, the recent research on pronunciation and the learner, current ideas on pronunciation and learning, and the proposed new roles pronunciation, the teacher, and the student should have in today's communicative language programme.

Background

The role of pronunciation in the different schools of language teaching has varied widely from having virtually no role in the grammar-translation method to being the main focus in the audio-lingual method where emphasis is on the traditional notions of pronunciation, minimal pairs, drills and short conversations. (Castillo, 1990:3) Situational language teaching, developed in Britain, also mirrored the audio-lingual view of the pronunciation class (Richards and Rodgers,1986). Morley (1991:484) states, 'The pronunciation class...was one that gave primary attention to phonemes and their meaningful contrasts, environmental allophonic variations, and combinatory phonotactic rules, along with ...attention to stress, rhythm, and intonation.' During the late 1960's and the 1970's questions were asked about the role of pronunciation in the ESL/EFL curriculum, whether the focus of the programmes and the instructional methods were effective or not. Pronunciation programmes until then were 'viewed as meaningless noncommunicative drill-and-exercise gambits' (Morley,1991:485-6). In many language programmes the teaching of pronunciation was pushed aside, as many studies concluded 'that little relationship exists between teaching pronunciation in the classroom and attained proficiency in pronunciation; the strongest factors found to affect pronunciation (i.e. native language and motivation) seem to have little to do with classroom activities' (Suter,1976: 233-53,Purcell and Suter, 1980:271-87).

Recent Research

The above view that 'little relationship exists between teaching pronunciation in the classroom and attained proficiency in pronunciation' was supported by research done by Suter (1976:233-53) and Suter and Purcell (1980:286) on twenty variables believed to have an influence on pronunciation. They concluded that pronunciation practice in class had little affect on the learner's pronunciation skills and, moreover 'that the attainment of accurate pronunciation in a second language is a matter substantially beyond the control of educators'. They qualified their findings by stating that variables of formal training and the quality of the training in pronunciation could affect the results, as would the area of pronunciation that had been emphasized, that is segmentals (individual sounds of a language) or suprasegmentals. (The "musical patterns" of English, melody, pitch patterns, rhythm, and timing patterns [Gilbert, 1987:33-39].) Pennington (1989:203-227) questioned the validity of Suter and Purcell's findings as the factors of formal pronunciation training and the quality of the teaching, if not taken into account, could affect any research results. He stated that there was 'no firm basis for asserting categorically that pronunciation is not teachable or that it is not worth spending time on...' (p.20). It is quite clear from the research mentioned above that the role of pronunciation training in the learner's language development is widely debated, with researchers such as Suter, Purcell, and Madden (1983:69-80) all thinking that pronunciation training is relatively ineffective, and in opposition researchers such as Pennington believing that teachers, with formal training in pronunciation and teaching suprasegmentals in a communicative language programme, can make a difference. Between these opposing views, Stern (1992:112) says 'There is no convincing empirical evidence which could help us sort out the various positions on the merits of pronunciation training'. If the above views represent the split in the teaching of pronunciation, what can the teacher do to improve their students' pronunciation, if improvement can be obtained?

Current Ideas on Pronunciation and Learning

Changing outlooks on language learning and teaching have influenced a move from teacher centred to learner centered classrooms. Concurrently, there has been a shift from specific linguistic competencies to broader communicative competencies as goals for teachers and students (Morley,1991:481-520). Morley states the need for the integration of pronunciation with oral communication, a change of emphasis from segmentals to suprasegmentals, more emphasis on individual learner needs, meaningful task-based practices, development of new teacher strategies for the teaching, and introducing peer correction and group interaction. (Castillo,1991:4) Research has shown that teaching phonemes isn't enough for intelligibility in communication (Cohen,1977:71-7). With the emphasis on meaningful communication and Morley's (1991:488) premise, that 'Intelligible pronunciation is an essential component of communication competence' teachers should include pronunciation in their courses and expect students to do well in them. Without adequate pronunciation skills the learner's ability to communicate is severely limited. Morley believes that not attending to a student's pronunciation needs, 'is an abrogation of professional responsibility (1991:489)'. Other research gives support to Morey's belief in the need for 'professional responsibility' when the results show that 'a threshold level of pronunciation in English such that if a given non-native speaker's pronunciation falls below this level, he or she will not be able to communicate orally no matter how good his or her control of English grammar and vocabulary might be' (Celce-Murcia, 1987:5). Gilbert (1984:1) believes the skills of listening comprehension and pronunciation are interdependent: 'If they cannot hear English well, they are cut off from the language...If they cannot be understood easily, they are cut off from conversation with native speakers.' Nooteboom (1983:183-94) also has suggested that speech production is affected by speech perception; the hearer has become an important factor in communication discourse. This illustrates the need to integrate pronunciation with communicative activities; to give the

student situations to develop their pronunciation by listening and speaking. The current research and the current trend reversal in the thinking of pronunciation shows there is a consensus that a learner's pronunciation in a foreign language needs to be taught in conjunction with communicative practices for the learner to be able to communicate effectively with native speakers.

Pronunciation and Communicative Teaching

Students can be expected to do well in the pronunciation of English if the pronunciation class is taken out of isolation and becomes an 'integral part of [the] oral communication' class (Morley, 1991:496). The goal of pronunciation should be changed from the attainment of 'perfect' pronunciation (A very elusive term at the best of times.), to the more realistic goals of developing functional intelligibility, communicability, increased self-confidence, the development of speech monitoring abilities and speech modification strategies for use beyond the classroom (Morley, 1991:500). The overall aim of these goals is for the learner to develop spoken English that is easy to understand, serves the learner's individual needs, and allows a positive image of himself as a speaker of a foreign language. The learner needs to develop awareness and monitoring skills that will allow learning opportunities outside the classroom environment. The communicative approach to pronunciation teaching requires teaching methods and objectives that include 'whole-person learner involvement' (Morley, 1991:501). Morley states there are three important dimensions the teacher should cater for in any pronunciation programme; the learner's intellectual involvement, affective involvement, and physical involvement. The learner's involvement in the learning process has been noted as one of the best techniques for developing learner strategies, that is, the measures used by the learner to develop his language learning (Morley, 1991:506). It is the teacher's responsibility to develop the learning process so the learner has the greatest chance to develop the learning strategies that are unique to each individual learner. The teacher also has a special role to play in the communicative learning programme, a role that Morley describes as one of 'speech coach or pronunciation coach' (1991:507). Rather than just correcting the learner's mistakes, the 'speech coach' 'supplies information, gives models from time to time, offers cues, suggestions and constructive feedback about performance, sets high standards, provides a wide variety of practice opportunities, and overall supports and encourages the learner' (Morley, 1991:507). It can be seen the teacher's role is not only to 'teach' but to facilitate learning by monitoring and modifying English at two levels, speech production and speech performance.

Conclusion

All students can do well in learning the pronunciation of a foreign language if the teacher and student participate together in the total learning process. Success can be achieved if each have set, respectively, individual teaching and learning goals. Pronunciation must be viewed as more than correct production of phonemes: it must be viewed in the same light as grammar, syntax, and discourse, that is a crucial part of communication. Research has shown and current pedagogical thinking on pronunciation maintains that 'intelligible pronunciation is seen as an essential component of communicative competence' (Morley, 1991:513). With this in mind, the teacher must then set achievable goals that are applicable and suitable for the communication needs of the student. The student must also become part of the learning process, actively involved in their own learning. The content of the course should be integrated into the communication class, with the content emphasizing the teaching of suprasegmentals, linking pronunciation with listening comprehension, and allowing for meaningful pronunciation practice. With the teacher acting as a 'speech coach', rather than as a mere checker of pronunciation, the feedback given to the student can in itself encourage learners to

improve their pronunciation. If these criteria are met, all students, within their learner unique goals, can be expected to do well learning the pronunciation of a foreign language.

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Evaluating Sustained Silent Reading in Reading Classes

Chow, Ping-Ha

Po Leung Kuk Lee Shing Pik College, Hong-Kong, China

Chou, Chi-Ting

Deh-Yu College of Nursing and Management, Taiwan

A literature review on the effects of incorporating sustained silent reading (SSR) in class was given and the key features of successful SSR were examined. A general assumption about reading is that students improve their reading ability by reading a lot. Research on native speakers of English and students of English as a second language has shown that the amount of time spent reading is related to students' reading comprehension and vocabulary growth. Students also develop more positive attitudes towards reading after the SSR programs. The effects are more prominent when the students are allowed to select their own reading materials and the SSR programs are run for 6 months or more.

Introduction

A Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) program has been implemented in schools through the Hong Kong Extensive Reading Scheme in English, which has been initiated and developed by the Education Department for 10 years. The aim of the SSR is to help students develop a good habit of reading and improve their English proficiency in the long run. In sustained silent reading, students read silently in a designated time period every day in school. They select their own reading material and are not asked to answer comprehension questions or write book reports. SSR is nothing new. The term Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading was introduced as early as 1960. McCracken (1971) set forth some basic rules for initiating SSR. Since then, it has been implemented in reading classes at all grade levels. According to several research studies, effects of SSR on students' reading include improvement in reading skills and vocabulary acquisition, as measured by reading test scores, developing a positive attitude towards reading and cultivating a better reading habit.

Gains in Achievement

The study of Nagy, Herman & Anderson (1985) investigated whether students acquire measurable knowledge about unfamiliar words while reading natural text. Subjects were 57 eighth grade students of average and above average reading ability. They were given individual interview and a multiple choice test. The results suggest that a moderate amount of reading will lead to substantial vocabulary gains. Since SSR involves substantial amounts of natural reading, it is probable that this practice fosters vocabulary growth. The researchers state that the findings indicate that reading is a most effective way to produce large-scale vocabulary growth. This study supports the hypothesis that incidental learning from context during free reading is the major mode of vocabulary acquisition during the school years.

A study (Ozburn, 1995) of 60 ninth grade students in remedial classes produces similar findings. Students read a self-selected book for the first 10-15 minutes of each daily 55-minute class. They also checked the books out and were encouraged to read at home. The Gates MacGinitie Reading Test was administered before the study and 9 months later. Results show that all students have improved in their reading level. In the Project READ, which includes the use of SSR, conducted in the Washington D.C. public schools, Coley (1983) reported that over the 6 month period of the project, gains in reading achievement occurred in both 7th and 8th grades. The effect of non-stop reading on improved

comprehension is evident in achievement score gains (4). Compared with the control groups, students participating in the project demonstrated better reading strategies when having trouble reading a book. Coley thinks that the result of Project READ lends strong support for the inclusion of a period of non-stop reading daily.

Shifts in Attitudes

Attitude changes towards reading have also been observed. Attitude shifts occurred in both attitude towards reading and attitude towards paperback books for students in Project READ (5). Ozburn (1995) reported that the students checked out over 2000 books during SSR program. Wiesendanger and Birlem (1984) noted that nine of the eleven research studies they analyzed presented evidence that students develop more positive attitudes towards reading in schools with SSR. Valeri-Gold (1995) incorporated SSR in her reading classes and found that the majority of students felt that SSR had a positive influence on their attitudes about reading. They had read a lot more since SSR was implemented into their reading classes.

A survey by Wiesendanger & Bader (1989) investigated what happened after the termination of SSR. They monitored the summer reading habits of both students who had, and those who has not been exposed to SSR during the previous school year. Results of the survey show students who had participated during the academic year in a reading program that incorporated SSR read considerably more during the following summer than did those who had not been part of the SSR program. This survey indicates that SSR can affect the reading habits of students even after they have completed the program. It has also been found that SSR has the greatest positive effect on students of average reading ability.

Providing a Better Knowledge Base

In addition to gains in achievement and shift in attitude, Grubaugh points out that the kind of wide reading that students engage in during SSR should broaden their background of information, thus providing them with a better knowledge base with which to relate to their subject area textbooks and lectures. SSR readers may solve some of their own problems by reading books about kids their own age who are faced with the problems of growing up. Grubaugh stresses that student will learn that reading is more than completing worksheets or memorizing sight words. They learn that reading is laughing, crying, adventuring, exploring, or finding out how to do things. Students will discover reading as a worthwhile pastime and begin to develop an appreciation of the magic of books (170). Fielding et al. agree that reading the wide range of topics in trade books can provide insights into different kind of people, interpersonal relationships, and moral dilemmas that can be difficult to learn from real life.

Does SSR Really Work?

Thousands of students after six or more months of SSR were asked about their reaction to it (McCracken):

Students say they like SSR because it is quiet, with many indicating it is the only quite time in their entire day. All kinds of students have responded that they learned to like to read. Poor readers responded that since no one watches them they can make mistakes without worrying. Able readers say that they are relieved because they don't have to prove that they are bright every time they read something. All respond that they like SSR because they can read what they want to read (582).

Despite a number of advocates who affirm that SSR works, there are studies which show that SSR makes no significant difference on reading comprehension or it has a negative effect. Dwyer & Reed (1989) conducted a study to investigate the attitudes towards reading of students engaging in SSR. There were 19 fourth and fifth graders in the experimental group and 21 fifth graders in the control group. The experimental group engaged in 15 minutes SSR and the control group had 20 minutes more instructional time

in regular reading program. The findings reveal that the experimental group demonstrated an overall drop of nearly 2 points on the attitude scale. The experimental girls gained slightly. There have been no substantial differences in any of the control group pre and post attitude scores. The results seem consistent with findings of a survey by Herbert, (1987) who distributed an attitude survey to 636 students from 7th to 9th grades in a suburban junior high school. Students' responses were largely negative towards SSR. Students did not like it and did not feel it improved their reading skills (651).

It seems that more studies in this area are needed. However, it has to be noted that in Dwyer & Reed's study, both experimental and control groups were using the same basal reading series. Even though students were engaged in SSR, they were not reading books of their own choice, and the sample in the study was small. In Herbert's survey, not much background information is given. It is known that students spent 12 minutes a day 4 or 5 days a week in SSR and they responded anonymously to the survey. In their overview of the research on the effectiveness of SSR, Wiesendanger & Birlem conclude that while effect of SSR on word recognition and reading comprehension appears inconclusive, the relationship between SSR and positive reading attitudes seems clearly established in most studies. They add that "when analyzing the results of long term studies, it is evident that the findings are skewed in favor of SSR" (197). It would prove worthwhile to look into factors that can be attributed to the failure or success of SSR.

Key Elements of Successful SSR

Teacher as a Role Model

Campbell argues that what the teacher does during and after the reading time is crucial. Teachers have the opportunity to demonstrate their interest in and enjoyment of reading by providing a role model of silent reading (179). In order for SSR to be a success, the teacher has to read and modeling does not finish at the end of the silent reading period. Campbell suggests that teachers should comment upon, talk about books they read. Students in class will become eager to do the same. When Valeri-Gold implemented SSR, she brought in several books that she had read over the summer and the latest book she was reading. She told the students why she had selected these books and why she loved to read. She believes that it will help motivate students to select books to read, promote a love for reading and assess who she is as a reader.

A Long Term Project

In reviewing the studies on SSR, Wiesendanger & Birlem observe that four of the five studies conducted for 5 months or less reported that SSR did not improve reading comprehension or word recognition. However, the studies engaging in SSR had achieved significantly better results in reading achievement (199). This observation prompts them to query whether it is possible that the effects of SSR on reading comprehension and word recognition are more likely to be evident only after a period of at least 6 months. From her experience of implementing a successful high school SSR program, Ozburn agrees with Krashen that it will take over 4 months for an SSR program to show results (5). She points out that the time may be longer. It takes many students 4 or 5 months to become hooked on books.

Availability of Materials on a Wide Range of Topics and Readability

The limitation of basal readers leads to the support for using trade books as reading materials for students (Fielding et al.; Redding). According to Redding, the advantage of using trade books is the wide variety of books available to teachers. The importance of wide variety is to ensure that each student will find a book that will interest him/her. Moreover, trade books use real language, not writing designed to fit a specified vocabulary list. Fielding et al. agree that basal readers and textbooks do not offer the same richness of vocabulary, sentence structure, or literary form as do trade books. Students who spend time reading trade books have more opportunity to unravel the intricacies of

written language than students whose reading is restricted to textbooks (153). Ready access to these books is also important. Fielding et al. Remark that although good school and community libraries are a valuable resource, they cannot match the ready availability of books in classroom collections. A classroom library should become a springboard into wider reading. A teacher can build on the students' experience with the classroom library by actively encouraging them to seek books from school and public libraries (157). If possible, there should be a continuous influx of new books.

Ownership and Communities of Readers

"If we want our adolescent students to grow to appreciate literature, another first step is allowing them to exert ownership and choose the literature they will read" (Atwell 161). Allowing students to select their own reading materials will enhance students' motivation to read. McCracken states that no student, able or remedial, should be chided for reading an easy book. A student in Valeri-Gold's SSR class wrote in his journal that in the past, the only time he read was when it was required and he knew that he would be tested on the material. After participating in SSR in class, he feels differently about reading because he chooses his own book to read (336). Allowing students to create their own e-curriculum' for reading is an important factor to promote lifelong interest in reading and for students to enjoy reading. By building a community of readers within the class, students can be provided with opportunities after SSR to share their reflections aloud with their peers for discussion and feedback (Valeri-Gold 386). Readers discuss books and what they mean to them, talk about the process of reading and see themselves as readers and interpreters of writing (Redding 6). Siblings, parents and teachers may join the community of readers. The group will talk about books they have read and get recommendation for future reading. Sharing and conferencing of reading experience will help to create a classroom environment where reading is valued.

Other Factors

There are other factors that may be instrumental in determining whether or not SSR is successful. Success of SSR may depend on the support of the principal, teachers, and other staff members in the school. Wiesendanger & Birlem support the view that the attitude of the teacher toward SSR may be very significant. Teachers' enthusiasm or lack of interest in reading is easily communicated to students. Creating a quiet, relaxing and nonevaluative classroom environment is also a key element for successful SSR.

Studies Done with ESL Students

The discussion of the effects of SSR above is based on the SSR research on native speakers of English. There are a few studies that show SSR can be useful for English as a Second Language students. In Pilgreen & Krashen's study (1993), 125 high school ESL students in grades 10 through 12 participated in SSR for 12 to 15 minutes per day and were encouraged to continue their reading at home. Results indicate that students clearly enjoyed SSR. They reported that they engaged in outside reading more and liked leisure reading better after the 16-week SSR program. Students also showed gains in the Stanford Diagnostic Reading Comprehension Test. However, there is a lack of a control group in this study. It may affect the reliability of the findings, but the results are suggestive. Another study (Petrimoulx) involved 16 foreign students from 10 countries in the International Language Institute of the University of South Florida. Students were divided into 3 groups. Two groups received no SSR, while the third group did SSR 10 minutes a day for 15 weeks. Pre and Post reading comprehension tests and vocabulary tests were administered. The target group showed reading comprehension and vocabulary gains greater than the two control groups, but the gains are too small to be considered significant from a statistical point of view. A survey in this study does reveal a high degree of acceptance of the SSR activity and an increase of at-home reading.

A study that shows significant results was conducted in India (Aranha), a school in the suburbs of Bombay that uses English as its medium of instruction. SSR was introduced twice a week in one fourth grade class. Attitudes towards reading and reading achievement of the children in the experimental class were compared to those children in a control class that used the same language program without SSR. The results of the study show a high gain in reading attitudes in the SSR group and a loss in attitude scores in the control group. Girls of the experimental SSR group showed significant improvement in achievement scores compared with girls in the control group. Aranha concludes that SSR is a suitable classroom procedure for schools in Asia and Africa since it attempts to improve students' attitudes towards reading and their achievement in reading (217).

Elley & Mangubhai emphasize the important role of high-interest story reading in second language learning. They claim that exposure of the second language is normally planned, restricted, gradual and largely artificial. The amount of exposure is also limited (54, 55). Second language learners will benefit from total immersion in the target language. To test the "Book Flood Hypothesis": exposure to large numbers of story books will have an effect on general language competence, Elley & Mangubhai conducted a study in Fiji. The findings of this study and a follow-up study a year later demonstrate that there has been great progress in English language growth in the Book Flood groups.

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Challenges in Translation of Medical Terms: New Age Conditions

Zarina Yarieva
Sevara K. Karimova
Malika V. Agzamova
Gulistan State University, Gulistan, Uzbekistan

Introduction

The medical translation field is highly complex, posing constant challenges of disseminating new knowledge and discoveries across cultural boundaries worldwide. Austrian born American medical translator, Henry Fischbach (1921 - 2008), is famous for stating that "medical translation may well be the most universal and oldest form of scientific translation because of the ubiquitousness of human anatomy and physiology (after all, the human body is much the same everywhere)." As Fischbach puts it, the demand for medical translation and interpretation is continuous, as, since time immemorial, studies of the human body have focused on exploring common features and finding universal solutions for the inherent issues all humans face alike. Thus, medical translation is a field in which accuracy and precision are immensely important, as the language is often technical, very particular, and maybe vital to a patient's health.

Medical Translation Skill Requirements

Medical translation services are especially challenging when equivalents to scientific and health related terms, technical matters, and at times concepts for diseases or treatments don't exist in another culture or language.

Translating medical terminology and jargon becomes even more complex with the emergence of new diseases and therapies. As new global epidemics continue to challenge the field of medicine, such as Zika and Ebola, they create a greater need for multilingual translation. However, since medical terminology is so broad, it's inevitable that issues will occur as translators attempt to create correct and corresponding translations across languages.

Being a translator in the medical industry demands a deep understanding of medical vocabulary in two or more languages. Being bilingual doesn't necessarily mean that someone will be able to translate medical jargon from one language to another because the terminology is not familiar to those outside of a particular profession. For example, even someone with a background in cardiology may not be adequately fluent in the terminology specific to the field of oncology, especially in another language.

A good medical translator should have the following 3 capabilities:

- Have a comprehensive knowledge and reasoning ability in the medical topic being translated
- Be able to read and understand the source language competently so that he/she understands the intended meaning of a particular text
- Be able to accurately express the meaning of the translation in the target language

All 3 attributes are equally important, as each attribute is closely connected to one another in terms of understanding specific phrasing in different languages. Even if just one of the above mentioned skills is not performed, it will ultimately hinder the translation process.

Medical Translation Comprehension

Translating medical terminology requires several cognitive skills that go hand in hand with communicating messages effectively. Issues may arise if a medical translator uses medical terms and language which can be understood only by those in the specific field of medicine rather than adapting it for the target patient population.

Challenges and Issues in the Field of Medical Translation-Virus

An example of this is when a translator uses the nomenclature or terminology for certain viruses while translating medical documents for a lay audience. For instance, Varicella is the English medical term for chicken pox, but there's a good chance a patient would not be familiar with this term. As a result, when translating documents into English for medical professionals, a translator should use the term "Varicella", and use "chicken pox" in a document intended for patients.

This isn't only exclusive to chicken pox. Detailed below is a sample of medical terms with their simplified meanings that a translator working into English would have to distinguish between, depending on the recipients of the translation:

- Epistaxis: nosebleed
- Lachrymation: excessive flow of tears
- Cholelithiasis: presence of gallstones in the common bile duct
- Xerosis: dry skin
- Aphthous stomatitis: non-contagious mouth sores
- Xeroderma pigmentosum: high sensitivity to sunlight

Translating Drug Names

Besides translating ailments and diseases, translators can face an array of problems when trying to produce translations of prescription drug names. Brand and generic drugs, for example, can have specific given names helping to identify them in the country in which they are sold.

The World Health Organization, which regulates international public health, assigns various pharmaceutical products an International Nonproprietary Name (INN). An INN is a name given to a generic drug based on its active ingredient. This ultimately helps to reduce confusion when differentiating drug names.

For instance, Ventolin is the trade name for a prescription drug that helps open up airways and medicate asthma sufferers. The INN for this drug is actually "Salbutamol". This is further complicated in the United States where drugs are also named by their United States Adopted Name (USAN). For Ventolin this happens to be "Albuterol". Translation of this type of medicine is often needed for writing prescriptions, but knowing the target audience of the prescription is most important.

When translating medical documents for an American doctor, it would be appropriate for a medical translator to use "Albuterol". On the other hand, a medical translator should use "Salbutamol" when translating a prescription for physicians outside of the United States. Additionally, it is important to know that sometimes drugs are only known by a single name (usually their INN), which must be agreed upon by both of two governing bodies, the United States Adopted Names (USAN) Council and the INN Expert Group.

Understanding generic drug terminology can play a significant role for medical translators who must translate drug names in medical documents intended for both physicians and patients, especially since often patients and physicians recognize a particular prescription drug by a different name. Therefore, the translator must do their part in understanding which audience to tailor their translation.

Translating drug names is an especially difficult task in the field of medical translation, because every year government agencies such as the FDA approve a new list of drugs that can be sold within the U.S. As more drugs receive the green light to be marketed,

medical translators have the challenge of adopting terms to accurately translate drug names based on the three options available.

A few examples of some recently FDA approved drugs, with their trade name and their INN in parentheses, are listed below:

- Siliq (brodalumab), treats plaque psoriasis
- Symproic (naldemedine), treats opioid-induced constipation
- Brineura (cerliponase alfa), treats type 2 infantile neuronal ceroid lipofuscinosis
- Ocrevus (ocrelizumab), for multiple sclerosis treatment
- Radicava (edaravone), for ALS treatment
- Kevzara (sarilumab), treats active rheumatoid arthritis

Cultural Context

What many can often overlook is that cultural context also has an influence on medical translation. This is evidenced by certain medical terms that can have dissimilar meanings depending on the country in which they are used. Medical translators therefore have to take cultural context into account; otherwise the meaning of the words they are trying to translate can easily be misconstrued.

Differences in cultural context regarding medical jargon can be found in British and American English.

For instance, the word “surgery” in American English means a procedure that a doctor will perform on a patient. However, “surgery” in British English actually refers to the office hours of a doctor.

The same is true across extremely different languages, and consequently a translator needs to be aware of medical terms with “false friends” in other languages.

False Friends in Medical Translation

When producing medical translations, a non-professional individual attempting to translate the content may be tempted to think that a similar sounding word in a target language is the correct translation of the particular medical term in the source language.

Nevertheless, in many instances that may not be the case. For example, the literal translation of the stomach condition “peptic ulcer” in French is “ulcère peptique”, yet this is not the correct translation of this condition. The correct translation in French is actually “ulcère gastro-duodénal”.

In addition, a translator might think that the proper translation for the French term “anthrax” is the same in English, but in reality the correct English translation would be “carbuncle”. It is the translator’s job to dissociate medical terms from their false friends in another language, in order to produce the most accurate translation possible.

The Perspectives

Medical translation services continue to be an important bridge for people of all nationalities to understand medical terminology. Without the expertise of medical translators, it would be almost impossible for monolingual people to expand their knowledge of global public health issues.

Nowadays as the Internet has become a standard tool to research topics relating to public health, people can also access medical translation companies across the web. Online Medical translation services can help a person understand more about biological and pharmaceutical terminology, and about state of the art medical devices as well.

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Shifts in the Process of Translating Medical Texts from English into Uzbek: Summary of the Corpus-based Analysis

Zarina Yarieva
Mavjuda R. Yoldasheva
Zarina S. Holmurodova
Gulistan State University, Gulistan, Uzbekistan

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to conduct a linguistic-based investigation into the frequency of translation shifts in the process of translating medical texts from English into Uzbek in Uzbekistan. Several sources were sampled from different branches or sub-branches of medicine in which a large number of English-into-Uzbek translations are done in Uzbekistan and the world linguistics. Then, the corpus from different sources was selected. Afterwards, 10% of the sentences of the corpus were sampled and the analysis was conducted on them. On the whole, from among 320 sampled sentences, all the sentences had undergone structural shift, 4.06% had undergone class shift, 5.31% had undergone unit shift, and 7.81% had undergone intra-system shift. In conclusion of this study, considering the features of English and Uzbek, the low number of shifts in medical texts suggests that in many cases no translation actually takes place and transliteration is the preferred approach for the erudite terms.

Translation Shifts

“Translation shifts” are one of the issues which have concerned many scholars. In 1958, presumably for the first time, Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) tried to term the linguistic changes that occurred during translation as “translation procedures”. A decade later Catford (2000) explicitly used the term “Translation Shifts” for the same reference which he defined as ‘departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the source language (SL) to the target language (TL)’ (2000, p. 141). This method of translation analysis was solely based on linguistics (belonging to the formalism era). He classified linguistic shifts from a very general view as shift of level and shift of category. “Shift of level” was something expressed by grammar in one language and lexis in another and “shift of category” as changes which are only grammatical. The latter was divided into four sub-categories: structural shift, class shift, unit shift and intra-system shift (Catford, 2000, pp. 141-147).

Literature Review

Considering studies conducted on medical translation, Herget and Alegre (2009) have investigated the translation of medical terms from Portuguese into German. Their main focus was to find out what medical translators do in translating erudite terms (words with Greek and Latin origin) between these two languages. In another study, Ouliaei Nia et al (2008) investigated the adequacy and effectiveness of Farsi (contemporary Persian) translations of drug leaflets. Based on their work, the medical texts of the drug leaflets are translatable except for the erudite medical and chemical terms which can be replaced or accompanied by a description or an explanation in parentheses to become understandable for the drug consumers, i.e. the patients.

Urgency and Topicality of the Subject

Investigating English into Uzbek translation of medical texts from a linguistic approach is clearly insufficient for understanding the actual process thoroughly. It is

clear that for a thorough understanding of the process of translation between two languages more than one aspect should be investigated. Still, investigating all the aspects together in one study would be very hard and controversial. So it would be more appropriate to take one approach at a time. Moreover, since there are many variables or factors to consider, the investigation can lead to unclear results. In order to make sense of what actually happens in the process of translation one must confine or stable most variables. Then choose one variable and perform the study on it. In our case, we faced many variables and approaches which could have been considered in investigating the process of translating medical texts from English into Uzbek (e.g. the nature of academic discourse in the medical discipline, density of information load in medical texts, the specific textual strategies employed in the discipline, etc.). However, of all the available approaches, we chose basic linguistics which was more grounded and more basic than the others since the study of translating medical texts from English into Uzbek is still a road uncharted.

Discussion of the Analysis

In case of intra-system shifts, most of the cases had occurred for the sake of fluency. In fact, Uzbek and English do not share a common lingual ancestor, so may be it is the reason why Uzbek is more expressive and exploitative than English. In this sense you need to make explicit many of the implicit concepts of an English sentence in order to make it fluent enough in Uzbek. Consequently, the results of our analysis show that beside structural shifts which occur in approximately every translated sentence, few linguistic translation shifts occur in the process of translating English medical texts into Uzbek.

One interesting secondary result of this analysis was that there were a lot of instances in which a long SL sentence had been broken in two. In other words, almost each sentence of the English language medical text, no matter how long it was, had been transferred as two sentences into the Uzbek language medical text. Maybe one of the reasons for this finding is that Uzbek and English are not the languages of one language family, English is an Indo-European language, while Uzbek originates from a Turk family of languages (i.e. languages with no fundamental similar features). Hence they cannot provide the same amount of content in the same unit size.

The resistance to translate many of the erudite words of medicine (even the ones which have common Uzbek equivalents), lack of much linguistic shifts and the one-to-one SL-into-TL correspondence of many of the words and sentences of some of these sampled texts, plus the fact that this 1000-page corpus data chosen for the research and was translated in a very short time to be released as soon as possible to the market, has led the researchers to believe that, probably, the actual translation has been done by some machine at least in some cases and then a proofread and revision has been conducted on the results. In some of the sampled sentences the very primary features of a fluent Uzbek translation were lacking and instead the TL components had nearly a one-to-one or as to say strict word-for-word correspondence.

Conclusion

This analysis set out to investigate the frequency of different kinds of linguistic translation shifts (i.e. structural shifts, class shifts, unit shifts, and intra-system shifts) based on the works of different English authors in the field of medicine that occur in the process of translating different kinds of medical texts from English into Uzbek in Uzbekistan. Of the four kinds of linguistic shifts, apart from the structural shifts which were theoretically expected to occur in every sentence, intra-system shifts were the most frequent and class shift the least frequent. Here the most important point is the fact that there is a huge difference between the frequencies of structural shifts (100%) and the small percentage of the rest of the analyzed shifts (8%, 6% and 4%). In

spite of what was expected prior to conducting this study, since most of the erudite terms had been transliterated, not translated, the number of unit shifts was few. This shows that using Catford's (2000) structural analysis is not sufficient for evaluating the medical translations from English into Uzbek. The high number of translational errors encountered in the sampled texts of this study demonstrates the big lack we face in this specialty of translation at least. It seems that many of the translators of medical books, even the popular and academic ones, do not have the required knowledge for conducting a translation. Being a good doctor does not mean that one is a good translator. In order to translate, one must, at least, have a sufficient knowledge of the principles of this specialty of translation in addition to the knowledge of medicine. Otherwise his/her work will result in works such as the texts of the corpus of this analysis. Finally, it is recommended that further studies be conducted to find out whether the translation of medical texts will involve other/more/fewer shifts than the translation of other genres. Also, investigating the nature of academic discourse in the medical discipline in the two languages of English and Uzbek can be valuable for future researches.

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Extensive Reading: Why? and How?

Timothy Bell

Kuwait University, Kuwait

Abstract

An extensive reading program was established for elementary level language learners at the British Council Language Center in Sanaa, Yemen. Research evidence for the use of such programs in EFL/ESL contexts is presented, emphasizing the benefits of this type of input for students' English language learning and skills development. Practical advice is then offered to teachers worldwide on ways to encourage learners to engage in a focused and motivating reading program with the potential to lead students along a path to independence and resourcefulness in their reading and language learning.

Introduction: The Reading Program

An extensive reading program was established at the British Council Language Center in Sanaa, Yemen. An elementary level class of government employees (age range 17-42) was exposed to a regime of graded readers, which was integrated into normal classroom teaching. Students followed a class reader, had access to a class library of graded readers, and had classes in the British Council library, which gave them access to a collection of 2000 titles. Questionnaires were used to examine students' reading interests, habits and attitudes, both prior to, and following the program. The class library contained 141 titles in the published readers of some major publishers (see inventory of titles in Bell, 1994). Familiar titles (e.g. popular Arab folk tales) were selected for both the class readers and the class library, so as to motivate the students to read. These titles proved very popular, as did the practice of reading aloud to the class.

Students' reading was carefully monitored; formal and informal records being kept both by the researcher, and by the students themselves. Reading diaries and book reports were used, together with a card file system to document the program and record both the titles read and students' written comments on the books. A wall chart acted as a focal point for in-class reading, discussion and exchange of titles. Reader interviews were conducted throughout the program, which ran for a period of six months over the course of two semesters. Students became actively involved in running the class library; tables were arranged and titles displayed attractively during the periods set aside for the reading program. Students were taken into the main British Council library for one lesson a week, during which they participated in controlled twenty-minute sessions of USSR 1 (cf. Davis, 1995).

With reference to research evidence, we now turn to the role of extensive reading programs in fostering learners' progress in reading development and improvement.

The Role of Extensive Reading in Language Learning

1. It can provide 'comprehensible input'

In his 1982 book, Krashen argues that extensive reading will lead to language acquisition, provided that certain preconditions are met. These include adequate exposure to the language, interesting material, and a relaxed, tension-free learning environment. Elley and Manghubai (1983:55) warn that exposure to the second language is normally "planned, restricted, gradual and largely artificial." The reading program provided in Yemen, and the choice of graded readers in particular, was intended to offer conditions in keeping with Krashen's model.

2. It can enhance learners' general language competence

Grabe (1991:391) and Paran (1996:30) have emphasized the importance of extensive reading in providing learners with practice in automaticity of word

recognition and decoding the symbols on the printed page (often called bottom-up processing). The book flood project in Fiji (Elley & Manghubai: op cit.), in which Fijian school children were provided with high-interest storybooks, revealed significant post treatment gains in word recognition and reading comprehension after the first year, and wider gains in oral and written skills after two years.

3. It increases the students' exposure to the language

The quality of exposure to language that learners receive is seen as important to their potential to acquire new forms from the input. Elley views provision of large quantities of reading material to children as fundamental to reducing the 'exposure gap' between L1 learners and L2 learners. He reviews a number of studies with children between six and twelve years of age, in which subjects showed rapid growth in language development compared with learners in regular language programs. There was a "spread of effect from reading competence to other language skills - writing, speaking and control over syntax," (Elley 1991:404).

4. It can increase knowledge of vocabulary

Nagy & Herman (1987) claimed that children between grades three and twelve (US grade levels) learn up to 3000 words a year. It is thought that only a small percentage of such learning is due to direct vocabulary instruction, the remainder being due to acquisition of words from reading. This suggests that traditional approaches to the teaching of vocabulary, in which the number of new words taught in each class was carefully controlled (words often being presented in related sets), is much less effective in promoting vocabulary growth than simply getting students to spend time on silent reading of interesting books.

5. It can lead to improvement in writing

Stotsky (1983) and Krashen (1984) reviewed a number of L1 studies that appear to show the positive effect of reading on subjects' writing skills, indicating that students who are prolific readers in their pre-college years become better writers when they enter college. L2 studies by Hafiz & Tudor (1989) in the UK and Pakistan, and Robb & Susser (1989) in Japan, revealed more significant improvement in subjects' written work than in other language skills. These results again support the case for an input-based, acquisition-oriented reading program based on extensive reading as an effective means of fostering improvements in students writing.

6. It can motivate learners to read

Reading material selected for extensive reading programs should address students' needs, tastes and interests, so as to energize and motivate them to read the books. In the Yemen, this was achieved through the use of familiar material and popular titles reflecting the local culture (e.g.. Aladdin and His Lamp). Bell & Campbell (1996, 1997) explore the issue in a South East Asian context, presenting various ways to motivate learners to read and explaining the role of extensive reading and regular use of libraries in advancing the reading habit.

7. It can consolidate previously learned language

Extensive reading of high-interest material for both children and adults offers the potential for reinforcing and recombining language learned in the classroom. Graded readers have a controlled grammatical and lexical load, and provide regular and sufficient repetition of new language forms (Wodinsky & Nation 1988). Therefore, students automatically receive the necessary reinforcement and recycling of language required to ensure that new input is retained and made available for spoken and written production.

8. It helps to build confidence with extended texts

Much classroom reading work has traditionally focused on the exploitation of short texts, either for presenting lexical and grammatical points or for providing students with limited practice in various reading skills and strategies. However, a large number of students in the EFL/ESL world require reading for academic purposes, and therefore need training in study skills and strategies for reading longer texts and books. Kembo (1993) points to the value of extensive reading in developing students confidence and ability in facing these longer texts.

9. It encourages the exploitation of textual redundancy

Insights from cognitive psychology have informed our understanding of the way the brain functions in reading. It is now generally understood that slow, word-by-word reading, which is common in classrooms, impedes comprehension by transferring an excess of visual signals to the brain. This leads to overload because only a fraction of these signals need to be processed for the reader to successfully interpret the message. Kalb (1986) refers to redundancy as an important means of processing, and to extensive reading as the means of recognizing and dealing with redundant elements in texts.

10. It facilitates the development of prediction skills

One of the currently accepted perspectives on the reading process is that it involves the exploitation of background knowledge. Such knowledge is seen as providing a platform for readers to predict the content of a text on the basis of a pre-existing schema. When students read, these schema are activated and help the reader to decode and interpret the message beyond the printed words. These processes presuppose that readers predict, sample, hypothesize and reorganize their understanding of the message as it unfolds while reading (Nunan 1991: 65-66).

Practical Advice on Running Extensive Reading Programs

1. Maximize Learner Involvement

A number of logistical hurdles have to be overcome in order to make an extensive reading program effective. Books need to be transported, displayed and collected at the end of each reading session. Considerable paperwork is required to document the card file system, reading records, inventories, book reports and in maintaining and updating lists of titles. Students should therefore be encouraged to take an active role in the management and administration of the reading program. In the Yemen program, students gained a strong sense of ownership through running the reading resources in an efficient, coordinated and organized manner.

2. The Reader Interview

Regular conferencing between teacher and student played a key role in motivating students in the Yemen to read the books. This enabled effective monitoring of individual progress and provided opportunities for the teacher to encourage students to read widely, show interest in the books being read, and to guide students in their choice of titles. By demonstrating commitment in their own reading, teachers can foster positive attitudes to reading, in which it is no longer viewed as tedious, demanding, hard work, but as a pleasurable part of their learning.

3. Read Aloud to the Class

In the Yemen study, reader interviews conducted with students revealed the popularity of occasions when the teacher read aloud to the class. The model of pronunciation provided acted as a great motivator, encouraging many students to

participate in classroom reading. Students gained confidence in silent reading because they were able to verbalize sounds they previously could not recognize. This resulted in wider reading by some of the weaker readers in the class. Often thought of as bad practice, reading aloud should play a full part in motivating the emerging reader to overcome the fear of decoding words in an unfamiliar script.

4. Student Presentations

Short presentations on books read played an absolutely crucial role in the program and students frequently commented on the value of oral work in class for exchanging information about the books. The reader interviews revealed that most of the book choices made by students resulted from recommendations made by friends and not by the teacher. This demonstrates that given the right preparation, encouragement, sense of ownership and belonging, an extensive reading program will achieve a direction and momentum governed by the learners themselves; a large step in the promotion of student independence and autonomy.

5. Written Work Based on the Reading

Effective reading will lead to the shaping of the reader's thoughts, which naturally leads many learners to respond in writing with varying degrees of fluency. Elementary level students can be asked simply to write short phrases expressing what they most enjoyed about a book they read, or to record questions they wish to ask the teacher or other students in class. With intermediate students, book reports may be used, with sections for questions, new vocabulary, and for recording the main characters and events. At this level, summary writing is also a valuable practice because it allows learners to assert full control, both of the main factual or fictional content of a book, and of the grammar and vocabulary used to express it. Advanced students can be asked to write compositions, which, by definition, are linguistically more demanding written responses to the reading material.

6. Use Audio Material in the Reading Program

The use of audio recordings of books read aloud and of graded readers on cassette proved very popular with the students in Yemen, and is advocated for wide application. Listening material provided the learners with a model of correct pronunciation which aided word recognition, and exposed students to different accents, speech rhythms and cadences. Student confidence in their ability to produce natural speech patterns and to read along with the voice of a recorded speaker is central to maintaining their motivation to master the language as a medium for talking about their reading.

7. Avoid the Use of Tests

Extensive reading programs should be "without the pressures of testing or marks" (Davis 1995:329). The use of tests runs contrary to the objective of creating stress-free conditions for pleasure reading because it invokes images of rote learning, vocabulary lists, memorization and homework. Extensive reading done at home should be under the learner's control and not an obligation imposed by the teacher. By their very nature, tests impose a rigor on the learning process, which the average student will never equate with pleasure.

8. Discourage the Over-Use of Dictionaries

While dictionaries certainly have a place in the teaching of reading, it is probably best located in intensive reading lessons, where detailed study of the lexical content of texts is appropriate. If learners turn to the dictionary every time they come across an unfamiliar word, they will focus only on the language itself, and not on the message conveyed. This habit will result in slow, inefficient reading

and destroy the pleasure that reading novels and other literature are intended to provide. Summarizing comments on the extensive reading done by his subjects, Pickard (1996:155) notes that "Use of the dictionary was sparing, with the main focus on meaning".

9. Monitor the Students' Reading

In order to run an extensive reading program successfully, effective monitoring is required, both to administer the resources efficiently, and to trace students' developing reading habits and interests. In the Yemen program, a card file system was used to record titles and the dates the books were borrowed and returned. Input from the monitoring process helps us to record students' progress, maintain and update an inventory of titles, and locate and select new titles for the class library. It therefore serves both the individual needs of the reader and the logistical task of managing the reading resources.

10. Maintain the Entertainment

This is perhaps the most important aspect of the program to emphasize. Teachers need to invest time and energy in entertaining the participants by making use of multimedia sources to promote the books (e.g. video, audio, CD ROM, film, etc.). They should also exploit the power of anecdote by telling the students about interesting titles, taking them out to see plays based on books, exploiting posters, leaflets, library resources, and even inviting visiting speakers to give a talk in class on a book they have read recently. In these ways, teachers can maintain student motivation to read and secure their full engagement in the enjoyment the program provides.

Conclusion

Tsang's (1996) study, carried out in Hong Kong secondary schools, provided further persuasive evidence of the effectiveness of extensive reading in fostering learners' language development. He found that "the reading program was significantly more effective than the writing program" (1996:225). Extensive reading programs can provide very effective platforms for promoting reading improvement and development from elementary levels upwards. Although they do require a significant investment in time, energy and resources on the part of those charged with managing the materials, the benefits in terms of language and skills development for the participating learners far outweigh the modest sacrifices required. If such programs receive institutional support and can be integrated into the curriculum so that they become agreed school policy, as suggested in Davis (1995), they will likely be more readily and widely adopted, particularly in countries where material and financial resources are adequate.

Notes

1. USSR is uninterrupted sustained silent reading.

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Teacher's Guide to Creating Modern Student-Centered Lesson Plans

Dilrabo Samatova
Gulistan State University, Gulistan, Uzbekistan

This article looks at the problems contemporary teachers face while preparing modern student-centered lesson plans. It also gives recommendations on how and to what points teachers should pay attention in the process of creating lesson plans.

Introduction

Even if you had plenty of practice writing lessons during your teacher training, it's hard to be prepared for the avalanche of lesson planning you'll have to do once your first year of teaching begins.

To rev up the learning curve, here are eight questions to "think aloud" as you prepare lessons. The answers will help you create high-quality, on-target plans.

At the beginning of the year, you'll probably refer to the questions frequently, but after several months of planning, you'll be a whiz. The process will become automatic!

Eight Questions to "Think Aloud" as You Prepare Lessons

1. **Students:** What are the academic, social, physical, personal, and emotional needs of my students?
2. **Strategies:** Which teaching strategies will best facilitate my students' learning?
3. **Grouping:** Should I group heterogeneously or homogeneously? What size should my groups be?
4. **Timing:** When is the best time to do this lesson? Are there prerequisites my students should have mastered?
5. **Materials:** What materials and human resources do I need for the lesson to be successful?
6. **Success:** Was the lesson successful? Were my students interested? Did my students learn? What didn't work? What will I do differently next time?
7. **Sequence:** What can I do next to build upon this lesson? How can I make it flow?
8. **Rationale:** What is the reason for doing this? What objectives will be accomplished?

The Secrets of Daily Lesson Planning

Your daily lesson plans should detail the specific activities and content you will teach during a particular week. They usually include:

- Lesson objectives
- Procedures for delivering instruction
- Methods of assessing your students
- Student groupings
- Materials needed to carry out the lesson plan

As with all planning, the format of lesson plans will vary from school to school. Many school districts provide lesson-plan books, while others allow teachers to develop their own format. Regardless of the format, here are the key components of successful lesson planning:

- Your lessons should be readable and detailed enough that a substitute teacher could teach from them in an emergency.

- Consider making a copy or two of each week's plan. I used to take one copy home and place others at key areas in my classroom so I could leave my actual lesson-plan book on my desk at all times, available for the principal. This also allowed me to work at home on preparing materials for upcoming lessons and on planning for the following week without fear of misplacing my lesson book!
- Try scripting your lessons. It was time-consuming, but in my first few years of teaching, it helped me be better organized and more confident in front of my students.
- As a general rule, begin working on plans for the next week no later than Thursday. By then you will have an idea of which lessons weren't completed, the objectives that need to be reinforced, and which upcoming school-wide activities need to be integrated into your plan. If you leave the planning until Friday after school, it may not get done!
- Make a master copy or template of the planning pages you use, and write or type those activities that stay the same each week and the times they occur. Make several copies of the new page to replace the blank lesson-plan pages, but don't copy them too far in advance, in case you change your weekly schedule. Then just fill in the blanks on the copies with specifics for the week.
- Balance grouping strategies and activities in each learning style or multiple intelligence type so you are meeting the needs of all your students.
- Check with your principal for guidelines on when he or she will want to look at your lesson plans. Some principals make a point of viewing new teachers' lesson plans on a weekly basis so they can provide on-the-spot assistance throughout the school year.

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A Product-Focused Approach to Text Summarisation

Esther Uso Juan
Juan Carlos Palmer Silveira
Universitat Jaume I-Castello, Spain

The authors of this study investigated whether summary writing instructions and second language (L2) proficiency level account for differences in the L2 summary writing performance for two groups of students. The 15 students in group A were instructed in the rules of summary writing and had an intermediate level of English. The 15 students in group B were not instructed in the rules of summary writing and had an advanced level of English. We carried out research based on a comparative product analysis, which focused on four aspects: the quality of the abridgement, the summarising strategies used by the students, the extra-textual information included in the abridgements and the rhetorical structure followed. Results indicated that the fact of having clear instructions regarding what is expected from a summary helped students in group A to enhance their writing ability and perform quite similarly to the students with an advanced English level.

Introduction

The ability to summarise information is an essential skill in University studies. Most students, through their academic life, have to condense information from lectures, journals, textbooks and other bibliographical sources in their disciplines in order to fulfill certain assignments in their own field of study. As Stotesbury (1990: 3) stated, "summarising entails the reduction of a text to its essential constituents which means that students have to be able to grasp the overall structure of a text and be able to distinguish the major issues from the minor ones."

The task of summarising in L2 has begun to receive attention in the ESL courses in the last few years. In fact, it is seen as a highly productive task by many ESL instructors because, as Palmer (1996: 123) pointed out, "it implies both the complete comprehension of the text to be abridged and the necessary writing ability to create a new version of the source text." Sarig (1988: 4) considered summarising tasks as "junctions where reading and writing take place." Therefore if we teach our students how to sum up a text, and how to condense its information, we will similarly enhance their reading and writing ability. It seems reasonable to think that our ESL classes can obtain some benefits by the teaching of summarising strategies; helping our students to understand complete sets of information allows them to develop their writing skills. This seems to create a holistic view of language use, where all other aspects will be affected by the use of production and interpretation strategies throughout the use a whole set of procedures. Summary writing, therefore, is not merely a linguistic activity, but also a communicative and discursive one, in which students apply the knowledge previously acquired.

In the attempt to link reading comprehension and writing fluency, summarising is also a very motivating teaching task. This type of activity implies the use of diverse cognitive mechanisms, as many linguists and psychologists have commented in the past (i.e., van Dijk, 1977a, 1977b, 1979; Bracewell, 1981; Flower & Hayes, 1981; Hayes and Flower, 1983; Hidi and Anderson, 1986; Amlund, Kardash, & Kulhavy, 1986; Carey & Fowler, 1986; Eysenck & Keane, 1990). Creating a summary is also identified with the development of organizing abilities, based on the rearrangement of the information in a way that should be both clear and appealing (Donin, Bracewell, Frederiksen, and Dillinger, 1992). Finally this type of activity also shows the full comprehension of the source text; only those who

can understand the original piece of discourse will be able to create an abridgement by condensing the gist of that first text (Winograd, 1984; Stotesbury, 1990).

Nevertheless, much of the research about summarising has focused mainly on L1, taking into account both process and product (Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978; Brown and Day, 1983; Winograd, 1984); on the contrary, only a reduced number of studies have focused on L2, devoting their attention to the different ways summarising strategies can enhance the students' performance in the ESP classroom context (Stotesbury, 1990; Palmer 1997, forthcoming).

Considering the literature on text summarising, there seems to be an agreement on the fact that this is a difficult task. In order to master this skill, students need to understand discourse perfectly and be able to carry out the necessary operations so as to arrive at the gist of the information (Stotesbury 1990). Aiming at helping our students to perform better when abridging a text in an L2, as well as trying to facilitate this difficult task, we decided to carry out research based on a comparative product analysis. Bearing in mind this objective, we have observed four different aspects on the students summaries:

1. Quality of the summary
2. Summarising strategies used
3. The role of extra-textual information
4. The rhetorical structure followed by the students

Method

Subjects

Two different groups of Spanish students were engaged in the experiment as part of their class requirement. The first group (henceforth known as group A) was made up of fifteen Spanish first-year university students majoring in Education. Their ages ranged from 18 to 21 years. They had studied English for an average of 7 years, mainly through formal education in Spain. Previous tests confirmed that their English proficiency level could be defined as intermediate.

The second group analysed (henceforth described as group B) was made up of Spanish teachers of English, all of them working in primary schools, who were attending an advanced course in English. Their ages ranged from 25 to 40 years. All had studied English for the usual 7 years at secondary school, plus three additional years at University. All these subjects were currently teaching English at primary schools in the Castell-n area. A number of tests confirmed that all these subjects had an advanced English proficiency level.

In order to corroborate their level in English, these two sets of learners with different L2 proficiency levels were asked to complete an additional placement test, which was administered at the beginning of the course. The test consisted of 50 multiple-choice questions regarding advanced grammar and vocabulary; these were taken from a resource book on language use (Fowler and Coe, 1980). All the fifteen students in group A scored between 31 - 40 correct answers, whereas the fifteen students in group B scored between 45 - 50 correct answers.

Source text

The source text was taken from a textbook on vocabulary strategies (Keen, 1985). The 570-word text on advertising, a popular topic among Spanish students, was divided into seven paragraphs, and its level of readability could be defined as intermediate, as a number of University lecturers pointed out (see Appendix A).

Procedure

Students read the text individually. After finishing, they had to write a summary, which was later handed in. Only the final version was observed, though some students had already created previous drafts. They had one hour to complete the task and were not allowed to use a dictionary.

As it was stated before, the main difference between both groups is the L2 proficiency level. However, a second striking difference is that, while group A had a set of instructions that were explained by the teacher before starting the task, group B did not receive any sort of help, fulfilling this task without having received any sort of previous specific summarising training.

As it is well-known summarising in L2 is a demanding task; because of this, we chose group A (the ones with a lower L2 proficiency level) to abridge the text following a set of instructions previously handed. The instructions were taken from the list suggested by Palmer (1996), although we added some modifications, trying to simplify the task as far as possible (see Appendix B).

Analysis of data

In order to analyse the thirty summaries collected, we followed these steps:

1. First of all, we analysed the quality of the summaries following Garner's (1982) seminal article. We calculated the number of main ideas presented in each summary and then, we divided them by the total number of words used. Grammar mistakes and text elaboration were disregarded.

2. Secondly, we paid attention to the basic summarising strategies employed by the students. We followed the taxonomy stated by Palmer (1997), who classified them into three types: copy verbatim, generalisation and combination of two main ideas.

3. Thirdly, we observed how many subjects incorporated extra-textual information in their abridgements.

4. Finally, we examined if students stuck to the order of main ideas appearing in the source text or if they departed from it, by paying attention to the way they started and finished the summary as well as to its general development.

The general textual structure followed in the source text was a simple one. It begins with a general introduction which indicates that advertising is everywhere in America. In the following sections, the text author offers some pros (paragraphs 2 and 3) and cons (paragraphs 4-6) of advertising, whereas the final paragraph gives the general comment that commercials are an established part of modern life and concludes indicating that "sellers will always try to persuade buyers to purchase products. And critics (...) will always attempt to force business to keep their messages honest and clear" (Keen, 1985: 52).

Results

1. Quality of the summary

The source text was divided into seven paragraphs. After a thorough analysis, a number of University lecturers decided that this text had a total of seven main ideas which they considered should appear in an abridgement. In Table 1 we can observe how those seven main ideas have been reproduced in the students' summaries:

Table 1. Number of main ideas used in the summaries

	Group A	Group B
Total number of main ideas	85	99
Average of main ideas per summary	5.6	6.6
Total number of words	1,228	1,406
Average of words per summary	81.8	93.7
Level of quality (Main ideas/words)	0.068	0.070

The data provide evidence that both groups of students understood the source text well enough to be able to summarise it, although their L2 proficiency level was quite different. In group A the average of main ideas per summary is 5.6 out of 7, presented in as

few words as possible, whereas in group B, the average of main ideas per summary is 6.6 out of 7, though these texts were considerably longer (81.8 versus 93.7 words per abridgement, respectively). Nevertheless, if we pay attention to the different length of the summaries handed by these students, their level of quality is fairly similar. As Palmer (1997) commented, the length of these abridgement has a direct influence on the overall quality of the texts. Besides, as Garner (1982: 277) pointed out, the abridgements written by both groups of students could be defined as "middle-range efficiency summaries"; this means that most of these subjects were able to depict a high number of relevant ideas in a fairly moderate number of words.

Data also suggest that those subjects who received direct instructions on summarising performed almost as successfully as those people who, although having a higher level in English, had not received any direct training on how to abridge a text. These data seem to support the idea of the importance of teaching summarising strategies in the EFL classroom, in an attempt to make good all those problems observed among non-native summarisers when dealing with a text in a foreign language. Let us observe which are the strategies most often used by our subjects in order to abridge a source text.

2. Summarising strategies used by the students

In order to cut a long story short, we would like to point out some of the strategies used by students when facing a summarising task in a foreign language. Assuming the natural ability shown by younger students in order to omit irrelevant information, we have considered three different strategies carried out by our students when abridging a text: copy verbatim, combination of two main ideas, or generalisation of information in a single sentence. Table 2 displays the data observed in our analysis.

Table 2. Summarising strategies

	Group A	Group B
Copy verbatim	7	73
Combination	17	18
Generalisation	56	23

The most important difference found out in this analysis was the high proportion of information copied verbatim observed among group B students, whereas their group A counterparts used generalisation in an equally high proportion. These results show that those students who received the set of instructions on how to draw up a good summary followed these rules and made the effort to use their own words, generalising information in order to create shorter, more concise texts, despite their lower L2 proficiency level. On the contrary, those subjects with an advanced L2 level just copied from the source text and condensed the information. One reason for the application of the copy verbatim strategy in group B may be found in the students' lack of knowledge of what summary writing actually entails. Nevertheless, we should also pay attention to a very usual device, fairly often related to faulty summarising ability, implied by the use of extra-textual information appearing within the abridgement

3. Extra-textual information

We define extra-textual information as those aspects of the general topic which did not appear in the source text, but have been included in the abridgement. In most cases they can show some reading comprehension problems, being often used as a device to get rid of difficult information that was not fully understood by the reader. Theoretically, our higher level students will be able to use it in fewer occasions throughout the experiment, using relevant information from the original source text.

Data show that just two students enrolled in group A furnished the summary with extra-textual information. In both cases we are dealing with text misinterpretations, something which confirms that all students knew that, when summarising, they did not have to incorporate additional information to their abridgements. Additionally they were also aware that they should not use their previous knowledge on the topic of the summary.

Even considering that the use of extra textual additions is a device used by students in order to increase the length of an abridgement--probably due to the lack of understanding of some of its passages--, we should also keep in mind that it can also show an interest for offering examples in order to complete relevant information. In those cases we can say that the use of extra-textual additions is proportionally inverse to the overall quality of the summary. Those students who tend to use extra-textual information delete basic data from the source text that should have appeared in their summaries. We should recommend our students to get rid of extra textual additions in their abridgements (Palmer, 1997). External information could only be accepted while clarifying aspects, and it would just increase considerably the length of the text, damaging the overall quality of the summary. If students are able to comprehend and select all the relevant information from the source text there is no need to use any kind of extra textual additions.

4. Rhetorical structure

How do students follow the organization of the text in their summaries? Do they stick to the source text order or do they depart from it? If we pay attention to Table 4, we observe that five students from group A did not comply with the source text order in their summaries. However, all those students with an advanced L2 proficiency level followed the layout observed in the source text; in all these cases, students started by drafting a general introduction, followed by an explanation of the different pros and cons of advertising (the main topic of the source text), and ending their texts with either a comment or a brief conclusion.

These results show that, although the natural tendency is to follow the source text organization, five subjects in group A departed from it and changed its general structure. In three cases subjects misunderstood the source text and, because of that, they changed the source text structure. The other two cases performed very well and, without missing many key ideas, they were capable of summarising the source text keeping the main ideas and changing its original structure.

Conclusions and Pedagogical Implications

The number of subjects in this study is so small that it is not possible to offer real generalisations or conclusions. However we can comment on the tendency we observed when we compared the summaries of the two groups.

The students' summaries under examination showed that both groups of students were able to get most main ideas from the source text in a moderate number of words, without including extra-textual information. Regarding the summarising strategies used by the students we observed that students in group A despite their lower L2 proficiency level, tried hard to use their own words when writing the summary, whereas those students in group B just copied from the source text. Finally we observed a natural tendency to follow the source text order in both groups, with the only exception of two students in group A who tried to depart from the source text order.

After analysing these data, we observed two aspects. Firstly, the L2 language proficiency significantly affected the summarising task; as data suggest, there was a tendency to perform quite well in group B (the advanced group) despite their lack of knowledge of what summary writing entails. Secondly we could also observe that the fact of having clear instructions regarding what is expected from a summary, helped group A (the ones with lower L2 proficiency) to enhance their abridging ability and perform almost as well as the students with advanced L2 proficiency.

Because of these results, we suggest that it may be relevant for our students to receive direct summarising instruction, being taught a series of instructions. In our opinion we can use this task as an activity to enhance both the reading and writing ability in the ESL classroom.

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Why Teachers Should Use Timed Reading in ESL Classes

Jeremy Browning

Nagoya University of Foreign Studies, Nagoya, Japan

Students are faced with a bombardment of information need to be better prepared for the demands that reading in society places on them. This paper explores the importance of gaining higher reading speed via timed reading and how strategic application is important for its success. When teachers apply timed reading to their program, they better prepare their students for the fast-paced world ahead of them.

Introduction

Reading is an all-important language skill that is now in more demand than in any time in our history. With the exposure of the Internet in a global arena, students need to master reading in order to understand the vast knowledge the world embraces them with. It has been said that the literate adult today is reading more in one week than their great-grandfather did in a whole year (Swalm and Kling, 1973). This fact places pressures on the student to perform at a higher level than the student before them.

It is the belief of many teaching professionals that the ESL student needs to be able to read at a level challengeable to a native speaker of English in order to keep up with the academic workload. The idea of this paper is that through the training in timed reading, the student will increase their reading speed, which will better prepare them for the challenges they will encounter when they enter the collegiate playing field (Anderson 1999). There are many reasons for implementing timed reading into a reading program and it is my wish to elaborate on some of them in this paper.

The Benefits of Faster Reading

There are many benefits in gaining a faster reading rate and Klaeser (1977) presents four positive points in this regard. The *first one* is the amount of time you will save when you're able to double your speed (for example). With an increase in speed, the student will be able to cover more materials than at a slower speed. *Figure A* illustrates the gains a student will make when their speed is increased.

This illustration shows what the gains are for students that are slow readers (150 words per minute (the average ESL student entering college)) versus students that are good readers (350 words per minute). The difference in quantity is at about 2.33 *times* more for the faster students. If the student increases their production to 250 WPM, they would be increasing their reading production by 67%. These are important gains for the student that will promote academic success.

The *second advantage* is that readers are able to concentrate better which leads to greater comprehension. Of course this area is under debate because there have been studies of students that lost comprehension when they were striving to increase their reading speed. This is usually the cause of "rushed reading" and contains little more technique than *scanning*. However, it is believed that through an "effective" timed reading program, students can attain an increased *reading rate* and *comprehension*.

Thirdly, with the increase in potential speed and comprehension, academic grades tend to rise as well. This is all due to the control of extra time, which allows for greater understanding.

Timed Reading Rates	Slow Reader (150 words per minute)	Fair reader (250 words per minute)	Good Reader (350 words per minute)
1 Week	3/4 Book	1 1/4 Books	1 3/4 Books
1 Month	3 Books	5 Books	7 Books
1 Year	36 Books	60 Books	84 Books
10 Years	360 Books	600 Books	840 Books

Figure A

Lastly and most importantly, students will enjoy the act of reading more, which promotes greater extensive reading, an added area for increased reading speed and comprehension. With increased reading rate and motivation for extended reading, students will encounter frequent and repeated vocabulary, which will transcend into other areas of language skills development.

Reading Strategies

Like any reading program, increasing reading rate is more than just opening a book and jumping into the text. Timed reading involves the use of various strategies in conjunction with in-class exercises and extensive timed reading. Timed reading isn't reading *as-fast-as-you-can* over a passage and simply marking the gradual improvement (if there are any). It involves reading strategies via the teacher's instruction.

Successful readers reported that they used various strategies such as *reading in broad phrases*, *skipping inessential words*, *guessing from context*, and *continuing to read* the text even when they encountered a term that they didn't know (Wallace 2001). Training in strategic use is what timed reading promotes and reflects what Devine means by, "...training enhances the metacognitive knowledge base of readers and results in improved reading performance." (Devine 1993)

Another strategy mentioned by Wallace is the ability to make informed *predictions* as the student progresses through the text (Goodman 1967, Smith 1971, Wallace 2001). Through making predictions, students take an interactive role in the reading process, which Blanton states is "...at the heart of literacy, formal learning, and academic success" (Blanton 1994). This interaction is stimulated by the reader's background knowledge that acts as a catalyst for text comprehension. Afflerbach researched the effects of background knowledge on readers and found that those readers who applied background knowledge or had extensive applicable prior knowledge were able to construct the main idea faster than those who didn't (Afflerbach 1990, Zhicheng 1992).

Kitao utilizes pre-reading activities to unleash knowledge the students might have about the passage, such as having them *read the title, headings, and first lines of the paragraph for initial gist* (Kitao 1994). Kitao also employs other strategies like *scanning* (for specific information), *skimming* (for gist), understanding the pieces of information by *mentally tying* them together as the student proceeds throughout the text, understanding the *sequence of events/ideas* in the reading, and lastly, *visualizing the descriptions* as the students zip through the text at a rate above reading.

Lono utilizes different strategies to attain quick information on the thesis of what is being read by reading the *first and last sentence of each paragraph*, reading the *introduction and conclusion*, and reading *transition words* that may show a change in the authors thought and direction (Lono 1987). Pre-reading strategies allow students to attain an advanced idea

of what the text is about, which helps increase their speed and comprehension during the timed reading process.

Phrase Reading

There is a structural technique that timed-reading instructors employ to aid in the speed of reading. This is known as *Phrase Reading*. This was developed because of how the eyes move across the page. When an individual reads they move across the text fixating on certain words. When a jerk in motion occurs between fixations, a *saccadic* motion occurs. This particular motion doesn't pick up information for the brain to process (Klaeser 1977). Klaeser states that

"a good reader does between 85-95% of his reading time fixating...5-15% percent moving from fixation to fixation. A poor reader spends more time moving and less time fixating. Why? Because a good reader makes each fixation work better for him. By seeing two or three words at each fixation, his saccadic movements are rapid jerks from phrase to phrase... the poor reader fixates on every single word, sometimes on every syllable or every letter. To become a good reader, the goal for using the eyes well is obvious: try to read two or three words at a glance" (Klaeser 1977).

Plaister supports this idea by implementing it in his ESL program. He administers timed reading exercises and reading strategies to aid in the students speed and comprehension. He explains that, "Most of our students are word-by-word readers and, as a consequence, read at very low rates -- 125 to perhaps 150 words per minute (the average native speaker is at around 300 WPM). Evidence shows that reading by structures help native speakers gain comprehension" (Plaister 1968)

It is clear that strategies play an intricate role in the effective development of any reading program. This is especially true for timed-reading because emphasis tends to reside in the speed of reading and comprehension. The interaction with the text in timed reading forces the ESL learner to move beyond the word level of reading (bottom-up), that most tend to be in, to a level that requires cognitive negotiations of meaning (top-down).

Automaticity

One of the reasons proposed by many theorists for readers being able to read faster is through the reflex of automatic responses to vocabulary and text comprehension across the written work. This "unconscious" response is termed *Automaticity* and refers to the internal understanding of what is being read and the complete comprehension of appropriate vocabulary. By appropriate, I'm referring to reading materials that apply to a specific task in relation to the students abilities. A reading task that is cognitively undemanding and content embedded (Cummins and Swain 1986) will produce a more automatic process. Materials that are more demanding, like academic work for example, will demand less automatic movement because the reading is denser and the vocabulary is more reserved for a specific context.

Automaticity is a nice residual skill that is brought about by combining many learning elements, but I question its idealized effect. Anderson's exemplary analogy of himself driving home emphasizes the automatic nature of getting home without thought, but he also mentions that he didn't remember the details of the trip (Anderson 1999). This makes me question Automaticity's function on comprehension. I feel the automatic motion is established from a habitual action in conjunction with tangent thinking. The tangent thinking produces a loss of thought. Am I making this sound ineffective? Actually, I feel that there are two kinds of Automaticity, (a.) *Unconscious Automaticity* and (b.) *Conscious Automaticity*.

Unconscious Automaticity

This occurs as in the above examples where the individual undergoes actions through an automatic function, which was caused by the mind going off course. Like the

times when I took a shower and couldn't remember if I washed my hair. I ended up double washing because of a tangency in thought. This doesn't help the student, but instead causes them to backtrack and read the material again (time loss).

Conscious Automaticity

This is established when the habitual motion is consciously acknowledged and the process is unconsciously executed. An example of this is when I was on the wrestling team in high school. During a match, I remember executing a wrestling technique to counter my opponent's assault. I remember going through some motions, which were triggered by my opponent's hand positioning on my body. The series of moves took only about a second and resulted in a win for me. I was aware of what I was to do (split second) and I automatically executed it. This is what the ESL reader needs to do. Carver's description of Automaticity coincides with this explanation and timed reading as follows:

"Automaticity theory has forced a focus upon the role of repetition as a primary factor that causes improvement in reading rate. Practice in decoding known words supposedly should result in there being read more rapidly and with little attention because they will be perceived more rapidly while attention is being directed toward understanding the complete thought represented by all the words in the sentence" (Carver 1990).

As the student practices timed reading and is exposed to various language learning elements, as mentioned above, they become more automatic in their response due to the holistic experience. Timed reading forces the re-occurrence of certain, frequent vocabulary to be internalized, which ultimately aids in the speed and comprehension of reading materials.

Conclusion

Timed reading is more than just reading as fast as you can and hoping your speed will increase with practice. It's a process of implementing various elements from reading theory to make it work more efficiently and effectively. Taking into consideration the students needs, background, and affective domains help shape the content of timed reading. Promoting the use of strategies adds to the ease of reading rate increase in the long term as well as an increase in reading for pleasure. ESL students will benefit from the use of these timed reading components, but only as long as they have realistic goals, patience and practice in timed reading skills. The practice will create an automatic response towards the text reading, which will prepare the student for the task of greater reading demands that society has placed on them.

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Practical Aspects of Using Video in the Foreign Language Classroom

Christine Canning-Wilson
Higher Colleges of Technology, Abu Dhabi, UAE

Current Theory on the Use of Video as an Educational Medium of Instruction

Video is at best defined as the selection and sequence of messages in an audio-visual context. Considerable confidence is placed in the value of audio-visual aids to enhance the learning of foreign languages, yet there is little empirical data and research to support the proposition that video facilitates in the learning of foreign languages. However, with the amount of time devoted to using video in the Foreign or Second Language (F/SL) classroom, research is warranted to show how audio-visual aids enhance the language learning process. Currently, research over the past two decades, shows that there are several limitations to be recognized when examining results. First, many studies have been done with visual aids and not with actual foreign and second language videos. Secondly, many video studies use intact groups instead of random groups who were studying only one foreign language. Thus, studies using different groups and languages may yield different results than those found in the literature. As Omaggio (1979) points out, to find varied results, researchers would need to ask whether or not the same findings would hold true in different languages.

Another limitation on video studies deals with the long-term effects of using video in the classroom. It can be argued that video instruction should be discouraged because there is scant empirical proof to verify comprehension. For example, how can long-run effects of video be measured and how much exposure to video would make a significant difference in the language learning process? In addition to these queries, researchers would need to ask if the visual significantly affects listening comprehension (Mueller, 1980). Research would also need to address how video manifests itself differently than prolonged exposure to a visual aid that does not have an audio component? With such unanswered questions yet to be proven with quantitative measures practitioners must ask themselves if there is sufficient evidence to support continued use of audio-visual aids in the learning of foreign languages to justify the allocation of resources for them in the foreign or second language classroom.

However, in recent years, some of these questions have begun to be addressed, but in limited contexts. For example, Balatova (1994) suggests that unlike a student, who listened in sound only conditions, the use of video and sound conditions were more consistent in their perception of the story, in the sense that difficult and easy passages formed a pattern. The study notes that scenes where utterances were backed up by an action and/or body language and that were relatively shorter, were considered easier to understand by students. Less lively scenes, which involved relatively long stretches of conversation, were labeled as more difficult. These comments illustrate that visual cues are important, since they either facilitated or distracted from understanding. In addition, her research also notes that "It is also interesting to point out that students in the sound-only conditions in the two experiments were less successful in maintaining the interest and concentration in listening".

Research by Herron, Hanley and Cole (1995) indicates that the visual support in the form of descriptive pictures significantly improved comprehension scores with language videos for English speaking students learning French. The results of the study indicate that extensive listening is facilitated by the richness of the context that visual

organizers, such as educational videos, provide. Heron (1994) finds that advanced organizers based on videos helped learners improve comprehension and aid in the retention of information.

A recent large-scale survey by Canning-Wilson (2000) suggests that the students like learning language through the use of videos. One of the results of her survey shows that learners prefer action/entertainment films to language films or documentaries in the classroom. She states although these films may seem to hold student interest, she believes that it could be inferred that student comprehension of the video may be due to the visual clues instead of the auditory components.

Heron, Hanley and Cole also hypothesize that the more meaningful an advanced organizer is the more impact it can have on comprehension and retention. Their results of using twelve different videos with foreign language learners indicates that scores improved when advanced organizers, such as a pictures and/or visual stimuli, are used with the video. Perhaps the findings from these studies can be attributed to the fact that video offers contextual support and/or helps learners to visualize words as well as meanings.

Individuals process information in different ways. The strategies used by one learner are likely to differ from those used by a different learner. It has been proven that what benefits one group of learners may actually hinder the performance of a different group of learners (Bovy, 1981). Issues of the value of video as a teaching tool are often questioned. Omaggio (1979) suggests that "the profession has virtually no empirical basis for promoting the use of visuals as aids to comprehension in the second language; we know practically nothing about how students benefit from visuals" (1979, p.107). Recently, in a lecture on the use of visuals in research, Canning-Wilson (2000) claims that the use of illustrations, visuals, pictures, perceptions, mental images, figures, impressions, likenesses, cartoons, charts, graphs, colors, replicas, reproductions, or anything else used to help one see an immediate meaning in the language may benefit the learner by helping to clarify the message, provided the visual works in a positive way to enhance or supplement the language point. She reports that images contextualized in video or on its own can help to reinforce the language, provided the learner can see immediate meaning in terms of vocabulary recognition in the first language. Furthermore, her research suggests that visuals can be used to help enhance the meaning of the message trying to be conveyed by the speakers through the use of paralinguistic cues.

Additional factors must be considered when looking at video as an instructional medium to teach a foreign or second language. In 1999, Coombe and Kinney stated that "Learners learn primarily because of what they bring to their classroom experience in terms of their perceived needs, motivations, past experiences, background knowledge, interests and creative skills" (1999, p.21). Furthermore, experts suggest that instructional design and cognitive processing considerations are more salient than media used to deliver the instruction (Clark, 1983). Hannafin (1986) suggests that the incorporation of criterion-based questions in video instruction is likely to improve intended learning, but scant empirical data has unequivocally proven this hypothesis. It is important to note that in the late 1980s, Hannafin admitted, "there was no research to support one side over the other, so we are left with logic and common sense to form an initial hypothesis" (Hannafin 1986). In 1994, Balatova's studies indicated that visual cues found in videos were informative and enhanced comprehension in general, but did not necessarily stimulate the understanding of a text. It was also found that teaching with video had some affective advantages. If the results of their findings are true and the same results can be replicated, perhaps practitioners will no longer have to rely solely on anecdotal evidence.

Using Video in the F/SL Classroom

What are the practical implications of using video in the classroom? At the most basic level of instruction, video is a form of communication and it can be achieved without the help of language, since we often interact by gesture, eye contact and facial expression to convey a message. Video provides visual stimuli such as the environment and this can lead to and generate prediction, speculation and a chance to activate background schemata when viewing a visual scene reenacted. It can be argued that language found in videos could help nonnative speakers understand stress patterns. Videos allow the learner to see body rhythm and speech rhythm in second language discourse through the use of authentic language and speed of speech in various situations. Videos allow contextual clues to be offered. In addition, video can stimulate and motivate student interest. The use of visuals overall can help learners to predict information, infer ideas and analyze the world that is brought into the classroom via the use of video instruction. In a teaching or testing situation video can help enhance clarity and give meaning to an auditory text; it can create a solid link between the materials being learned and the practical application of it in a testing situation; the video can act as a stimulus or catalyst to help integrate materials or aspects of the language; videos can help manipulate language and at the same time be open to a variety of interpretations.

Arthur (1999) claims that:

"Video can give students realistic models to imitate for role-play; can increase awareness of other cultures by teaching appropriateness and suitability; can strengthen audio/visual linguistic perceptions simultaneously; can widen the classroom repertoire and range of activities; can help utilize the latest technology to facilitate language learning; can teach direct observation of the paralinguistic features found in association with the target language; can be used to help when training students in ESP related scenarios and language; can offer a visual reinforcement of the target language and can lower anxiety when practicing the skill of listening."

Video used in a classroom should be interpretive and to the point. The visual should show reasonable judgement and enhance comprehension, heighten sensory acuteness, and illustrate the target language being used. Practitioners should avoid the use of distracters, over-crowded or violent stimuli. Visuals are ineffective in the learning process when the visual is too small; when the visual or video uses stereotypes; when the visual or video is a poor reproduction; when the picture is too far away from the text illustration; when the video has irrelevant captioning; when the video or visual offers too much information related or unrelated to the picture; when the video or visual is poorly scaled; and when the picture is not esthetically meaningful. A visual cue may be accompanied by a written cue to focus on a lexical item being furnished. Videos can make the task, situation or language more authentic. More importantly, video can be used to help distinguish items on a listening comprehension test, aid in the role of recall, help to sequence events, as well as be adapted, edited or changed in order to meet the needs of the language learner (Canning, 1998).

Suggestions to the Classroom Practitioner

If video is to be used in the classroom to improve listening comprehension, it should be shown in segments and not as a whole. These segments should be broken down to exploit the macro-listening skills and the micro-listening skills from the audio-component of the video. There is scant, if any, empirical evidence to indicate that videos shown in their entirety improve listening comprehension scores of nonnative speakers of English. For as much as the visual may aid in understanding the scenario or general gist of the film's plot, it may detract from the individual messages produced by the speakers. In fact the constant visual stimuli may detract from the auditory component. Empirical evidence has shown that attention spans are lowered when watching videos used to teach foreign languages (Balatova, 1994). As Balatova (1994) states: "The first signs of distraction

in those groups appeared after the first minute, and by the end of four minutes, distraction spread all over the groups, while in the video conditions several more students became distracted after six minutes, more students lost concentration after ten minutes and around one third of them kept watching until the end."

Key Considerations for Using Video in the Classroom with Nonnative Speakers

Although video may be a popular tool to use with students, as F/SL educators we must not lose sight of the educational purpose it has in the language classroom. It is suggested that language teachers should ask themselves the following questions before implementing a video lesson with F/SL learners:

- How will the language learner benefit from the use of video in the classroom?
- How will the visual component enhance the auditory component?
- Who will select the video? Is it the class, the teacher or the curriculum developers?
- Who decides which language should be exploited from the video? Is it the class, teacher or curriculum developers?
- How do you plan to exploit the 1-10 minute segment of the video? What are the alternative methods of exploiting the clip for further reinforcement in the classroom?
- Whose responsibility is it to select key vocabulary and structures from the video?
- Who decides how many times the video is played?
- How can students and teachers develop academic listening and conversational listening activities based on the video?
- How is the video used in a classroom context?
- How does video support the curriculum?
- Can the comprehension of the video be measured without visual support?
- Can the comprehension of the video be measured without auditory support?
- How will you assess the comprehension of the video by the language learners?
- How practical is the video to improve a learner's academic listening and/or conversational listening skills?
- What is the educational purpose for showing the video? How will you later assess its effectiveness with the learners ability to comprehend information?

Conclusion

Because academic listening tasks are often tested rather than taught, video offers foreign and second language learners a chance to improve their ability to understand comprehensible input. Videos allow teachers to ask both display and referential questions. Video tasks used in the F/SL classroom, can include but are not limited to creating advanced organizers, other visual representations and descriptors.

Video tasks should be multi-layered in order to exploit all information and elements contained in the aural and visual texts. Additionally, it is essential that video tasks and lessons be perceived by the language learner as a challenging and requiring effort. Be sure that students are able to answer questions based solely upon what they see instead of what they hear. Otherwise it is possible to imply that practitioners are measuring their visual literacy and not their ability to comprehend aural input.

With the increase in educational technology, video is no longer imprisoned in the traditional classroom; it can easily be expanded into the computer aided learning lab (Canning 1998). Interactive language learning using video, CD ROM, and computers allow learners the ability to view and actively participate in lessons at their desired pace. It is recommended that institutions and practitioners encourage the use of instructional video in the F.SOL classroom as it enables them to monitor and alternate instruction by fostering greater mental effort for active learning instead of passive retrieval of visual and auditory information.

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Using Films to Develop Learner Motivation

Stephen Ryan
Athenee Francais, Tokyo, Japan

This article is based on observations and experiments conducted within the Japanese tertiary sector. It takes a very broad look at some of the theory relating to language learning and motivation. It identifies a problem relating to motivation in the Japanese education system and goes on to present possible solutions to the problem. The article then illustrates the possible solutions with a practical example of how movies may be employed in the classroom in a manner which both facilitates language learning and further encourages motivation

Introduction

As a teacher operating within the 'motivational wasteland' (Berwick and Ross 1989:206) of the Japanese tertiary education system I have often felt a kinship with marathon runners hitting 'the wall'.

In my case 'the wall' being a sea of drooping eyelids drifting towards the displays of none too carefully concealed mobile telephones. For anyone involved with language teaching there can be few more professionally demoralizing experiences than a class totally lacking in motivation; so much valuable time and energy spent on an, often fruitless, search for stimulating teaching materials. This article is a product of years of such time and energy; as such it aims to share with other teachers a possible avenue which may encourage learner motivation.

The Problem

Much has been written about motivation and language learning, and a lot of what has been written focuses on the distinction between instrumental and integrative motivation. Motivational factors in Japan are confused by the country's position on the periphery of the English speaking world and the high, some might say unrealistic, educational demands of a developed economy at the core of the international business system.

It is this contradictory position which leads to conflicting aims at the macro level of curriculum planning. As interesting as this may be, it is not our concern here; we are interested in how this contradiction leads to a motivation problem at the classroom level, and how we might tackle this problem. We are interested in the kind of bizarre, yet I suspect far from infrequent, situation which leads to students barely able to articulate their home telephone number grappling with complex texts concerning the morality of genetic engineering. Our interest is curriculum demands which fail to recognize the reality of communicative competence leading to, at best, frustration and, more often than not, antipathy.

What Is the Teacher to Do?

Faced with this situation, what is a teacher to do? I would suggest that a teacher has three options.

- One option is what we might term total surrender; this entails acknowledging that better people than yourself have been there and failed, conceding that the level at which change needs to be made is beyond your reach, and putting your own physical and mental well-being first concluding that the fight just is not worth it.
- The second option could be termed an honorable retreat; this would involve a thorough resetting of the teacher's goals, with the aim of the class shifting from language learning to a kind of mental aerobics session whereby all

parties aim to keep themselves busy and pass the allotted time as painlessly as possible.

- The third option, and this is the one which we shall pursue in greater detail, is the Peace Treaty. This 'peace' involves negotiations between teachers and learners which aim to re-focus the scope of the class, which attempt to align tasks compatible with the level of the group and the needs of the curriculum.

A good illustration of our problem can be found in the use of film in the classroom. Students will often express an interest in using movies as a medium for language learning, then proceed to sleep through any movie shown. Such a case presents a nice little cameo of our wider problem; the original intent is both worthy and genuine, but when limited linguistic competence is faced with a dense input of L2 material, boredom is often the result. The challenge for the teacher becomes; how to harness the original good intentions with tasks that are possible, tasks that set a clear goal and leave learners with a sense of achievement upon their completion.

Classroom Applications

To illustrate possible classroom applications of our approach it might be appropriate to present a typical example.

Group Profile

- Learners: College Students (ages 19/20)
- Number: 30
- Motivation: Varied but generally low
- L2 Competence: Beginner/Elementary
- Background Information: Learners reluctant to volunteer opinions or interrupt, adhering to strict patterns of turn-taking tend to focus on form rather than meaning; aim for accuracy above communication
- Raw Materials: Movie

In this case the group has expressed an interest in watching movies in English. The teacher's task is to manipulate this enthusiasm in a way that develops a positive attitude towards language learning. The challenge is obvious; if learners can tackle tasks related to a full-length movie then their confidence and self-esteem will be boosted, on the other hand the teacher is aware that a full-length movie is way beyond this group of learners, and there is a danger that showing it may prove counter-productive. In such a case the key lies in the successful exploitation of raw materials, in the construction of challenging yet achievable learning tasks.

- **Step 1**

A movie is chosen which both represents the wishes of the learners and conforms to institutional constraints such as content, timing and availability.

- **Step 2**

The whole movie is shown in its subtitled version. The reasoning behind this is that to show the whole movie without subtitles is likely to prove de-motivating; the language content being far too difficult for the group. Such a showing should also create the welcome by-product of a pleasant environment conducive to learning. The teacher is also storing 'good will' credit with the group. Such a showing obviously has few direct pedagogical merits, but it is hoped that the short term sacrifice will be amply rewarded in the long run.

- **Step 3**

The movie is shown without subtitles. Before this viewing the students are divided into small groups of three and given the task of noting any short scenes involving three protagonists.

- Step 4

The students then choose one of their noted scenes as the basis for a role play/ listening activity. The students are given the task of finding their scene and the opportunity to view the scene as many times as they wish. The aim of this repeated viewing is for them to script a version of the scene. At this point it needs to be made clear to students that the aim is not to produce a verbatim transcript of the scene but something which approximates to the context and the action on the screen.

- Step 5

Students then make an audio recording of their version of the scene, each taking the role of one of the protagonists.

- Step 6

The students' version of the scene is then played back with the video accompaniment minus sound. (If technically possible, the students' version can be directly dubbed on to the video tape.) By doing this students will hear their own voices 'in synch' with a movie they have enjoyed.

Obviously such a project requires a massive investment of time. Does the return merit such an investment? At a basic level the students should enjoy such an activity making them more positively disposed towards language learning, if not immediately then perhaps at some time in the future. Anything which helps to remove negative attitudes to language learning should not be undervalued.

The activity gives learners a clear goal, and a goal that is achievable; there are no right or wrong answers, as long as the script fits the scene. Learners are encouraged to use the linguistic tools they have available to solve an immediate problem. The activity also practices both extensive and intensive listening skills, in addition it allows student to use the non-verbal clues which make video such a rich medium for language learning.

Summary

We started by painting a very bleak picture of the monolingual teaching environment, perhaps the case was overstated a little. Nevertheless there can exist a clear motivation problem. The signals can be confusing for learners; constant news of internationalization and the global economy point to English language skills being essential, yet daily social interaction, often backed by strong historical and cultural factors indicate otherwise. This is a contradiction which can run throughout the system, from the highest planning levels through to the classroom .

Our challenge as teachers is to somehow bridge that contradiction by developing materials and tasks which take into account both the high expectations and the low motivation. Our challenge is to foster and develop motivation by providing clear goals and achievable tasks using raw materials which might otherwise be beyond the linguistic capacity of our learners.

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Advertising and Language

Joseph W. Sheperd

Aichi Gakuin Junior College, Nagoya, Japan

In the most widely accepted use of the word, evolution is usually associated with biology. A lower species evolves into a higher one—a single substance or group divides into several distinct and some-times more sophisticated patterns. Evolution is concerned with living things.

Language, too, may be considered a product of evolution. It is constantly changing, constantly developing. And although some of the changes might not necessarily be for the better, the pattern of change is clear. For one group or another, the changes mean improved understanding and communication. Certainly it can be said that languages - all languages- are living entities. As Harrison Salisbury states so very clearly, "The wonderful thing about language is that it is always changing and always growing."¹

In this paper, I would like to explain why and how some of these changes have taken place. And I would like to show that in today's society, there is no way to stop the changes. Taking a cue from Jack Rosenthal, editor of *The York Times Magazine*, I hope to demonstrate that formal written language as we knew it twenty or thirty years ago has given way to various forms of spoken English in all but academic and technical writing.² And the mass media, particularly advertising and TV, continue to stress colloquial speech as the base for the written word. Language, whether it is written or spoken should "sound" right.

My main concern in this paper is "changing English." However, the principal ideas could be applied to Japanese or almost any other language. The central theme of the whole paper is that language can never be static. No one can possibly predict what the state of language will be in the early decades of the next century.³

As I mentioned earlier, the influence of the mass media cannot be stated too strongly. In this age of communication, we hear and read every kind of language from the Queen's English to the slang and even worse of the streets. But all language is a form of communication, and who is to decide what is right and what is wrong? However, it does seem that there should be some fundamental standards.

Standard English

"Respectable English...means the kind of English that is used by the most respected people, the sort of English that will make readers or listeners regard the speaker or writer as an educated person."

"(Grammarians) show us that standard English allows a certain amount of variation. That is, there is often more than one acceptable way of using the same word."⁴

It is impossible to give a clear definition of standard, or in some cases, even correct English. There are too many variables, Formal-informal, spoken-written, language of the highly educated-language of the streets. Language as it is used by any group can be said to be standard language for that group.

Overall, however, it is generally accepted that the standards for written language are much more demanding and rigid than the standards for the spoken word. The norms for written English evolve much more slowly than the standards for the more dynamic language used for conversation.

It is sometimes said that standard English is that used by contemporary writers. But in point of fact, some of the most talented and most beloved writers of the last three or four decades, Ring Lardner, Ernest Hemingway, Heywood Brown and a host of other

excellent writers brought an "earthiness and directness to the prose" that soon was accepted as suitable for all.⁵

In their well-researched and entertaining work, "Harper Dictionary of Contemporary English,"⁶ William and Mary Morris solicited the opinions of more than 165 renowned writers and scholars concerning the use of various words and phrases in contemporary written English. Although the consensus of the opinions tended to support the more conservative and traditional usages, opposite opinions were numerous and logical. If eminent writers cannot agree on what is, or what is not acceptable English, I think we can safely say that standard English is indefinable, to say the very least.

Changing English

It is not my intention to make a detailed study of the many factors that lead to or have led to the changing of language usage. That would be a subject for another paper. But a short outline of some of the more important reasons might make it easier to appreciate the influence of the mass media, including advertising, on the use of English which we see and hear today.

Without a doubt, the mass media has played the most important role in the changing of the usage and forms of English in America. Until the end of World War I, written, and to a certain extent spoken English, were based on the formal and grammatically accepted rules of Victorian English.⁷ After the war, however, a sense of freedom and exuberance prevailed, The public began to reject many of the old restrictions and taboos. Individualism became the watchword of the academics and the people of the streets.

Writers began to explore new grounds, and then, suddenly, there was the advent of radio. The comfortable world of the language of the purists was shattered-it was never to be the same again.

By the 1930's, practically every home in America had at least one radio, and the influence of this medium of popular culture was immeasurable. In the beginning, the format and language of the programs were somewhat formal and stilted, but as the years went by, formality was replaced by friendliness, and the announcers and performers adopted different and less formal styles. And the public immediately followed the trend.

In addition to the influence of the mass media, geographical differences contributed greatly to changing language usage. People from almost every state in the Union began to move westward. New Englanders mingled with New Mexicans, People from the East began to live with citizens from the South and West. All these migrants from different cultural backgrounds brought their language patterns with them, and, as they met others from different backgrounds, their words and expressions were inevitably mixed. New language patterns developed rapidly.

Other factors, too, can be considered. Advances in education and technological terminology-increased immigration from Asia and other areas-the beginnings of "Black English"-all of these factors played a part.

One often overlooked source of change in English is "teenage language." In every generation, teenagers invent their own somewhat esoteric "lingo." Generally, their words are more a fad than an existing reality, but occasionally, some words and phrases carry on into the next generation. And eventually they end up in dictionaries. In this rather indirect way, teenage English becomes a part of acceptable English.

Many other sources of change could be noted. But now I would like to narrow the scope of this paper and concentrate on the influence advertising has had on language usage in all countries where English is a first or second language.

War of Words

Among the various professional groups, the "war between language purists and advertising writers seems of words" special intensity. Purists are making every effort to "preserve" the language-to set a kind of standard as to what is right and what is wrong .8

Copywriters, on the other hand, say that today's writers "dare to be different".9 They must find new ideas and fresh ways to say writers must express them. "Never hesitate to inject colorful thoughts and expressions into your copy. The different-and better way of saying something is usually interesting. This is what distinguishes Shakespeare from Spillane, what transforms a prosaic monolog into copy that is light and lively.10

Of course, in some areas, both sides are right. And in others, both sides may be wrong. At any rate, in the next I will try to explain the reasoning of the copywriters. And later I'll make an attempt to justify the stand of the purists.

Copywriters

Copywriters consider themselves as word mechanics-skilled professionals with a fondness for words.11 They must be imaginative, and still, their writing must be succinct and eye-catching. They are good writers, even though some of their vocabulary and structures may be somewhat unconventional. After all, their job is to attract the reader. If their copy is grammatically perfect but lacks fire and vitality, readers will not be interested. And the product will not sell.

One legend in the advertising world, Claude Hopkins, summed it up this way. "Copy writing is salesmanship in print. 12 The consumer must find something attractive in the ad.

Another way of saying the same thing is that copy is communication. It should attract the reader, inform the reader, interest the reader and persuade the reader to think about the product. Advertising copy is not intended to educate the reader in the general sense of the term. It is not intended for language purists.

Purists

To the horror of the purists, some copywriters say that it is permissible to forget about some of the generally accepted rules of writing, if the copy attracts the attention of the reader. Readership-not grammar-is the heart of the situation.

Another problem for the purists is that copywriters must use the vernacular of the day. "Use of stilted style, literary illusions, or pretentious phrases assures next to no readership.13 If an ad seems to lecture the reader or to show a sense of superiority over the reader, it will do more harm than good. Simple words, short sentences, catchy phrases, apt comparisons-these are the tools of the copywriter.

But the purists consider this kind of language as an abomination. They believe that they must be guardians of correct English. Even though they understand that change is inevitable, they hope to limit the changes as far as possible. Particularly, they want to guard against what they consider to be mistakes. Their objective is grammatically correct writing, using words and phrases generally accepted as standards by the so-called educated elite. One panelist writing for "Harper Dictionary of Contemporary Usage" expressed his opinion as follows. "The spoken language is supposed to be a testing ground for new words to enrich the language. But I find that Madison Avenue (the Advertising World), TV, and too many of the high school crowd don't even know the old words. How can they give us new and better ones?"14

Another panelist remarked that commercial, bureaucratic and technological writers are making a mess of our language. But what right do these purists have to judge what is accepted and generally appreciated language as it is used today?

Paul Horgan, also responding as a panelist, suggests that "advertising and its most powerful arm, TV, have made language the servant of commercial interests,"15

Columnist Rex Stout made one of the strongest comments. "Changes made by the genius and wit of the people are often desirable and useful. Those imposed by ignorant

clowns such as advertising copywriters and broadcasters are abominable and should be condemned by all lovers of language."¹⁶

It would be possible to quote any number of conservative writers, but I think we have enough to make our point clear. Many distinguished writers and scholars are definitely concerned about the changes that are taking place in language.

And, on the other hand, many of the leading lights in advertising and other forms of the mass media believe that changes in the language breathe new life and freshness into language and communication.

What are we ordinary mortals supposed to think? Can we say which side is right and which side is wrong? I don't think so. For most of us, it is probably best not to take any stand. I believe we should be free to use the language we want to use, as long as it serves to communicate our thoughts clearly.

Of course, the language we speak or write must be within the bounds of respectable language. We should not stoop to vulgarity, profanity or other forms which might seriously offend ordinary people. (I am not including the obviously offensive and even obscene language found in so many novels and TV dramas. That is a different subject.)

Now, I'd like to note just a few concrete examples of the points of disagreement between the purists and the copywriters.

Problem Words and Phrases

Most of the difficulties could be listed under five general categories.

1. Grammar
2. Using nouns as verbs
3. Incorrect use of words
4. Adding the suffix...wise
5. Vogue words

It is impossible to give a detailed list of examples in all the categories. But a short explanation might be in order.

1. Grammar : "Winston Tastes Good Like a Cigarette Should." This catchphrase has been a thorn in the side of purists for years. In this phrase, "like" should be replaced by the conjunction "as." However, Jack Rosenthal, editor of The New York Times Magazine, quotes a friend in the advertising business. "No one cares about fussy things like "like" anymore."¹⁷ And some other authorities are quick to agree. This, of course, is just one example.

2. The use of nouns as verbs has been expanding rapidly. Verbs formed from nouns such as contact, impact, author, craft and gift now are commonplace. Some are acceptable and even useful, but others such as "He authored the book" seem somewhat forced. It seems to be a question of feeling and style.

3. Hopefully, thankfully, meaningful and other words are gradually gaining acceptance, other common words such as presently and momentarily are perfectly correct, but their usage is often incorrect. "Presently" means "soon," not "at present," and "momentarily" has the idea of "for a moment," or "briefly," not "in a moment." But I have a feeling that some of these secondary usages may be acceptable at some time.

"Wise" as a suffix has had a long history in English. Some words are considered legitimate by both conservatives and liberals. "Clockwise" is one word that comes to mind. But the more modern usage in the sense of "with reference to," or "concerning" is a bane to purists, especially when used in writing. It must be admitted, however, "... wise" is often more convenient than the more proper words such as "with reference to."

Finally, the so-called "vogue" words play a big part in contemporary English. They are words or expressions that suddenly become popular and are widely used in both spoken and written English. And then, just as suddenly, most of them just fade away.

"Charisma, thrust, credit crunch, zap and rap" all attained a certain popularity in recent years. But they have lost much of their glamour, and now "word polishers" have created a more recent set of terms such as "input, output, flap, camp and watershed," to note just a few.

The only sure thing that can be said about vogue words is that they come and go. Very few survive the test of time.

To sum up this section, I think that we could say that writers for the mass media are constantly creating new words and phrases to catch the eye and ear of the listeners. When something is new or different, it usually attracts the ordinary listeners and writers. And quite often, the newly created words express the idea more clearly and more succinctly than the traditional expressions.

Unfortunately, however, purists, for the most part, reject change. They believe it is their sacred duty to preserve the language. They spare no effort to rid the language of what they consider to be unacceptable.

Conclusion

So where does that leave us who profess to be trained English teachers? Where should we stand?

I think three points can be made.

First, we must be careful about saying that this or that word or phrase should not be used. When I have doubts, I usually tell the students that I would not say it that way, but I will not say it is wrong.

Next, we should not insist on one correct pronunciation. There are too many variables today. If a pronunciation is accepted anywhere, we cannot reject it.

And finally, we should use extra care in correcting articles, prepositions and even verb tenses in some situations. Occasionally, what is grammatically suspect might express the speaker's real meaning more clearly.

I realize, of course, we need some standards. And we should encourage our students to write and speak English that is clear, correct according to accepted standards, and "meaningful." But we should not stifle communication and creativity by overburdening our students with too many "do's" and "don'ts."

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Loanwords: A Pitfall for All Students

Joseph W. Sheperd
Aichi Gakuin Junior College, Nagoya, Japan

Few government decrees in recent years have been more controversial and even mirth-provoking than the decision of the French Culture Minister to ban the use of "borrowed foreign words" in the French language. Anglicized and other words of foreign origin will have to be replaced by French newspapers, broad-casting, advertising, video games, commercial ventures and public notices. French will be the main language in any international conferences held in France.(1)

To enforce the ban, government-appointed language observers will be empowered to take steps to correct what they consider to be violations of the law, and yet-to-be-announced penalties will be posed. It remains to be seen what effects the campaign will have in France, but there is no doubt that "loanwords" have become an integral part of almost every language and they have contributed greatly to the clarification and richness of native languages. But it can also be said that overemphasis on and improper use of foreign words can lead to misunderstanding and confusion, particularly for non-native speakers trying to learn a language.(2)

The purpose of this paper will be to outline briefly the history and development of "loanwords" in Japanese, and then discuss how these words can be of trouble for foreigners studying Japanese, and for Japanese studying English or other foreign languages. Finally, I would like to attempt to assess the cultural impact.

Origins of Loanwords

It would be next to impossible to calculate the number and catalog the origin of all loanwords used in Japan. Some words have been part of the Japanese vocabulary for so long that they are now considered as Japanese words. Others, which may be in vogue now, will soon disappear and be replaced by still other short-lived expressions. At any rate, a decade or so ago, researchers decided that more than ten-percent of currently popular Japanese vocabulary consisted of loanwords. And the percentage is still growing.(3) No one would dare to predict what colloquial Japanese will sound like in ten or twenty years.

In tracing the origins of loanwords, it can be said with certainty that English is the primary source today. But that was not always the case. In addition to words taken from Chinese, Korean, Ainu and Sanskrit, Portuguese, Spanish and Dutch were the earliest words adopted by the Japanese.

Interestingly enough, many of the loanwords were related to particular characteristics or qualities of the country from which they were taken. Thus, from Italian came words linked to music and food. French words reflected art and fashion; German contributed expressions associated with science, medicine and mountain sports. Words from English cover the whole spectrum of language.(4) Originally, most of these words conveyed ideas which could not be, or were not, expressed clearly by Kanji. But as the Japanese language developed, many loanwords were adopted for the sake of convenience or style.

Recent Sources of Loanwords

It is beyond dispute that the mass media is the leading source of new loanwords. News programs, documentaries, game and quiz shows, sports, even dramas add more and more foreign words and phrases to the Japanese language. But their contributions pale beside the additions stemming from the eye-catching slogans in advertising and TV commercials.

For some reason, copywriters believe that foreign words add class or mystique to their copy. It makes no difference that the average reader doesn't understand the message. They aren't supposed to. What does matter is that the text "evokes an image and attaches prestige value to the products being advertised." (5) Unfortunately, some of these strange usages make their way into dictionaries, and then students of both English and Japanese are confronted with ideas that can neither be understood nor translated.

Names or titles, too, reflect an unwarranted admiration for non-Japanese words. A quick scan of popular brand names, or titles of magazines and other publications, can mystify all readers, no matter what their linguistic background might be. And too often, the choice of titles is a source of merriment for those who understand the real meaning of the words. To confirm the above statement, readers might want to consult a recent paperback, *Japanese Jive*, by Caroline McKeldin. (6) The sub-title, "Wacky and Wonderful Products from Japan," says it all.

At any rate, even though the loanwords are spreading at an unprecedented rate. The problems for students are spreading with them.

Pronunciation of Loanwords

Although the pronunciation of loanwords usually resembles the pronunciation of the word in the original language, adjustments have to be made to conform to the Japanese phonetic system. (7) And when these words are written in Katakana, even the most skillful non-native speakers of Japanese are often hard-pressed to come up with the original spelling of the word.

Adding to the confusion, quite frequently loanwords are abbreviated or combined with Japanese words or other loanwords. They have no resemblance to the original source. One distinguished scholar has said that for foreign students, the study of loanwords is much more difficult than the study of Kanji or Japanese words in Hiragana. (8)

Finally, the rules of grammar of the original words are often disregarded when the words are used in Japanese. Prepositions become nouns, nouns become verbs, and conjunctions and suffixes just disappear. All in all, for the foreign student, confusion abounds. In the next few pages, I hope to point out some of the most obvious problems in the use of loanwords and try to find some ways to clear up at least a little of the confusion. At the same time, I would like to show that the misunderstanding of the proper use of Katakana English can cause no end of trouble for Japanese students struggling to master English.

Seven of the Most Difficult Challenges

Although a brief summary of special problems with loanwords has been given above, in this section, I will try to give a more detailed explanation. I am especially indebted to Professor Prem Motowani for the outline of this section. (9)

1. The vast majority of loanwords have been taken from English. However, in the Katakana words have only one meaning or usage. For example, 'akusesari' accessory - refers only to artificial or costume jewelry. Hats, ties, scarves or other such objects which are included in the English of the word have other terms in Japanese.
2. The "Japanization" of English words has in shortening, limiting, combining and extending English words to the extent that they are incomprehensible to native speakers. It would take a special imagination to link 'mai-kon' with the English micro-computer. 'Ame-futo' is a long way from American Football.
3. In many cases, loanwords are only used in combinations. Ice in English refers to a frozen substance. But in Japanese it is restricted to terms such as ice cream, iced tea, ice hockey and Ice box. 'On-za-rokku' fills in for Scotch on ice.

4. Distinguishing between loanwords used only colloquially and those used in written Japanese also demand study. 'Baransu' in one sense is used in written language, but in another it is colloquial.
5. Most loanwords are nouns in their original language. But in Japan they are often used as verbs by adding a Japanese verb ending or verb. Others merely add 'suru' to make a verb. 'Dabingu suru' for "dubbing" or "to dub" comes to mind.
6. Loanwords are frequently blended with Kanji or other loan-words to make a new word. "Denwa fakkusu" is a fax machine; "doa-tsu-doa" means from one place to another.
7. Finally, many former brand names now have taken on a general meaning. "Bando-eido" for Band-Aid, refers to a bandage or the verb to bandage. These specialized words require a knowledge of the original name in order to mean anything in Japanese. Certainly, many other categories could be added to this outline of special challenges. But I think we have enough now to realize that loanwords themselves call for extensive study on the part of any serious student of Japanese. A list of some of the more fashionable loanwords has been included at the end of this paper.

Some Possible Solution

As mentioned several times, loanwords defy logical explanations, and, therefore, there is no really logical way to study them. In preparing this paper, I spoke to several teachers of Japanese as a foreign language. They all stressed one point. Loanwords must be considered as Japanese words and studied in the same way. Their original meanings must not affect their or pronunciation in Japanese.

Secondly, and this sounds like I am avoiding the challenge, non-native speakers of Japanese should try not to use loanwords any more than is necessary. Even when clearly written in Katakana, they often don't sound right when used or read by non-Japanese. Foreign speakers tend to lean toward the original pronunciation and interpretation.

Next, students should not hesitate to ask what the loanword means, if the context of the sentence doesn't seem to make sense. In ordinary Japanese, the Kanji often clarifies the meaning. But Katakana offers no such assistance. Students can easily confuse the other speaker if they misinterpret or misuse words taken from other languages. And occasionally, the mistake might sound like an insult.

Finally, students should not rely too much on the interpretation of loanwords as given in standard dictionaries. Too often, editors seem to have relied on the assistance of native English speakers when defining loanwords. The idea, of course, is praiseworthy, but as I said earlier, loanwords must be considered as Japanese words. It takes a specialist to understand the basic meaning and nuances. I strongly recommend the use of dictionaries focusing on loanword usage. A few of the recognized works will be listed at the end of the paper.

Challenges for Students of English

Though the thrust of this paper has been toward helping students of Japanese understand loanwords, a few thoughts about the dangers loanwords present to students of English should also be given some consideration. It has been my experience that Katakana English is, without a doubt, one of the main sources of English pronunciation problems. Stressing every syllable and adding a vowel at the end of the word, English students often sound as if they are reading Katakana placed alongside of the words. It has often been pointed out that what students consider to be good English often is a confusing and meaningless Japanese-English or "Japlish." Add to that a wrong interpretation of the original loanword, and you can readily see why an interesting conversation a comedy of errors.

There is no simple solution for this problem. But for starters, Katakana should never be used as a guide for pronunciation in English textbooks. With so many useful tapes, videos and pronunciation manuals available, it is foolish for students to rely on Katakana as a sort of crutch.

Repeating the admonition given above to students for students of English, too, loanwords as used in Japan must be thought of as Japanese words - not as English, French, German or anything else. English students must learn the words in their own context, not as adaptations from the Japanese usage.

Particular attention must be given to grammar. Just because articles, prepositions, conjunctions and other such parts of speech are not needed in Japanese, it does not mean that English students can disregard them when using the loanwords in their original language.

Now, putting aside the problems of the correct usage of words, let's take a look at the influence of such words on the Japanese language itself.

Cultural Implications and Possible Effects on Japanese

Recently, The Japan Times had an interesting kind of hybrid dialect combining English and Spanish that is fast becoming a fad among the Spanish-speaking residents of parts of the United States. Sometimes called Spanglish - sometimes called Tejano - sometimes called Tex-Mex, it mixes the languages in ways that seem to make communication easier and faster.(10) Japan, too, is developing its own hybrid language. Popularly known as "Japlish" or "Janglish," it frequently makes no sense in either Japanese or English. Peter Milward in his Evening News gives what he calls a charming example of Janglish. "To English or not to English? It is so quaint ... and so ridiculous. ... (and) it is so wrong."(11)

Throughout his article, Professor Milward points out that the misuse of English, and by extension, loanwords, not only abuses the foreign language, but serves to "impoverish the Japanese language" as well.(12)

Several other language scholars have bemoaned the fact that Japanese speakers are too willing to accept loanwords, and are too careless in attempting to give them a Japanese meaning in an artificial context. In some ways it might be said that the prevailing mood in Japan today is to take the "easy" way. If a simple loan-word does the job as well as well as a more complicated Japanese meaning, younger speakers and the media usually prefer to use the loanword. That is not always bad, but it does not bode well for the future. Ordinary Japanese may lose their appreciation of the beauty and richness of their own language.

When Kenzaburo Oe was chosen as the recipient of the Nobel Prize in Literature, the award stirred a spirited debate about the intellectual level of reading and literature in Japan. A New York Times article quoted in the Asahi Evening News said that Mr. Oe was greeted with what amounted to a scolding for pushing people to think too much.(13)

Japan is a success story in many fields, but what of its intellectual life? Professor Donald Keene, a renowned Japanese literary expert, is quoted as saying, "... Authors today are writing for the passing tastes of a young audience. University students were the real market for serious books, but they don't read them anymore. It's a very depressing period."(14)

Of course, loanwords themselves cannot be blamed for this crease of intellectual interest. It may well be that the roles reversed. That is, a decrease of interest in literature and language in general has brought about the proliferation of "easier-to-use" words. But to my way of thinking, the overuse of loanwords has played a significant role in the weakening of the Japanese language.

Conclusion

It may seem that the scope of this article has gone beyond its original intent. But a summary of its main points may show that it may be necessary for writers and media personnel to take a second look at the overuse and abuse of GAIRAIGO.

1. The current emphasis on loanwords may be out of control. Often, the usage is meaningless, even foolish. Frequently, older, well-educated readers can't understand what the words mean.
2. Loanwords pose serious problems for foreign students of Japanese and for Japanese students attempting to learn other languages.
3. The over reliance on loanwords may tend to weaken and cheapen the Japanese language. And it may lead to a kind of intellectual and cultural malaise.

I don't pretend to have any solutions to this complicated dilemma. Properly used, loanwords add richness and flavor to a language; overly and mistakenly used, they sow the seeds of confusion and possibly contempt. Although the French would like to purge all foreign words from the French vocabulary, I certainly don't propose any such radical and even impossible solution in Japanese. But I would like to see loanwords used to convey the meaning as given in the original language - not some exotic and incomprehensible meaning as dreamt up by the mass media.

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Corpus Linguistics: What It Is and How It Can Be Applied to Teaching

Daniel Krieger
Siebold University of Nagasaki, Nagasaki, Japan

Introduction

In recent years a lot of investigation has been devoted to how computers can facilitate language learning. One specific area on the computer frontier which still remains quite open to exploration is corpus linguistics. Having heard a declaration that corpora will revolutionize language teaching, I became very curious to find out for myself what corpus studies have to offer the English language teacher and how feasible such an implementation would be.

This article will address those questions by examining what corpus linguistics is, how it can be applied to teaching English, and some of the issues involved. Resources are also included which will assist anyone who is interested in pursuing this line of study further.

What is Corpus Linguistics?

Corpora, Concordancing, and Usage

In order to conduct a study of language which is corpus-based, it is necessary to gain access to a corpus and a concordancing program. A corpus consists of a databank of natural texts, compiled from writing and/or a transcription of recorded speech. A concordancer is a software program which analyzes corpora and lists the results. The main focus of corpus linguistics is to discover patterns of authentic language use through analysis of actual usage. The aim of a corpus based analysis is not to generate theories of what is possible in the language, such as Chomsky's phrase structure grammar which can generate an infinite number of sentences but which does not account for the probable choices that speakers actually make. Corpus linguistics' only concern is the usage patterns of the empirical data and what that reveals to us about language behavior.

Register Variation

One frequently overlooked aspect of language use which is difficult to keep track of without corpus analysis is register. Register consists of varieties of language which are used for different situations.

Language can be divided into many registers, which range from the general to the highly specific, depending upon the degree of specificity that is sought. A general register could include fiction, academic prose, newspapers, or casual conversation, whereas a specific register would be sub-registers within academic prose, such as scientific texts, literary criticism, and linguistics studies, each with their own field specific characteristics. Corpus analysis reveals that language often behaves differently according to the register, each with some unique patterns and rules.

The Advantages of Doing Corpus-Based Analyses

Corpus linguistics provides a more objective view of language than that of introspection, intuition and anecdotes. John Sinclair (1998) pointed out that this is because speakers do not have access to the subliminal patterns which run through a language.

A corpus-based analysis can investigate almost any language patterns--lexical, structural, lexico-grammatical, discourse, phonological, morphological--often with very specific agendas such as discovering male versus female usage of tag questions, children's acquisition of irregular past participles, or counterfactual statement error patterns of

Japanese students. With the proper analytical tools, an investigator can discover not only the patterns of language use, but the extent to which they are used, and the contextual factors that influence variability. For example, one could examine the past perfect to see how often it is used in speaking versus writing or newspapers versus fiction. Or one might want to investigate the use of synonyms like begin and start or big/large/great to determine their contextual preferences and frequency distribution.

Applying Corpus Linguistics to Teaching

According to Barlow (2002), three realms in which corpus linguistics can be applied to teaching are syllabus design, materials development, and classroom activities.

Syllabus Design

The syllabus organizes the teacher's decisions regarding the focus of a class with respect to the students' needs. Frequency and register information could be quite helpful in course planning choices. By conducting an analysis of a corpus which is relevant to the purpose a particular class, the teacher can determine what language items are linked to the target register.

Materials Development

The development of materials often relies on a developer's intuitive sense of what students need to learn. With the help of a corpus, a materials developer could create exercises based on real examples which provide students with an opportunity to discover features of language use. In this scenario, the materials developer could conduct the analysis or simply use a published corpus study as a reference guide.

Classroom Activities

These can consist of hands on student-conducted language analyses in which the students use a concordancing program and a deliberately chosen corpus to make their own discoveries about language use. The teacher can guide a predetermined investigation which will lead to predictable results or can have the students do it on their own, leading to less predictable findings. This exemplifies data driven learning, which encourages learner autonomy by training students to draw their own conclusions about language use.

Teacher/Student Roles and Benefits

The teacher would act as a research facilitator rather than the more traditional impartor of knowledge. The benefit of such student-centered discovery learning is that the students are given access to the facts of authentic language use, which comes from real contexts rather than being constructed for pedagogical purposes, and are challenged to construct generalizations and note patterns of language behavior. Even if this kind of study does not have immediately quantifiable results, studying concordances can make students more aware of language use.

Richard Schmidt (1990), a proponent of consciousness-raising, argues that "what language learners become conscious of -- what they pay attention to, what they notice...influences and in some ways determines the outcome of learning." According to Willis (1998), students may be able to determine:

- the potential different meanings and uses of common words
- useful phrases and typical collocations they might use themselves
- the structure and nature of both written and spoken discourse
- that certain language features are more typical of some kinds of text than others

Barlow (1992) suggests that a corpus and concordancer can be used to:

- compare language use--student/native speaker, standard English/scientific English, written/spoken
- analyze the language in books, readers, and course books
- generate exercises and student activities
- analyze usage--when is it appropriate to use obtain rather than

get?

- examine word order
- compare similar words--ask vs. request

Problematic Issues Involved

Several challenges are involved in implementing the use of a corpus for the purpose of teaching. The first is that of corpus selection. For some teaching purposes, any large corpus will serve. Some corpora are available on-line for free (see appendix 2) or on disk. But the teacher needs to make sure that the corpus is useful for the particular teaching context and is representative of the target register. Another option is to construct a corpus, especially when the target register is highly specific. This can be done by using a textbook, course reader, or a bunch of articles which the students have to read or are representative of what they have to read. A corpus does not need to be large in order to be effective. The primary consideration is that of relevance to the students--it ought to be selected with the learning objectives of the class in mind, matching the purpose for learning with the corpus.

Related to the issue of corpus selection is that of corpus bias, which can cause frustration for the teacher and student. This is because the data can be misleading; if one uses a very large general corpus, it may obscure the register variation which reveals important contextual information about language use. The pitfall is that a corpus may tell us more about itself than about language use. Another obstacle to confront is the comprehensibility issue: if you use concordancing in a class, it can be quite difficult for the students (or even the teacher) to understand the data that it provides. Lastly, the issue of learning style differences--for some students, discovery learning is simply not the optimal approach. All of these points reinforce the caveat that careful consideration is required before a new technology is introduced in the classroom, especially one which has not been thoroughly explored and streamlined.

Exploiting a Corpus for a Classroom Activity

Although corpora may sound reasonable in theory, applying it to the classroom is challenging because the information it provides appears to be so chaotic. For this reason, it is the teacher's responsibility to harness a corpus by filtering the data for the students. Although I support having students conduct their own analyses, at present I see corpora's greatest potential as a source for materials development.

Susan Conrad (2000) suggests that materials writers take register specific corpus studies into account. Biber, Conrad and Reppen (1998) emphasize the need for materials writers to acknowledge the frequency which corpus studies reveal of words and structures in their materials design.

(See Appendix I for an example).

Taking a Closer Look at "Any"

As an English teacher, I have always taught "any" in the following way:

- Interrogatives: Are there any Turkish students in your class?
- Negatives: No, there aren't any Turkish students in my class.
- Affirmatives: *Yes, there are any Turkish students in my class.

A corpus study by Mindt (1998) concluded that 50% of any usage takes place in affirmative statements, 40% in negative statements, and only 10% in interrogatives. My own concordance analysis bore his claim out, so I constructed the following exercise to represent the percentage distribution of the three structural uses of any, using ten representative examples. The purpose of this exercise is to get the students to discover three usage patterns and their relative frequency. These concordance lines can also be exploited for other purposes such as defining functions and common language chunks of any. It is assumed that an exercise like this would be part of a lesson context in which the students were studying quantifiers or something related.

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Definition Plus Collocation in Vocabulary Teaching and Learning

Joseph G. Stockdale

The Eastern University of Technology and Education, Tokio, Japan

Introduction

Definition and collocation are both important in vocabulary learning and teaching. Definition is concerned with establishing a single word's meaning, whereas collocation takes definition for granted and is concerned with the words that typically appear with any particular word: the verbs that might occur with a noun, for example. Such collocational information often enables a word to be used.

In this paper, I examine definition and collocation as they relate to our presentations and dictionaries. It is my hope that, after reading this paper, teachers will be better able to assess the relative weight they pay to definition and collocation in their vocabulary presentations and explanations, and adjust their teaching accordingly, if necessary.

Presentations

When our focus is on definition, we might explain a verb like *dream* as follows:

"A dream is like a film in your head that you sometimes have when you are asleep."

When learners hear a presentation based on definition, their main purpose is to decode the stream of words with the goal of matching an L1 translation equivalent to the new word in their minds. They are less likely to notice and retain a collocating verb, and afterwards they are unlikely to come up with collocating adjectives like *bad* or *scary* on their own, much less an expression like, "Sweet dreams!"

When our focus is on collocation, we might say something like the following:

"An important verb for dream is have. Two frequently appearing modifiers for dream are bad and recurrent, and two prepositions that often occur with dream are about and in: 'I had a dream about..' and 'In my dream, I was ..' In addition, dream can be used as a modifier in words like dream catcher and dream diary. When we put a child to bed at night, we often say, 'Sweet dreams!'"

Both definition and collocation have their limitations. A presentation based only on collocation might enable a student to say, "I had a bad dream," but not know what they are saying. And a presentation based solely on definition would allow a student to match an L1 translation to *dream*, but perhaps not be able to use it. Definition plus collocation, on the other hand, makes for a complete presentation that allows for meaning and use.

Dictionaries

To find a word's definition, teachers and students can look in any number of definition-based dictionaries. In addition, there are bilingual dictionaries that provide translations, and picture dictionaries that supply pictures. Bilingual electronic dictionaries exist that will not only provide a translation, but pronounce the word and save it for download to a computer later. Using such resources, students can look a word up and find a definition, translation, or picture, and even hear the word pronounced.

To find a word's collocates, teachers can look in dictionaries of collocations such as the LTP Dictionary of Selected Collocations (Hill and Lewis), or the Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2002). And this is a very good thing, because we are simply not very good at coming up with a word's collocates off the top of our heads (Fox).

Explaining Words

When our focus is on definition of single words, we commonly do things like provide a picture of a word, or bring realia to class to show students the object itself, or mention a synonym, opposite, superordinate (Gairns and Redman). Or we might explain by saying, "Best is the superlative of good." We might ask students to learn "word families" like *grow, growth, grower* in the hope that this will spur rapid acquisition. (DeCarrico).

When emphasis is on collocation, we immediately encounter some problems with the above practices.

(1) **Opposites.** A word might have two opposites: the opposite of *short* might be *long* or *tall*, depending on if we are referring to a person's hair or a person's height. The opposite of a *bad* case of poison ivy is not a *good* one, but a *mild* one, and the opposite of *rock-hard* would not be *rock-soft*, but might be expressed as *baby-soft*.

Also, it is hard to say what an opposite is. Is *enemy* the opposite of *friend*? *Friend* might be contrasted with *enemy* in a proverb like, "A thousand friends are not enough, one enemy is too many." But in naturally occurring language *friend* is more often connected with words like the following: "family, friends and acquaintances," "friends, neighbors, co-workers," "friends and acquaintances," etc. Hopefully, the new dictionary of collocations will contain series like these.

(2) **Synonyms.** In certain contexts *earth* and *world* might be roughly synonymous, but when we use those words for expression we say, "the largest airport *in* the world," or "the largest airport *on* earth," not "the largest airport *on* world," or "the largest airport *in* the earth." Gairns and Redman (1986) point out that while *break out* may have the meaning of *start* in a sentence like, "A fire broke out," it would be quite wrong to say, "Class breaks out at 7:30 every morning," even if it seems like it.

(3) **Superordinates.** Boxing is often categorized as a sport, but it is a particular kind of sport, and might just as well be categorized as entertainment, business, a skill, art or a science.

Providing examples of words as they naturally occur in the frame, "X, Y and other / similar / related Zs" is a better way to provide hyponyms and superordinates for words. If we type "waterfalls and other" in a computer browser, we find things like, "beaches, lava flows, waterfalls, and other scenic attractions (Hawaii)" or "canyons, mountain ranges, waterfalls and other natural features," and "waterfalls and other obstacles (salmon)." Naturally occurring usages like these remind us that a waterfall can be many things, including a scenic attraction, a natural feature and an obstacle to fish. Hopefully, the dictionaries of collocations produced in the future will include examples of words being used in these frames.

(4) **Word families.** A word like *grower* is regularly derived from the verb, but is almost always premodified, and students need examples like "peach growers" and "sugar growers," and "chicken growers," if they are to actually use the word. The idea that you can "grow" chickens might surprise many students!

In general, the ways we mention opposites, synonyms, superordinates and word families are useful for grouping words, or establishing sense relations, but like all definition-based strategies don't really teach words for use. When our emphasis is on collocation, we might start out our explanation of *better* by saying, "Well, *better* is the comparative of *good*," or "*Better* is the opposite of *worse*," but we would go on to mention such exemplifications as "a better world / future / job" or expressions with verbs like "feel better" and "look better" and "get better" and "make something better," or modification with adverbs like, "a little / somewhat / quite / much / significantly better," etc.

Definition Versus Exemplification

When our focus is on definition, we commonly define a word by using it in the subject position (An X is...), often supply a superordinate, and supply a picture if possible. The following definition of *donkey* from the Collins Cobuild New Student's Dictionary contains all these features:

"A donkey is an animal like a small horse with long ears => see picture on page 815."

When we focus on collocation, we are more interested in exemplifications, both for analysis and production, as illustrated by the following sentence:

"My donkey helps me carry water four times a day."

Definitions are rather formal affairs. An exemplification, on the other hand, is an example of the word in use, may embody almost any thought, is conversational, and more revealing in terms of a word's collocates.

In the exemplification for *donkey*, the possessive adjective + noun collocation ("My donkey...") reminds us that someone usually owns a donkey, and the collocating verb ("My donkey helps me...") reminds us of the important role that donkeys play in many societies.

Exemplifications like these can be thought provoking (Fox), and affect the way we think about things. In many societies, for example, a woman without a donkey must be a donkey herself. Definition cannot provide such an insight, but exemplification can.

Comprehension Questions

When our focus is on identification or definition of single words, our comprehension questions mirror our focus. And so, after presenting a word like *friend*, we test comprehension with questions like, "What's a friend?" or "What's the opposite of *friend*?" or "What's *friend* in your language?"

When our focus is on collocation, our comprehension questions also mirror our focus, but we ask different kinds of questions. We might ask things like, "What are some verbs used with *friend* used as an object?" or "What kinds of friends are there?" or "What would I call I friend whom I met in the army or college?" or "Give me some modifiers for *friend* that relate to nationality," or "Give me some modifiers for friend that relate to the length of the relationship," or "what words often occur with *friend* in a series?" or "I'm a friend of Ali's ... now spell 'Ali's'."

Notes

In classrooms and courses that emphasize vocabulary as the definition of single words, students typically annotate the alphabetized list of new vocabulary that begin each unit with L1 translations, and do the same for the word in context. Students will often write down a long list of unrelated words with their L1 translation on a piece of paper, and study it before a test.

In classrooms and courses that emphasize collocation, students are far more likely to highlight a collocating verb, or circle a collocating preposition. And their notes will look quite different. They might write down a noun along with five or six verbs. Or an adjective and five or six things it can modify. Or a verb, followed by five or six collocating adverbs. Such notes generally include few or no L1 translations.

Recycling

In a curriculum that emphasizes collocation, no opportunity is missed to recycle a vocabulary item from the start of the course to the end. This level of recycling is quite different to what most of us are used to. For example, *heed* and *ignore* would not simply be mentioned in the context of *advice*, but recycled when we introduce *warning*, *order*, *recommendation*, *suggestion*, etc. Constant recycling is a hallmark of collocation, and an important reason why students end up using and learning words.

Teachers who teach the same curriculum over and over again, and stick to it, are most at risk for forgetting to recycle words, and I offer myself as an example. For years I taught "limb" in one unit, and "artificial" in another, without ever thinking to put them

together to create *artificial limb*. And that is in spite of the fact that I am an amputee, and wear one!

Conclusion

When we focus solely on definition, our students are less likely to be able to use vocabulary for expression, and they miss countless opportunities to recycle words they know. If we focus only on collocation, students may be able to use words but not know what they are saying. The solution to either approach's flaws is obvious. A teacher need only add definition to collocation, or collocation to definition, to compliment each other. To give definition its due, it must come first.

Collocation is of much higher importance, however, in terms of use, acquisition and ultimate success in language learning. In a vocabulary presentation, one-tenth of our time should be spent on establishing a definition, and the rest of the time should be spent on collocation and use.

Future dictionaries of collocations would be improved by inclusion of words in series connected by *and*, *or* and *versus*, and words as they appear in the frame "X, Y and other / similar / related Zs." They will also hopefully include possessive noun + noun collocations (city's neighborhoods / ins and outs / attractions, etc.) and collocations in the frame "X and it's / their Y" (data and their interpretation / storage / analysis / interpretation, etc.) as a way of further associating vocabulary.

Teachers are more accustomed to providing definition than collocation in their presentations. This will change, however, as dictionaries of collocations catch on and new and better dictionaries of collocations appear on the market. With a dictionary of collocations, a teacher can simply look up a word, view a word's collocates, and incorporate the information and examples in a presentation. In time, teachers will be as quick to think of a word's collocates as they are now to think of a definition.

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How Communicative Language Teaching Became Acceptable in Secondary Schools in China

Xiao Qing Liao
Beijin University of Linguistics

Communicative language teaching (CLT) is an innovation in English language teaching (ELT). CLT emerged as a new teaching approach in Britain in the 1970s. When it was introduced into China in the 1990s, it met with considerable resistance. After the efforts of the educational authorities, it was accepted by many teachers. This essay will briefly describe the measures taken to overcome the resistance and to ensure CLT was used effectively.

The Introduction of CLT in China

In the history of ELT, China saw its first movement towards CLT in the early 1990s. In 1992 the State Education Development Commission (SEDC) introduced a functional syllabus, in which the communicative teaching aim was set and the communicative functions to be taught were listed. In the same year, in cooperation with the British Longman, the SEDC published a new textbook series. The syllabus and the textbooks required teachers to teach communicatively in classrooms.

The call for adoption of CLT was not accidental. It came from the educational problem that needed to be solved. This problem was the existing unsatisfactory teaching results of the traditional grammar-oriented method. As Johnson and Morrow (1981, p. 1) state, "new movements often begin as reactions to old ones. Their origins lie in a discontent with an existing state of affairs". Earlier, in 1981, the SEDC issued the national unified syllabus which was structure-based and set "language knowledge" as the main teaching goal in order for students to "lay a solid foundation for further studies". Under this guideline, "87% of teachers in China's middle schools used the traditional method in the late 1980s" (Zuo, 1990, p. 40). The teachers focused on grammar and structure. As a result, the traditional method produced unsatisfactory teaching results. Students became almost "deaf and dumb" and had little ability to speak and understand English (Ng & Tang, 1997).

The SEDC is the official authority that can make educational policy. It is the representative of the central government and can determine the goal, curriculum, course books, and even teaching methods throughout the country. "The highly centralized Chinese system of education subverts the development of more effective methods of teaching English in a number of ways, particularly in the ways foreign language teachers are selected and trained, materials and methods chosen, and programs and teachers are evaluated" (Campbell & Zhao, 1993). Individual teachers were not expected to make any changes. The new teachers must take the designated textbooks and follow the methods required by the syllabus. If not, they would not be regarded by their administrators "as competent and committed teachers" (ibid.).

Because the SEDC had so much power it seemed that every teacher must use CLT. However, because the method was new in every way, it met with considerable resistance from the start. "Many teachers have tried to change the dominant teaching procedures but quickly get frustrated, lose their initial enthusiasm, and acquiesce to tradition" (Campbell & Zhao, 1993). Thus the teachers believed that it was not feasible to adopt CLT because China had its special characteristics. These characteristics included the teachers' inability to teach communicatively and grammar-focused examination pressure.

As a result, CLT did not gain popularity in the early 1990s. Hird (1995) states that the ELT in China is "not very communicative. And maybe that is just as well, because China is a vastly different English language teaching environment from the one that spawned and nurtured the communicative approach."

In Defense of CLT

In spite of the resistance, there were still many teachers in favor of CLT. Li was one of them. She was one of the first defenders of CLT in China who argued that using CLT would be of great benefit to ELT in China. Her article entitled "In defense of the communicative approach" (1984) is the first one published in the *ELT Journal*, which had a big influence on teachers' attitudes towards CLT. The particular content of this article is the author's concern to break down the resistance to CLT engendered by decades of working within the constraints of structural grading and the consequent emphasis on language form rather than use.

Proponents of CLT regarded CLT as an innovation with many specific characteristics. CLT views language as a tool for communication. It insists that interactional speaking activities in classrooms be instances of real communication. It ensures that students have sufficient exposure to the target language. Therefore, application of CLT in Chinese classrooms would bring a positive effect on the part of the teachers, students and the government.

If CLT had not been introduced into China, not many teachers would have become familiar with this new trend in ELT methodology. Thus they might still be using the traditional method and would have had no knowledge of CLT. By introducing CLT, teachers were able to catch up with the modern development of English teaching methods in the world. They were able to come to the realization that teaching English is not only teaching grammar and the true mastery of a language involves communicative competence.

Because CLT aims at communicative competence, students might be more competent in the use of English for communication. A good level of English will help them considerably: to enter and graduate from university; to obtain better jobs, especially those in companies or joint ventures which have international connections; to read technical materials; and to study abroad. Also, China needs citizens with a superior level of English language proficiency. To have significant numbers of competent users of English in a whole range of professions, businesses, workplaces and enterprises has been seen by the authorities as a key element in China's opening wider to the outside world and the drive to modernization.

Measures to Support CLT

The key word underlying the resistance of CLT was "feasibility." The questions were, "Is CLT suitable for China? Can CLT be used feasibly?" Opponents of CLT held that CLT was neither possible nor feasible in China because of specific Chinese conditions. Proponents held different views and believed that there was indeed a possibility and feasibility of using CLT if there was a sweeping change of curriculum. The SEDC supported the proponents' view and took some measures to ensure that CLT was used effectively.

Teacher Training

One of the tasks was to raise the teachers' ability to do their jobs well. One reason to reject reform was the inability of the teachers. Chinese teachers are non-native speakers of English. Most of them, especially those in rural schools, lacked the average ability to listen to and speak English. Their low level of teacher education and language learning may reflect this deficiency. According to the SEDC investigation, in the 1980s, the percentage of secondary school teachers with BA degrees was only 28%, 12% of whom were Russian majors and 8% of whom were graduated with a 3-year BA program during the Cultural Revolution. Teachers with associate degrees and with secondary diplomas were 4% and

29% respectively (Zuo, 1990:34). So poor was their higher education that many teachers took in-service training in teacher's colleges and normal universities (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996).

Suggesting Using an Eclectic Method

An eclectic method is a method that accepts the best teaching techniques from other methods according to the actual situation. To be eclectic, teachers were required to use CLT as a method while accepting elements of the traditional method. As Rao (1996) states, it was the best method to reconcile communicative approaches to the teaching of English with traditional Chinese methods. The SEDC also pointed out that in the mid-eighties in some key schools in Beijing and Shanghai, there had already appeared a tendency of eclecticism so the teachers should follow this way towards eclecticism.

Stating Aims of Teaching English for Communication

The SEDC stated in the new syllabus that English teaching aims are: "by training in listening, speaking, reading and writing, to teach students in order to gain basic knowledge of English and competence to use English for communication." (English Teaching Syllabus, 1992, p. 1). The aims include the teaching of the four language skills for communication. To achieve this aim, the SEDC stated some guidelines:

- Teaching should start with listening and speaking
- Drills on language form should not be excessive
- English should be used in class
- Use of translation should be limited
- Audio-visual aids like realia, pictures, over-head transparencies, audio-tapes, videos, computers should be fully utilized
- The teacher's role should be a facilitator and helper to guide students to develop effective learning habits
- Teachers should be aware of the individual differences among students in the learning process
- Appropriate encouragement should be given to students to reinforce their initiatives. (ibid. pp.6-7)

Test Reform

Matriculation English Test (MET) is one National College Entrance Exams developed by the SEDC. Passing it to enter colleges and universities for further education is the most important consideration for secondary students. Before 1992, the MET test only had the "language usage section" to assess linguistic competence on phonetics, spelling, grammar and vocabulary. After 1992, the "language use section" was added to measure the four language skills used for communication such as listening to dialogues and answering the questions, reading comprehension and compositions. Thus it led teachers to teach to the test.

As a result of these measures, things changed for the better. More teachers were willing to accept CLT. In the mid-1990s, "there is now widespread awareness of more communicative approaches, though some eclectic compromise with Chinese approaches to language teaching is appropriate" (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996).

Conclusion

When CLT was introduced into China, there were two views to the use of CLT. One view was that CLT was not feasible because of China's specific conditions. The other view was that CLT could solve the educational problems and meet China's needs. With regards to these views, the SEDC took a favorable attitude towards CLT and at the same time suggested methods to overcome the resistance to CLT. In the mid to late 1990s, the curriculum changed a lot to suit communicative teaching, and CLT became popular in China. Therefore, the educational authorities had a big influence on EFL teaching which made CLT to be accepted as a main teaching method in China.

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Content Based Academic Writing

Birsen Tan Tütünlü

Istanbul Kültür University, Istanbul, Turkey

This paper presents the second part of the "Writing Course Project" designed and implemented at the Trakya University E.L.T. Department. The main aim of the project is to design a two-year (Preparatory and Freshman) writing course syllabus based on the students' perceived academic needs. The theoretical assumption which emphasises a combination of product and process oriented approaches are taken into consideration for both courses.

The Background and the Objectives

The objectives are determined to be as follows:

- to find out students' linguistic and academic needs, their writing habits and learning strategies,
- to produce materials applicable to the design of writing courses in ELT departments,
- to suggest procedures for testing and evaluation.

In line with the first objective, the students' linguistic and academic needs are determined; Firstly, when the preparatory year students' needs are inquired, it is seen that they need to be trained according to the requirements of C.A.E. Writing Test. Because in the preparatory year they are trained in basic language skills and grammar, involving five hours of writing instruction per week. At the end of the year, they take a proficiency test at the level of C.A.E. Test. Therefore, for needs analysis, the task types of C.A.E. writing test are examined. It is decided that a Task-based approach to writing would facilitate the achievement of our goal for the first year. Because a task-based syllabus is assumed to enable our students to work in a learner centred environment where they can monitor their own learning and keep an eye on their progress in L 2 as a whole.

Therefore the issues to be stressed in the first year's syllabus are agreed to be:

- learner centeredness
- development of lexis and syntax
- development of writing skills

During the second year (freshman year), which is our main concern in this article, the students follow typical freshman courses in foreign language teaching departments, involving three hours of writing instruction per week. The freshman year's writing course is based on the preparatory year's course.

For needs analysis, when the requirements of the ELT Department are examined, it is seen that;

Exam questions require essay type writing which demand knowledge demonstration and, Academic courses require academic skills like; note-taking, recalling, sorting, synthesizing, organizing, interpreting and applying information .

Thus, it is decided that a content-based approach to writing would be beneficial for the students. In a content-based approach, writing is required as a mode of demonstrating knowledge and as a mode of prompting independent thinking, researching and learning. Students learn to gather and interpret data according to methods and standards accepted in their fields, to bring an increasing body of knowledge to bear on their interpreting, and to write in specialised formats. Shih describes the characteristics of content-based approaches to academic writing as follows:

Writing tasks which follow from, and are integrated with the listening and reading of academic material is the defining characteristic of content-based approaches to academic writing. (May Shih, 1986)

In a content-based approach; the emphasis is on writing from sources (readings, lectures, discussions), on synthesis and interpretation of information to be studied in depth. The focus is on what is said rather than how it is said. The skills are integrated as in a university course. Extended study of a topic precedes writing so that there is active control of ideas and extensive processing of new information.

Therefore, the following needed to be stressed in the syllabus:

- raising awareness on the audience
- raising awareness on coherence
- raising awareness on the importance of reading
- developing academic writing skills (outlining, summarising, reporting and arguing, paraphrasing and synthesizing)

The writing course is also seen as an opportunity to provide basic theoretical information related to writing. Therefore, reading input is deliberately chosen from the academic articles written by the professionals in the field.

Thus, the objectives of providing particular type of reading input can be listed as such:

- supplying the necessary materials for the students to build up their schemata in order to write better essays
- giving the students some theoretical knowledge about writing from which they will later on benefit
- limiting the topics provided through the reading input to what is relevant to their interests, rather than presenting them to general topics found in every writing book in the market
- facilitating their lexical and syntactic development providing typical and authentic samples of the genre they are dealing with as models
- raising their awareness on the issues such as the differences between written and spoken language, importance of reading for efficient writing, audience-readership and coherence, etc.

The syllabus is designed to cover the following academic writing skills:

- Reporting: Questionnaire
- Organisation : Making outlines
- Text Analysis
- Reporting : Making diagrams, tables and charts
- Reviewing: Genre analysis
- Synthesising and arguing
- Editing

Implementation and Evaluation

In the particular implementation of the course, certain beneficial strategies such as revision and multiple drafting, critical evaluation on the part of the students are encouraged. Both to encourage the students for these strategies and to test the objectives of the course, the students are given assignments before the instruction and before the reading input; and when the teaching, reading, discussion cycle is completed, the assignments are given back and they are asked to evaluate and revise their own work and sometimes their friends' work, and the differences are noted. The students are frequently given individual feedback.

They also responded to a questionnaire on their conceptions of academic writing, their awareness of the importance of writing for the department, and their preferences and

writing strategies. The same questionnaire is developed and given again at the end of the year to check upon the achievements of the objectives of the course. The students are also given a short written exam to measure their theoretical knowledge gains from the reading input.

Results and Discussion

Tests and Assignments

I. The first major evaluation was done on outlining. The mean was 57.14, sd:25. The mean was lower than expected despite the fact that the class reviewed the paragraph and essay structure on an additional session. Therefore, the students were given feedback in the class on the hierarchical order of their outlines.

II. The second group of data comes from the revisions of the essays written before and after the reading input. Significant increases were found on content scores by 24% and in vocabulary by 20%. However, the organisation scores were decreased by 15%, suggesting that the students were not capable of managing the integration of the incoming information into the existing text.

The findings suggest that the reading input effected the students' essays positively, and the students adapted certain characteristics of the articles without any need for explicit instruction. The problem of informal language use in the students' essays for example, was thus eliminated both by exposing the students to texts written on that particular topic and by exposing them to academic articles written in a formal style.

III. The third group of data comes from the several summary scores, such as summaries written before the instruction, under exam condition, as assignments and revision of the summaries written before the instruction. The scores improved in the assignments (73%) as compared to summaries written under exam condition (53%) and remained nearly same in the revisions (72%). However, when the initial summaries (38%) and the final scores are compared (73%), the increase is significant and satisfactory. The students as well, comparing their initial summaries with the later ones acknowledged the increase in their individual performances.

IV. The last group of scores comes from the final assignments in which the students used several different articles to write on a topic in an extended essay. The mean score (65%) was found lower than expected. The students reported that the articles were more difficult than the previous ones and they had not practiced writing such an extended essay before.

The Results from the Questionnaire

The students found four of the 14 texts difficult and hardly accessible. They found all the texts as relevant to the course, but only a few as interesting. However, they admitted that they were informative. 64% of the students thought that reading the materials improved their knowledge about writing, ELT, study skills and their English. They also accepted the idea that a selection of materials from different sources was good if they are not too difficult. However, they thought a text book would be beneficial for reference and revision.

There was a general satisfaction (85 % on the whole) with the lecturer's method, knowledge, clarity and efficiency. They perceived the feedback sufficient but they commented that they benefited more from the individual appointments with the lecturer (74%).

In the third part in which the learning outcomes are considered, the students felt that they had eventually acquired all the skills and they perceived revision as a beneficial strategy to see how much they improved (74%). The students also reported that there was not much variety in the subjects studied, all materials were about similar topics; writing, language, and ELT. Therefore there was little room for creativity.

The third part of the questionnaire reveals certain learner characteristics and the changes in these since the beginning of the year. The majority of our students (84%) still prefer individual work, they learn better from the instructor, a few of them ask for a friend's help, they do not like peer revision although they reported that they found it beneficial to criticise each other's work when done appropriately.

The Last Check of the Objectives

The students were given a short exam at the end of the year in order to measure their theoretical gains from the readings done in the course. The students' performances ranged from 89% to 63% on the readings that they perceived as accessible, on the others they performed between 58% to 42%. It seems that the students had understood some of the texts better than the others depending on their difficulty level.

Suggestions

Our findings from all the above mentioned sources suggest that there are certain aspects of our syllabus to be retained and some others to be reviewed.

We correctly suggested that reading input would facilitate the acquisition of certain aspects of academic genre leaving no need for explicit instruction. It facilitated their lexical and syntactic development, articles provided models for the students, the issues discussed in the raised their awareness. However, it is clear that the reading input although it should be selected from the relevant genre, it should not be too difficult for the students and require more background knowledge than the students have. The selected articles might be chosen from the field of ELT, but they should relate to the different aspects of the field so that the course would have variety and raise the students' interest while preparing them for their future studies. Although it is quite difficult to make an academic writing course interesting for the students since its requirements are predetermined, the students should find opportunities for self expression and reflect their self interests at least at times. Therefore, the students can be engaged in voluntary project works and can be encouraged for occasional presentations on the topics they chose.

Students should be introduced to strategies such as revision, peer feedback, critical evaluation and group work gradually and the lecturers should show the students the beneficial sides, since our students seem culturally not inclined towards group work and critical evaluation.

It should also be taken into consideration that assignments and exams require different skills on the part of students. The students perform at different levels under two different conditions. Since answering to essay type of questions based on readings in a limited time is a fact of academic life, academic writing courses should involve practices and strategies to develop this skill as well. Mock-exam practices based on reading might be an idea.

Summarising and paraphrasing are difficult skills to acquire for our students since our secondary education does not emphasise them. These should be emphasised sufficiently and lecturers should make sure that their students are able to summarise and paraphrase yet, when the students work on the same skills for too long they lose their motivation. Therefore, a spiral rather than linear course syllabus might be designed to prevent this.

Our students seemed to have benefited from individual conferencing sessions they held with their lecturer. It seems that in such a cognitively and psychologically demanding course as academic writing, the lecturers should provide individual help to their students.

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Technical Correspondence: What Professionals Need to Learn

Ted Knoy

National Tsing Hua University, Taiwan

Abstract

This article introduces common types of correspondence written by non-native English speaking technology professionals by examining the technical correspondence of fifty-two Chinese technology professionals over a one year period. Based on those observations, five common types of technical correspondence are identified. Examples of each type are provided as well.

Introduction

Correspondence, perhaps the most commonly used medium in technical writing, is often viewed as a mundane administrative task.

However, for the non-native English speaking technology professional, correspondence provides an opportunity to promote laboratory activities within a technical organization. Successful articulation also means greater access to similar organizations abroad.

Nevertheless, when writing in the workplace, technology professionals are often forced to rely on business correspondence materials owing to the lack of a more suitable reference. This article examines the technical correspondence of fifty-two Chinese technology professionals at the Industrial Technology Research Institute (Hsinchu, Taiwan) over a one year period. Based on those observations, five common types of technical correspondence are identified: technical cooperation, technical visits abroad, technical visits from abroad, technical training, and requesting information.

Five Common Types of Technical Correspondence

The technical correspondence of fifty-two Chinese technology professionals at the Industrial Technology Research Institute (Hsinchu, Taiwan) was collected and analyzed over a one year period. Their correspondence was categorized into the following five categories:

1. Technical Cooperation

Correspondence involving technical cooperation typically includes exchanging information, seeking technology licensors, paving the way for technology transfers, proposing how to proceed with technical cooperation, requesting participation in/or accreditation by an international body, and reporting the current status of related activities. Common patterns in correspondence related to technical cooperation include the following:

a. **Stating the organization's intention of seeking cooperation.** Simply stating the organization's desire to form a cooperative relationship with another organization helps avoid future confusion.

Examples are provided below:

"I'd like to propose a technological information exchange between our two organizations regarding environmental pollution prevention-waste minimization."

"We are seeking potential licensors of the Autoclaved Lightweight Concrete (ALC) product technology on behalf of local manufacturers in Taiwan, ROC."

"In addition to our in-house R&D, we are also considering the possibility of technology transfer, from a foreign company, of a technology that is ready for (or close to) commercialization and that is already under patent protection."

"We are currently involved in a gear box development program and are seeking foreign partners who are capable of developing gear boxes or who can engage in a cooperative technical program with automotive manufacturers in the R.O.C."

"We are anxious to develop long-lasting cooperative relationships with manufacturers such as yours."

"We recognize that the continued success of our work depends on our sharing and exchanging experience with similar organizations."

b. Giving background information about the organization (e.g., mission, major activities, and achievements). Providing background information about the organization allows the other party to know whether both parties' interests and expertise are compatible.

Examples are provided below:

"Our organization, Mechanical Industry Research Laboratories (MIRL), is a subsidiary of the Industrial Technology Research Institute (ITRI) established by the government of the Republic of China (ROC)."

"One of our missions is to aid the local industrial sector by upgrading technology levels. One of our strategies is to license technology from abroad."

"The experimental results generated so far in this project have already been most helpful in Taiwan's environmental protection work."

c. Providing suggestions on how to initiate cooperation.

Examples are provided below:

"I am looking forward to hearing your ideas or suggestions regarding this information exchange opportunity. I would also like to arrange for a ten-day technical visit to your organization this upcoming May as the initial step of our cooperation."

"If you are interested in licensing this technology, please send the above mentioned information to the above address for evaluation."

"Further discussion, or a possible visit by members of ITRI to your production facility, would seem to be the appropriate next step."

"I suggest that ABC Corporation send a technical expert to UCL before the end of July and give a presentation, regarding the product development of this technology, to our scientists and technical staff."

"Please let me know if there are any areas of common interest you would like to discuss."

d. Commending the achievements and reputation of an organization. Sincerely acknowledging or commending the other party's success in a particular technology expresses the organization's intention to contribute toward as well as learn from the collaborative relationship.

Examples are provided below:

"Your corporation has a long tradition of providing outstanding engineering TP (e.g., Noryl) that has various properties and excellent quality."

"ABC Corporation is recognized as the global leader in developing, producing, and marketing transdermal drug delivery system."

"ABC's Biotechnology Group has developed some interesting products that we would like to understand in more detail before reaching the licensing stage."

"Stat-Rite 2300 is an excellent anti-static polymer that blends well with other thermoplastics and can be used in ESD applications. We believe that this permanent anti-static plastic has a strong market potential, especially in light of the emerging electronics industry in Taiwan."

e. Describing the reason(s) for technical cooperation. More than merely attempting to describe the organization's intentions, the writer should outline specific plans or describe what has been achieved so far.

Examples are provided below:

"A new facility is to be established in Taiwan to design, develop and produce auto transmission parts. Therefore, we are seeking partners for technical cooperation through licensing and joint venture agreements."

"We are currently involved in a gear box development program and are seeking foreign partners who are capable of developing gear boxes or who can engage in a cooperative technical program with automotive manufacturers in the R.O.C."

2. Technical Visits Abroad

Correspondence involving technical visits overseas typically includes proposals for technical visits, topics of discussion, confirmation reminders, changing dates or itineraries, hotel accommodations and transportation, expressing appreciation for hospitality during stay, accepting invitations, and declining invitations. Common patterns in correspondence related to technical visits overseas include the following:

a. Proposing the visit and outlining preliminary details. A technical visit should be viewed as a way of satisfying an organization's need (e.g., information exchange, short training courses, or general understanding of their operations). Details such as time and discussion topics should also be included.

Examples are provided below:

"It would be much appreciated if you could arrange for me to observe your production line during my stay at ABC on March 19, 1993."

"I would like to visit the Special Carbon Division (or the Technical Center) of ABC Corporation/Massachusetts during the upcoming trip."

"Professor Liu from the Virginia Institute of Technology recommended that we visit your renowned institute and find a time to discuss our needs with you, as well as to learn of your own related experiences."

"We recognize that ensuring continued success of this program depends on our observing and understanding similar work in other countries. At this stage, I would like to arrange for a visit to your country."

"I am keenly interested in visiting Dr. Jones and his staff to learn of all the operational aspects involved with this program."

b. Explaining the purpose of the visit. A direct statement of what the writer expects during the technical visit may prevent confusion about what the other party is able or willing to provide.

Examples are provided below:

"We need to enhance our knowledge of carbon black in terms of the chemistry, characterization, and processing application (e.g., ESD protection, wire and cable, coating and UV protection). Such knowledge would also benefit our customers, many of whom are manufacturers."

"Purpose: to understand and evaluate successful cases and the current status of the Japanese dye industry with respect to technology, equipment, and information on industrial waste minimization."

"Visits to compressor system companies that manufacture systems for heat pump or vapor recompression would be equally beneficial. Information regarding the variety of available heat pump systems would also be quite useful for future promotion of such systems in Taiwan."

c. Commending the organization's achievements. Complementing another organization on its achievements is not only good public relations. It also gives the organization a clearer idea of what your expectations will be when and if you pay a visit to their facilities.

Examples are provided below:

"Waste minimization is a global trend, and your country already has much experience in this area."

"As well known, ABC Corporation has the resources needed to produce good quality diverse carbon blacks."

d. Emphasizing the cooperative nature of the visit. The technical visit should be described in terms of a specific perspective. It is not only your organization that stands to benefit. A technical visit can also clarify the common interests and capabilities of both organizations. This may pave the way for future collaborative activities. The following

Examples are provided:

"I hope this visit will strengthen the ties of cooperation that bind our organizations."

"In light of these concerns, we are looking forward to collaborating with your organization in the near future."

"We hope this visit will open doors for further cooperation between our two organizations."

3. Technical Visits from Abroad

Correspondence involving technical visits from abroad typically includes inviting speakers, inviting a consultant or guest worker, setting agendas for technical visits, letters of approval-technical visits, financial arrangements, hotel accommodations or travel arrangements, and changing the dates of technical visits. Common patterns in correspondence related to technical visits from abroad include the following:

a. Inviting the speaker. Speaker invitations should include preliminary information on the role that the participant will play and the topics covered at the event.

Examples are provided below:

"In light of your renowned research and your contributions in the field of GRIN polymers, we would like to formally invite you to serve as the Invited Speaker at the upcoming GRIN Materials Symposium."

"We would like to invite you to give a talk at our upcoming silicone technology seminar."

"This is an official invitation to three ABC Corporation specialists, Mr. Smith, Mr. Jones, and Ms. Lin, to participate in a CGMP seminar and visit our local bulk pharmaceutical chemical plants."

"Please recommend one scientific expert to serve as a short term consultant at CMS, whose expertise is highly relevant to the following subjects."

b. Providing details of the event. The letter should include specific topics, time of the event, and perhaps a description of some of the participants who will attend this event.

Examples are provided below:

"We are organizing a seminar on Conductive Plastics for Anti-static/ESD Applications that will be held at Union Chemical Laboratories/ITRI on April 16. The ultimate purpose of the seminar will be to provide a channel of communication between IC assembly houses and IC container manufacturers. The seminar will also focus on issues related to the properties and technology of conductive plastic compounds."

"The meeting will be held on April 25-26, 1994 at the National Central Library, Taipei. We hope that you can give two lectures, at 31:20-14:05 and 15:10-15:55 (4/25/94), respectively."

"Reception dinners are to be held on the evenings of April 25 and 26, and there will be a short tour of Taipei on April 29."

c. Compensating for the visit. Financial details regarding compensation should be stated as simply and directly as possible to avoid confusion.

Examples are provided below:

"Round-trip airfare ticket (business class) and accommodations will be provided."

"Please pay in advance for the round-trip airfare ticket, and other incidental expenses; retain the receipts as well. We will reimburse you (by check) prior to your departure of Taiwan."

d. Making preparations before the visit. The speaker should not be given any last minute surprises with respect to what materials and future information is required.

Examples are provided below:

"Please fax us your curriculum vitae, lecture topics, and half-page abstracts before January 31, 1994, as well as the complete papers before March 1, 1994. Please fax and send all our materials to me on time so that we will have sufficient time for translation and printing."

"I also need your curriculum vitae, including name, date of birth, place of birth, nationality, marital status, academic qualifications, professional experience, scientific achievements, current scientific activities, other science-related activities, and selected publications."

4. Technical Training

While technical visits overseas (point #2 above) may only last a couple weeks, the correspondence for technical training is more detailed since the length of stay may be up to one year. Correspondence involving technical training typically includes invitations to speakers, guest worker applications, application cover letters, suggestion letters for training content, training course confirmations, arranging accommodations, application rejection acknowledgements, and appreciation letters upon return from training program. Common patterns in correspondence related to technical training include the following:

a. Proposing the training course of guest worker period. Proposing the technical training period should be stated with confidence in the organization's ability to meet the organizational or individual needs.

Examples are provided below:

"Could you provide a short training course on the current developments and applications of MS in polymer research."

"Would you allow me to serve as a guest worker in your laboratory?"

"I would like to serve as a guest worker in your laboratory for six to eight months."

b. Describing the applicant's current work and research interests (as related to the training program). Providing as much information about the applicant's individual background or organizational requirements or needs will allow the reader to determine whether he or she can be of assistance.

Examples are provided below:

"I have a masters degree in Materials Science and Engineering and have received special training in thin film deposition photolithography and chemical etching. I am currently designig a process that would integrate these technologies for the development of a pressure sensor that is based on a metal thin strain gauge."

"The Pressure/Vacuum Measurement Laboratory at the Center for Measurement Standards is planning to develop the primary pressure standard (PPS) of the mercury manometer so as to promote and strengthen our laboratory's measurement capabilities."

c. Clearly stating how the training course can benefit the applicant's organization. A clear statement of what the applicant expects to gain from the training course will avoid further confusion.

Examples are provided below:

"I also agree that the introduction of Molecular Simulation at UCL would provide a more thorough understanding of the polymer morphology-structure property relationship and the directions for research activity."

"You laboratory, one of the leaders in this field of research, could provide me with a marvelous opportunity to learn about sensor manufacturing."

d. Setting an itinerary or set of topics that will be covered during the training program. Stating the applicant's expectations of the training itinerary may prevent later disappointment.

Examples are provided below:

"I hope that through this short training program we can determine the systems and research topics that need to be focused on. The following topics may be a helpful guide for you when deciding the contents of this short training course. Of course, you should feel free to amend or expand on any of these topics."

"We hope to enhance our technical knowledge of PPS, particularly with respect to temperature measurement and control, anti-vibration, and pressure control."

5. Requesting Information

Correspondence involving information requests typically includes requesting program information, requesting company information, requesting product information, requesting technology information, requesting reference materials and price quotations - information services. Common patterns in correspondence related to requesting information technical training include the following:

a. Stating the organization's interest in the requested information. Requests for information should not be viewed as merely a means to obtain information. Instead, information requests should be considered as the first step in identifying the mutual interests of both organizations. For instance, how will the other organization benefit from supplying this information?

Examples are provided below:

"We intend to explore other possible applications of these films, particularly in the IC, electronics and packaging industries here in Taiwan."

"We plan to file an IND for scopolamine T.D.D.S. with the Bureau of Drugs (Taiwan's counterpart of the FDA). Please provide us with the following documents and samples required by the Bureau."

"Our laboratory is currently developing a flow measurement test rig. Our design consultant suggests the use of ABC valve products on some of the mechanical components. The following is a list of items we are interested in purchasing from your company."

b. Requesting information. By clarifying your organization's interests, you allow the reader to make a correlation between the interests and goals of both organizations.

Examples are provided below:

"Please send me introductory information as well as other relevant publications that explain your strategies, methodologies, achievements, and future objectives."

"Since our goal closely resembles that of your organization, we would like to develop a partner relationship with your Industrial Material Exchange Service and, in this way, facilitate information exchange and other possible collaborations."

Conclusion

This article has identified five common types of correspondence written by non-native English speaking technology professionals. Correspondence, perhaps the most commonly used medium in technical writing, is often viewed as a mundane administrative task. However, for the non-native English speaking technology professional, correspondence provides an opportunity to promote laboratory activities within a technical organization. Successful articulation also means greater access to similar organizations abroad. Nevertheless, when writing in the workplace, technology professionals are often forced to rely on business correspondence materials owing to the lack of a more suitable reference. This article examines the technical correspondence of fifty-two Chinese technology professionals at the Industrial Technology Research

Institute (Hsinchu, Taiwan) over a one year period. Based on those observations, five common types of technical correspondence are identified: technical cooperation, technical visits abroad, technical visits from abroad, technical training, and requesting information.

As a preferred alternative to business correspondence materials that often do not match the writer's requirements, the common types of technical correspondence introduced here allow technology professionals to articulate their goals of promoting laboratory activities and creating collaborative ties with their counterparts abroad.

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Marking Student Work on the Computer

Martin Holmes

The University of Victoria English Language Centre, Victoria, Australia

As more and more of our students' work is submitted in word-processed form, it seems logical that we begin to develop tools to mark and annotate written assignments quickly and clearly using word-processors. This article describes some tools which I have developed for marking electronic documents using a word-processor, and discusses some of the advantages and drawbacks revealed by my early trials of the system. The macros and templates I have developed for MS Word 7 and WordPerfect 6.1 for Windows can be downloaded from links in the article.

1. The Need for Computerized Marking

Twelve or fifteen years ago, the vast majority of written work produced by EFL or ESL students was handwritten; only in very high-level Academic English courses was it normal to expect students to hand in type-written work. The increasing ubiquity of the computer in educational environments, along with the growth in sophistication and ease-of-use of word-processing packages, has changed the situation dramatically, however, and students at many levels and in many types of courses are now encouraged to hand in word-processed work -- indeed, many of us now teach word-processing skills as part of ESL and EFL courses, and the word-processor is beginning to be exploited as an effective tool in developing writing skills.

Teachers now routinely take in word-processed work from their students, but what do we do with it when we get it? Generally speaking, most of us do what we have always done with student work -- we annotate it, correct it or mark it using coloured pens, cryptic abbreviations, circles, arrows and squashed-up paragraphs of comment in minuscule handwriting. The work we return to students is often dauntingly messy, and many students do not have the patience to decipher our responses. It is also, surely, rather ironic that we now demand that our students use computer technology to achieve higher standards of presentation in their written work, while our marking remains as illegible as ever. This article presents one method which I developed for computer-marking the literature essays of my students in the University Admission Preparation Program at the University of Victoria. I have included some screen-shots of the system in action, and links to down-loadable files which will enable you to try out and modify the technique for yourself.

I piloted the system with two student volunteers during the April-July semester this year, and despite a few initial technical problems, it proved successful. Other students in the same group also began to submit their work electronically, some voluntarily and others as a result of my policy of accepting late submissions only in electronic format. Informal feedback from students suggests that most preferred electronic marking, although some of the less computer-literate were sometimes frustrated by technical difficulties, and some preferred to print out their marked work rather than reading it on the screen. I intend to do a larger-scale trial during the coming fall semester.

2. The System in Action

My students produce their written work using a variety of word-processing packages for both the PC and the Macintosh. The only requirement for the purposes of the electronic marking system is that the application has the capability to save files in Rich Text Format (with the filename extension ".rtf"). Rich Text is a format created by Microsoft to enable sharing of word-processed documents between different applications and platforms, and it works a little like an HTML file, by encoding all the formatting

information in ASCII text codes along with the text. Most recent word-processing packages will support Rich Text (see the results of my [brief survey](#) of some of the most common applications to see if your word-processor will handle it well).

The students then attach the file to an e-mail message and send it to me. The use of e-mail ensures that I can receive files from both PCs and Macintoshes, whichever platform I happen to be working on. I can then open the file in my word-processor, and call up a special marking toolbar. Each button on the toolbar is linked to a macro which inserts an annotation. Annotating and commenting the text is then a simple matter of using the buttons. The problem text is red and double-underlined, and the annotation is in blue superscript. Specific error-types I commonly want to diagnose have their own buttons ("AG" = subject-verb agreement, for example); for the mysterious or incomprehensible, there is a "??" annotation. Some buttons, such as the "Missing Word" button, simply insert annotations at the cursor. Other buttons redline text to be cut, or simply change the colour of text. For comments on content, I use green footnotes; pressing the "Green Foot" button at the beginning of the session ensures that all footnotes, and footnote numbers in the text, will be in green.

The file is then saved in Rich Text Format, and e-mailed back to the student. It can be opened in any word-processor that can read RTF files. The student may use it as the basis for another draft, cutting and emending where necessary, if this is part of a process writing exercise. The document can also be printed; the use of superscript and double-underlining ensures that the annotations remain clear even when printed on a monochrome printer.

3. Advantages over Conventional Marking Practices

There are a number of obvious pedagogical advantages to using a system like this. Firstly, annotations are always clear, especially in colour, and there is always enough space for them, because the document expands to accommodate them. This is particularly valuable when you wish to make extensive comments on content, as I do with the work of my literature students. I can insert lengthy footnotes with ease. Secondly, the system to some extent enforces consistency in diagnosing and classifying errors; though most of us do our best to stick to fairly consistent marking systems, we often stray in the heat of marking, or fall back on the simpler option of simply correcting an error when a suitable diagnostic sign does not come quickly to mind. Thirdly, this system is much faster than marking by hand, especially if, like me, you can type faster than you can write. For the student, receiving an electronically-marked document like this encourages the editing process; students can correct their marked work directly on the screen. It was also clear from my trial of the system that those students who used it regularly learned a lot more about word-processing and e-mail than their classmates.

For the teacher, there are administrative benefits too. Each essay received electronically can easily be archived, both in its original and its marked form. A database of past student essays can be remarkably useful in standardizing marking practices among teachers. It can also be searched very simply if, for example, you suspect that a student has plagiarized work previously submitted by someone else. We should no longer need to photocopy and file students' essays -- in fact, we can dispense with paper altogether if we wish.

A system like this also has great potential value for those of us working on distance learning courses, which are increasingly taking up residence online. Students can submit their work from anywhere in the world and receive clear marked copy back quickly.

4. Technological Requirements

a) Students

In order to use this system, students will need to have access to a PC or Macintosh running a recent release of a major word-processing package. Among those which are

suitable are MS WORD 5.1a and above for the Macintosh, and WordPerfect 6.1, Ami Pro 3.0, and MS Word 6.0 and above for the Windows PC. Students will also need access to an e-mail account which allows files to be attached to messages.

b) Instructors

Anyone with a little knowledge of macro programming can create a marking system for their own preferred word-processing package. So far, I have created toolbar and macro packages for Word 7 and for WordPerfect 6.1, and you are welcome to download these. Each package includes instructions for installing the special toolbar, as well as hints on how to customize it to reflect your own preferences and priorities when marking. The two systems differ slightly.

5. Packages to Download

Each package contains a readme.txt file with instructions for installing, using and modifying the system, along with a set of macros and a template file containing the toolbar. The MS Word package contains the macros inside the template file; for WordPerfect, the macros are all separate files.

[Download MS Word 7 Zipfile](#) (Word for Windows 95 only)

[Download WordPerfect 6.1 Zipfile](#) (WordPerfect 6.1 for Windows, running on Win 3.1 or Windows 95)

6. Learner Training

A certain amount of learner training has proved essential in implementing this system with my students. Since my initial trials have been with a small number of students, I have dealt with these problems on an individual basis, but it would probably be more effective to produce a handout and teach a session on the system at the beginning of each semester. Generally, students have faced problems in the following areas:

a) Producing a Suitable Document

Students who are not very proficient with a word-processor are often able to produce adequate printed copy by treating it as a typewriter, using spaces instead of tabs, and putting hard returns at the end of every line. If the resulting document is opened in another application, the result is untidy and takes a long time to clean up even when you have macros to automate the process. It pays dividends, therefore, to ensure that students are familiar with the basic techniques of formatting a document correctly in whatever word-processor they choose to use.

b) Saving the Document in a Suitable Format

In order to allow students to use a variety of word-processors, this marking system relies on Rich Text Format documents, and students will often have to be taught how to choose this format from the "Save As" dialog box.

c) Transmitting and Receiving the Document

Students will need to know how to attach a file to an e-mail message using an appropriate encoding method (MIME is standard), and where to find an attachment which is sent to them (usually in the "attachments" directory of their e-mail application). Initially, some of my students inserted their essays as text into their e-mail messages, and while this is not disastrous, since you can cut and paste the text into a word-processor, the result is inconveniently full of hard carriage returns, and font-formatting features such as italics and underlining are lost.

7. Disadvantages

One major disadvantage of using a system like this is that some students do not take to it easily, and can require extensive support. During my small-scale trial, I received several documents in the wrong format; those created with PC applications I was able to open anyway, but opening Macintosh files on a PC requires special software. Sometimes essays were included in the body of e-mail messages, and I had to clean them up by running macros to strip out the hard carriage returns. Once or twice, documents seemed to

disappear in transit -- backups are essential. Another technical problem that my students had was in attempting to print marked essays in our CALL laboratory. Printing documents containing colour text on the networked monochrome laser printer resulted in garbage, and they were forced to select the whole of the text and change it to black before printing. The same documents printed well on monochrome printers in other contexts, though.

These technical glitches led to some resistance among the more computer-phobic of my students.

8. Similar Alternative Systems

a) MS Word's Document Revision Tools

MS Word 7 includes a range of tools for sharing, annotating and revising a document. These allow multiple readers to add their own distinct annotations and to highlight text in a range of colours. Where it is practical for a whole class to standardize on one word-processing package, using these tools (which are intended for the office environment) would seem to be a viable alternative, and would eliminate the need to use Rich Text Format as a document standard. This would also allow students to work together on writing projects.

b) Using HTML

Roy Bowers has been developing [a procedure for marking student work](#) submitted in the form of HTML files. This enables student errors to be automatically linked to relevant explanations in a grammar database; students view their marked essays in a web browser and click on the errors to see the relevant portion of a help file displayed in another frame of the browser window. HTML, like RTF, is independent of platform and application, and students can access very detailed help files using this procedure. One disadvantage is that students submit their work in the form of text files rather than word-processor files, so they lose some of the formatting flexibility provided by a word-processor.

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Literacy Development Through Peer Reviews in a Freshman Composition Classroom

Julia Gousseva
University of Arizona, Tucson, USA

The only source of knowledge sufficiently rich and reliable for learning about written language is the writing already done by others. In other words, one learns to write by reading. The act of writing is critical as one learns to write by reading; our desire to write provides an incentive and direction for learning about writing from reading. But the writing that anyone does must be vastly complemented by reading if it is to achieve anything like the creative and communicative power that written language offers.

Frank Smith (*Essays into Literacy*)

Introduction: reading and writing as related thought processes

Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics defines literacy as "the ability to read and write in a language" (Richards, 1985, p. 216). More specifically, functional literacy is defined as referring to the ability to use reading and writing skills "sufficiently well for the purposes and activities which normally require literacy in adult life or in a person's social position" (Richards, p. 216). However, the nature of the relationship of reading and writing is more complex than any definition can imply.

The development of literacy involves development of writing and reading as conjoined activities with shared cognitive processes that shape each other, and are affected by (and affect) the context in which they occur.

Fitzgerald (1989) argues that writing and reading, or, more specifically, such subprocesses of writing and reading as revision in writing and critical reading are "highly related and draw on similar thought processes" (Fitzgerald, 1989, p. 42).

Fitzgerald (1989) describes revision in writing and critical reading as dissonance resolution processes based on reciprocal dynamic, and interdependent relationship between writers, readers, and texts.

More specifically, as Nystrand (1986) puts it, the writers "write on the premises of the reader" (Nystrand, 1986, p.46), taking the readers' expectations into account, and shaping their texts to meet such expectations of the audience. On the other hand, readers' goals, expectations, and beliefs can be influenced by the writers' goals, and readers "read on the premises of the writer" (Nystrand, 1986, p. 49).

Boiarsky (1984), referring to work of such composition scholars as Murray and Graves, states that during parts of the revision process, "the writer stops to read" (Boiarsky, 1984, p. 65), and moves between thinking about the piece from the reader's perspective, to writing down the ideas and re-organizing them, to re-reading his/her text.

There are certain textual cues that help readers shape their expectations and facilitate the process of reading. For example, readers have different expectations when opening an encyclopedia than when reading a mystery novel, and such expectations of the type of information anticipated in a certain text and an expected genre are "influenced by past experience or prior knowledge" of these genres (Fitzgerald, 1989, p. 43). If during revision process the writers notice a potential mismatch (dissonance, in Fitzgerald's terms) between their own and readers' expectations and the actual text, they attempt to resolve this mismatch problem by making changes to the text and/or their goals in writing. On the other hand, during critical reading, the readers compare the text to their own goals and beliefs, and "to what they think the writers' goals are" (Fitzgerald, 1989, p. 44). If

mismatches occur, readers try to resolve them by changing their expectations and goals in reading the text.

This interrelationship between reading, writing, and thinking can be further supported by Vygotsky's (1962) work. Vygotsky (1962) establishes a basis for his theory of the relationship between thought and word, by suggesting that words give rise to thoughts, which, in turn, are expressed in words.

The concept of reading and writing as modes of learning in the college context led the researchers and teachers to develop the concept of "critical literacy", where reading and writing can be used in ways that surpass the functional and minimal literacy demands and allow the students to develop and use skills for analysis, synthesis and creative expression (Flower, 1989). The purpose of this paper is to provide a theoretical overview of the role of peer reviews as a means of integrating college reading and writing processes, and discuss the results of three studies (two previously published, and one conducted by the author in her composition classes) examining various aspects of peer reviews in a composition classroom.

Integrating college reading and writing: a historic perspective

While the discussion centering around writing and reading as modes of learning is a relatively new one in education, the idea of the importance of integrated approach to teaching reading and writing has been expressed as early as the late 1800's (Quinn, 1995). As early as 1894, the National Education Association issued a report that stated that development of reading and writing skills were of equal value (Applebee, 1974). In 1897, Harvard admissions test asked the students to read and respond to a short essay. In 1907, MIT introduced courses that emphasized communicative uses of language and teaching reading and writing for learning (Quinn, 1995). However, for a number of political and economic reasons, this movement that was originally designed to promote integration led to separation of reading from writing

The following thirty years, the 30's, 40's and 50's, were a time when this trend of teaching reading and writing separately and in isolation from learning was reversed, and the first formal college writing across the curriculum programs emerged. Later, however, in 1965, the College Entrance Examination Board proposed a three part division of high school English into language, literature, and composition (Quinn, 1995). Teaching reading was not part of the curriculum, and such division created the image of teaching reading as a remedial occupation. This image was further reinforced by the federal Right to Read program in its focus on corrective attention to basic reading skills. However, despite these negative tendencies, some positive trends attempting to integrate reading and writing as modes of learning were starting to emerge.

In the 70's and 80's, important models of reading were developed. These models were based on "cognitive psychology, transformational-generative grammar and schema theory" (Quinn, 1995, p.303). Psycholinguistic models, such as Goodman's (1967) and Smith's (1971) viewed reading as a holistic activity, and emphasized the role of the reader in making sense of the text. Proponents of the whole language approach to teaching reading and writing emphasized active involvement of students into reading and writing processes (Goodman & Goodman, 1977; Smith, 1982), and de-emphasized teaching of discrete skills.

The concept of reading and writing as interactive, meaning-construction processes led the literacy researchers of the 80's to examine the reading-writing relationships further, and to construct process models of reading and writing (Pearson & Tierney, 1984; Shanahan & Lomax, 1986). In the mid-80's such researchers as Newell (1984), Langer (1986), and Langer and Applebee (1987) turned to the examination of reading and writing as modes of learning, and found that "reading with writing promotes

knowledge transformation, extends and enriches students' engagement in learning, and encourages more thoughtful exploration and elaboration of ideas" (Quinn, 1995, p.305).

In the 90's, teachers and researchers have become increasingly aware of teaching reading and writing as means to acquire content knowledge and to develop academic writing skills. The idea of reading and writing as modes of learning is further fortified by the current social-constructivist theory of learning (Vygotsky, 1986).

Research on the reading-writing connection

The processes of reading and writing are closely linked and interdependent, neither can develop in isolation from the other, and none can develop before the other. As we write, we continuously re-read what has been written before to re-organize and re-focus our thoughts, we read what was written by others to shape the direction of our own thought and to find confirmations of our own ideas in writing of others, and to extend our thinking. Smith's description of the reading-writing relationship suggests that "the desire to write provides an incentive and direction for reading, and reading also acts as an incentive for writing" (DeFord, 79).

Goodman (1986) outlines the following principles for reading and writing:

- Readers construct meaning during reading
- Readers predict, select, confirm, and self-correct as they seek to make sense of print
- Writers include enough information and detail so what they write will be comprehensible to their readers. Effective writing makes sense for the intended audience. Efficient writing includes only enough for it to be comprehensible.
- Three language systems interact in written language: the graphophonics (sound and letter patterns), the syntactic (sentence patterns), and the semantic (meanings).
- Comprehension of meaning is always the goal of readers
- Expression of meaning is always what writers are trying to achieve
- Writers and readers are strongly limited by what they already know, writers in composing, readers in comprehending.

The following section of the paper will focus on research studies that emphasize the interrelationship between reading and writing processes, and, more specifically, describe two studies that focus on the use of peer reviews in a composition classroom as a task that helps the students establish a closer connection between reading, writing, and critical thinking skills development. The concluding part of the paper will present the results of a peer review study conducted by the author in her composition classes.

The effects of reading process on writing: a study with sixth-graders

Goffman (1994) conducted this study with of investigating the effects of questions on the summarization behaviors of sixth graders. Question treatments included taxonomy-based questions, story-focused questions based on causal chains, and no questions. Summaries were analyzed based on the criteria of importance; strategy type (reproductions, transformations, intrusions), text relevancy; accuracy; and brevity.

Findings indicated that the approach students use in writing summaries may be influenced by the structure and length of the story, and that "interspersed story-focused questions may influence the selection and accuracy of information included in summary writing" (Goffman, 1994, p. 19).

Goffman reports that on the importance measure, the subjects who read the shortest story included a higher percentage of the important units in their summaries than subjects who read the longer stories, suggesting that the difficulty in identifying information of relative importance to include in summaries increases in more complex

text. In terms of the effect of questions, Goffman (1994) found that asking questions (specifically, causal chain questions) throughout the text has a facilitative effect on learning, increasing inclusion of accurate textual information in written summaries (Goffman, 1994).

Peer reviews as an interface between reading and writing

Peer reviews is one of the commonly used technique in a composition class that reflects the whole language view of reading and writing as interrelated activities. Peer reviews can be seen as a powerful learning tool incorporating reading and writing practice. Mittan (1989) writes that peer reviews provide students with an authentic audience, increase students' motivation for writing, enable students to receive different views on their writing; help students learn to read critically their own writing, and assist students in gaining confidence in their writing.

Gillam (1990) argues that peer reviews benefit both the respondent and the writer, as reading peers' papers and responding to them offers the students a valuable opportunity to develop critical reading skills, and exercise "different order reading skills" (Gillam, 1990, p. 98) than those used by the students when reading professionally written texts, which the students assume to be flawless. Another advantage of peer reviews is in the opportunity to develop metalanguage useful for thinking and talking about writing (Gillam, 1990).

A peer review study conducted by Kate Mandelsdorf examines the students' opinions on the usefulness of peer reviews in an ESL composition classroom. The subjects of the study were first-semester freshman ESL students of various language backgrounds. All teachers used peer reviews after the first draft, using similar review sheets that asked the students to evaluate content, organization, development, unity, and clarity. At the end of the semester, all students were asked to answer the following questions: "Do you find it useful to have your classmates read your papers and give suggestions for revision? What kinds of suggestions do you often receive from your classmates? What kind of suggestions are most helpful to you? In general, do you find the peer-review process valuable?" (Mandelsdorf, 1992, pp. 275-276).

The results of the study indicated that most students and teachers perceived peer reviews as a beneficial technique that helped the students revise their papers. The students named content and organization as the main areas that were improved after peer reviews. More specifically, the students noted that peer reviews led them to consider different ideas about their topics and helped them to develop and clarify these ideas. These comments suggest that peer reviews can make students more aware of the needs and expectation of their audience, helping them to meet the demands of the writing classroom which their peers are reflecting to them. At the same time, many of the students believe that peer reviews had neither helped them to be responsible for their improvement, nor to be confident in their ability to critique a text. A partial solution to that problem would be to provide more training and guidance for the students in analyzing each other's texts and writing peer reviews.

Peer reviews in English Composition 101 and ESL Composition 107 classes

Goals of the research and the research problem

The purpose of this study is two-fold. The general purpose is to take a closer look at the place of peer reviews in a composition classroom, and the more specific purpose is to analyze the students' views on the effectiveness of peer reviews in a freshman composition class (101 and 107).

Research context

Research was conducted in 101 and 107 freshman composition classes. 101 class is the first part of freshman year composition sequence for native speakers of English that is aimed at teaching the students to read critically and to express thoughts through different

types of essays -- from expository writing on a personal issue to argumentative essays on a topic of social interest. The course also includes a rhetorical analysis of a newspaper/magazine article and a contextual essay that involves a discussion of an issue from various perspectives. The peer review data used in this study is based on contextual essay peer reviews. 107 is a similar course intended for international students (non-native speakers of English), some of whom have taken English classes at CESL before enrolling in the University, while others have only had English classes in their own countries.

Research question and field techniques

The research question addressed in this study is as follows:

From the students' perspective, are peer reviews an effective tool to promote thoughtful reading, to help the students generate "language about language and to help the students develop confidence in their capacity to learn from one another and for themselves (Gillam, 1990, p.99)?

To answer this question, the students were asked to respond to a number of questions regarding their views on peer reviews (see Appendix). These answers were a part of in-class peer review session.

Role of the ethnographer/researcher

In this study, the role of the researcher was that of a participant observer and, even more importantly, that of a classroom teacher. While there may be certain confounding variables related to such dual role of teacher and researcher (such as the issue of students' openness and willingness to give honest answers), I believe that the advantages outweigh the possible drawbacks.

Teachers (as opposed to outside researchers) are able to "observe activities in the classroom on the regular basis" (Hawisher and Pemberton, 1991, p. 79) and gain insights that outsiders do not have. As teachers conducting research, we are able to notice subtle changes in the classroom dynamics and "discover the reasons why these changes occur" (Hawisher and Pemberton, 1991, p. 79). Classroom teachers have the unique opportunities for close observations, detailed case studies, and longitudinal research that can ultimately lead to better teaching and learning.

The Effectiveness of Peer Reviews: Theoretical Framework and Students' Opinions.

A recent return of peer groups in the composition classroom was initiated by work of such teachers and researchers as Peter Elbow, Ken Macrorie, and Donald Murray who pointed out the effectiveness of student interaction for improving the quality of writing and developing the students' skills as critical readers and independent thinkers. I believe that peer group work and peer reviews in a writing class are helpful both to the reader and the writer, as they help foster critical reading skills that are not generally used by freshman students when reading professionally written texts (as they take their quality for granted).

Gillam (1978) states that there are three main benefits of peer reviews: (1) they promote a "thoughtful" reading, one in which the reader reads like 'a writer composing a text' (Gillam, 1990, p.99); (2) they help the students generate "language about language, creating a vernacular to be internalized for the members' future use" (Gillam, 1990, p.99); and (3) they help the students "to develop confidence in their capacity to learn from one another and for themselves" (Gillam, 1990, p.99).

The purpose of this section of the paper is to analyze each of these three points in terms of theory and the students' responses.

Promoting Thoughtful Reading

Gillam's point that peer reviews "promote a 'thoughtful' reading, one in which the reader reads like 'a writer composing a text'" (Gillam, 1990, p.99) implies that there are different types of reading processes. The one we will be discussing in this section is reading for writing. Let us begin our discussion with the definition of critical reading provided by Fitzgerald :

Critical reading refers to the criticism of one's own thinking and the writer's thinking during meaning construction when reading. As individuals read, they compare the actual text to their goals, beliefs, and expectations for the text, and they consider their own goals and the text in relation to what they think the writers' goals are. ... if readers experience no mismatches (i.e. there is consonance), then they generally continue reading. If mismatches occur (dissonance), then readers make decisions about the source(s) of dissonance, how it might be resolved, and/or which of their own goals, beliefs, and expectations might be changed. Finally, critical readers do not change the printed text, but they might change their understanding of it, their own goals, beliefs, and expectations. (Fitzerald, 1989, p. 44)

If we follow this definition and view critical reading and/or revision in writing as a dissonance-resolution process between the author's goals and the audience's goals, then we need to turn to the issue of relationship between the reader and the writer, and try to analyze the effectiveness of a specific piece of writing from the point of view of a given audience.

As Fitzgerald (1989, p. 42) puts it, "we write on the premises of the reader, i.e. writers learn that readers expect information to be sequenced in certain logical or commonly accepted ways, so writers' goals for their texts take those reader expectation into account, and they try to fashion their texts to meet or readers' expectations (42)". This statement implies that the process of directing a text towards a specific audience involves critical reading (and revision) skills which means that the students need to be able to use these skills in order to shape their texts for a given audience and purpose.

For us as teachers, it is important to raise the students' awareness of writing as a skill "integral to the process of becoming a critical thinker" (Kauffmann, 1996, p.400) in order to make the writing-revising process effective. In other words, "the processes used to read and write effectively are similar and ... the skills used by good readers can be transferred to their writing projects" (Kauffmann, 1996, p.398) . This idea assumes active readers, those who assert meaning into the text and "in the process of reading actually revise their own hypotheses about the text" (Kauffmann, 1996, p.399).

Looking at this issue from a more practical perspective and analyzing its classroom implications and possibilities, it is important to note that "instructors can encourage an awareness of writing as decision making by asking students to reflect on the choices they made while composing, and to consider the reasons behind their choices" (Marting, 1991, p. 128).

One of the ways to promote such awareness and to improve students' critical reading skills is through peer reviews. As Marting (1991) puts it, "having students assess their performance as readers-writers is not only crucial to the success of the class but also valuable as a building block for them to understand their own writing" (Marting, 1991, p. 130). Peer reviews are an effective way to emphasize the reading-writing connection and to teach the students to "not only read and respond to their classmates' work, but evaluate their performance as critical readers" (Marting, 1991, p.131).

Do Peer Reviews Help Promote Thoughtful Reading? The Students' Opinions.

I was quite happy to learn that most of my students view peer review sessions as a useful activity that helps them develop as better writers and as critical thinkers. More specifically, in this section I was interested in finding out whether the students believe that peer reviews promote thoughtful reading, and what they understand as "thoughtful reading".

101 students:

1. The reader attempts to tell what the author really meant by what he or she wrote.

2. I think peer reviews create a different writer. Normally, when we read, we don't consider if the authors are convincing or not. We are simply convinced or not convinced. Reading for peer reviews opens our minds to the writer and his/her position.

3. I agree that peer reviews promote "thoughtful reading" because you need to be aware of what the writer is saying throughout the paper. To the writer, the reader says the things that need to be improved, and to the reader, the writer brings a deeper understanding of writing, critical thinking skills.

4. They promote "thoughtful reading" because the reader is thinking about what the writer might say next, and gets into the paper.

5. I do "thoughtful reading" when peer editing others' papers. It's harder to do 'thoughtful reading' on your own paper.

6. "Thoughtful reading" means that the reader reads the paper like a writer, analyzing the piece.

7. When I read a paper, I think in a lot of ways I try to become the writer and see things from the writer's point of view.

107 students:

1. Peer reviews do promote thoughtful reading because you cannot only read as you usually do. You do a kind of rhetorical analysis each time. I think I compare what I read with how i would have composed it.

2. If you read like a writer composing a text, you will think more about it.

3. Peer reviews promote "thoughtful reading". I would like to agree with the point as I believe that reading a passage enables us to see beyond that text if we step into the author's world. The only way to visit the author's text is to read it with your mind, your thoughts, your interpretation. In that way, we could be there when the composition was written, you will feel that you are just like a stranger in "show", and that the author treats you as invisible. This is a good way to open up your imagination and thus benefit in writing your own work later.

Generating Language about Language

The second advantage of peer reviews discussed by Gillam (1990) is that "they help the students generate 'language about language', creating a vernacular to be internalized for members' future use" (Gillam, 1990, p. 98). "Language about language", or metalanguage, is defined by Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics as "the language used to analyze or describe a language". "Rhetorical effectiveness", "reading like a writer", "it draws the reader in", "show not tell" and "use more support" are all examples of metalanguage that helps us create a framework for thinking about and talking about various elements of the composition process, as well as its product. This is the language that professional writers and composition teachers use to discuss writing. However, most freshman college students are not familiar enough with all these terms.

What are some of the ways to develop that metalanguage? One would be through teachers' comments on essays. As a composition teacher, I try to make a clear connection between the terms we discuss in class and the ones I use for comments on students' papers. However, I try to avoid personal comments on whether I liked or disliked a piece of writing. I believe that such comments will not help the students develop metalanguage, but will only further develop an all too common concept that evaluation of writing is a subjective enterprise that is not guided by any objective criteria or factors. In their study of teachers' comments in a college writing class, Connors & Lunsford (1993) found similar approach on the part of a number of composition teachers: "teacherly 'voice' in a commentary is a rare thing" (Connors & Lunsford, 1993, p.219). They also note that "many

of the comments seemed to speak to the student from empyrean heights, delivering judgments in an apparently disinterested way" (Connors & Lunsford, 1993, p. 219). However, their explanation of this phenomenon suggested by Connors and Lunsford (1993) is the unwillingness of the teachers to "engage powerfully with content-based student assertions or to pass anything except 'professional' judgments on the student writing they were examining" (Connors & Lunsford, 1993, p. 215).

As a composition teacher, I believe that another way to help the students develop "language about language" that they can use in discussing their essays is through peer reviews. How do the students understand metalanguage development? Do they see the value of peer reviews for metalanguage development?

1. Talking about language can make understanding easier.
2. The writer and reader create a language in a language.
3. Students learn from the other students' writings and create a language they all understand.
4. I agree that peer reviews generate 'language about language', meaning that the reader and the writer both learn how to effectively communicate their thoughts, feelings, and findings.
5. By concentrating on the strengths and weaknesses of papers, we better understand and grasp writing. At the same time we develop vocabulary words for writing.
6. Peer reviews help us talk about the way the author talked. It's like doing little rhetorical analyses.

As we can see, some students discussed metalanguage development, while others commented on the development of the appropriate and effective language for writing.

Developing Confidence

According to Gillam (1990), peer reviews help the students "develop confidence in their ability to learn from one another and for themselves" (Gillam, 1990, p.99). I believe that "responding to their classmates writing is not just a way to fill a class period; rather reading can help develop students' critical awareness of nonfiction prose" (Marting, 1991, p.130). I also believe in the importance and value of peer reviews for both the reader and the writer. Even if the students find it hard to make useful comments on each other's papers, especially in the beginning of the semester, it is still a good exercise for development of their own critical reading skills. It also helps the students understand their own writing.

Once again, the reading-writing connection cannot be overemphasized -- and the best way to reinforce is not only asking the students to read and respond to their classmates' work, but evaluate their own performance as critical readers. "How would you describe yourself as a critiquer of your classmates' paper? What do you do well and not so well?" (Marting, 1991, p.129) -- this is one of the questions included in a peer review in the composition class taught by the author of the article. I believe that it is very important to ask the students to reflect on their skills not only as writers but as reviewers, as it makes the students believe that their comments count and, in turn, make them become better readers and better writers.

"How would you describe yourself as a critiquer of your classmates' paper? What do you do well and not so well?" (Marting, 1991, p.129) -- this question makes the students believe that their comments count, as it "addresses the importance of being a participant in the composition classroom by looking at one's contributions in peer groups" (Marting, 1991, p.130). Below are some of the answers my students gave when addressing this question:

1. I am good at helping develop ideas but weak at checking spelling/grammar.

2. I tend to keep an open mind when I read other peoples' papers in order to critically review them. I feel that I am good at giving examples of suggested changes and making smooth transitions in order to make the paper more organized and flow smoothly.
3. I can be honest but sometimes don't know exactly what it is that needs improvement.
4. I don't get involved enough and usually gloss over important details while getting the bigger picture.
5. I can find spelling and grammar mistakes well, I don't look into things in depth well.
6. I look at grammar as well as arguments. I think I am good at questioning, but I am not so good at pointing them in a direction.
7. I don't give negative comments that much because people don't tend to take criticism well.

Peer critique, in pairs and in groups, is not only a widely-employed alternative to marginal commenting, but an essential counter-strategy which emphasizes "multiplicity, plurality, and independent choice" (Heller, 1989, p. 212). As students become more comfortable with the group dynamic, "they experience the revision process "less as a debilitating loss of authorial ground than as an empowering assimilation of the concurrent tensions which define centrality precisely by challenging it" (Heller, 1989, p. 212).

Students' comments:

1. Critiquing makes us look at our peers as colleagues instead of just friends.
2. If you see what someone else is doing, you can get a better feel of how to tackle the assignment. Also, if they point out what worked and didn't work, the writer knows which direction to go and gains confidence.
3. It offers a non-discouraging way to help revise papers.
4. A student may consider a peer as a better source of information because of the like of interests between peers.
5. When you feel more comfortable looking over other's work, you know what you are looking for and because of this you know what you must include in your own essay.
6. The students benefit both as a writer and a reader.

Conclusion

In planning composition instruction, the teachers need to be aware of the long term goal of teaching reading and writing as modes of learning aimed at the acquisition of content, discourse knowledge, and academic literacy practices. To reach this goal, composition (and language) instruction must offer the students a multitude of opportunities that can help them understand the different forms and functions of reading in the learning context. The role of college composition (and language) teachers then is to "facilitate and formulate dialogs with and among students about reading and writing as modes of learning in college" (Quinn, 1995, p. 310) that can help the students develop their critical thinking skills, as well as writing and reading abilities.

When asked to express her opinion about her peer reviews, one of my 107 students commented: "They are helpful, because we are in the same class learning and sharing and by working and doing together we become stronger helping each other". I believe that this statement summarizes the general effectiveness of peer reviews, and their role in helping the students develop as independent thinkers, critical readers and thoughtful writers.

The purpose of this study was to provide a brief analysis of students' opinions about the effectiveness of peer reviews and to show the close connection that exists

between reading and writing. I believe that by studying the reading-writing connection we will learn to appreciate how reading and writing work together as "tools for information storage and retrieval, discovery and logical thought, communication, and self-indulgence" (Tierney and Leys, 1986, p.26). This paper is my own first step towards practical understanding and implementation of the reading and writing connection through peer reviews in a freshman composition class.

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Crossing Cultural and Spatial Boundaries: A Cybercomposition Experience

Julia Gousseva
University of Arizona, Tucson, USA

Introduction

"Real diversity emerges from the students themselves and flourishes in a collaborative classroom in which they work together to develop their ideas and test them out on each other" (Hairston, 1992, p. 191)

The above quote from Maxine Hairston's article *Diversity, Ideology and Teaching Writing* describes her view of a truly diverse and multicultural freshman composition classroom. This is the kind of classroom environment my students and I are striving to create. As a student who was educated in a teacher-centered and highly regulated environment, I did not have an opportunity to experience such collaboration in an academic setting till I started doing my graduate work in 1994. It was then that I took a class on the social impact of information technology offered by the MIS department and had an experience that made me question my own views, as a student and as a teacher. Among the various projects and papers we were required to write, prepare and present in the class, the one that intrigued me most was a project involving long-distance team work. The essence of the project was to join a group of two people situated in two other universities -- in Boston and in Florida, as far as you get possibly get from Tucson -- and spend three weeks writing a paper together that was later to be presented at a three-way video conference. It was the first time that I had to meet, choose and collaborate with people over e-mail; people whom I did not get a chance to see or even to talk to until the time of the final presentation (and then, only on the TV screen). Nevertheless, we managed to coordinate our research, writing, revising and editing efforts, and even divide the presentation between ourselves -- all over e-mail. I think that it was then, during the three weeks of the "distance-teaming project", as our professor referred to it, that I got my first sense of the power of the Internet and all the unlimited (and still unexplored) possibilities it can offer.

The aim of the proposed study is to look at the possibilities offered by the Internet in terms of transforming traditional teacher/student roles and authority structure in a college composition classroom, as well as illustrating some possibilities of collaboration between students from different cultures. Last semester, I had a unique opportunity to help my students to establish such collaboration through a listserv project that united 50 students: 25 American students and 25 international students coming from places such diverse as China, Norway, Sweden, Singapore, Hong Kong, France, and Turkey.

My teaching goals

One of the first issues I always discuss with the students at the beginning of a new semester is that of the importance of development and use of their own voices in their compositions. I believe that the most effective writing occurs when there is a dynamic balance between thoughts and feelings, analysis and reflection, representation of facts and the author's own interpretations of the information presented. Such balance can be achieved when the writer's voice is heard clearly and saturates all levels of his/her writing. However, in some cases, the writer can choose to be intentionally anonymous and then the prose will be voiceless:

... the directions on a box of frozen vegetables, for example, are not intended to reveal anything about the writer. He is only an undifferentiated voice. He is supposed to write prose that is factual, precise, bland, controlled. Completely impersonal prose of this

variety, however, is difficult to write for any extended space because essentially it requires the writer to mask himself completely. (Irmsher, 1972, p.13)

I believe that one of my main teaching goals is to help my students "unmask" themselves as writers and thinkers, develop their own unique style of writing through finding ways to express themselves and include their voice in their writing. At the same time, I believe that writing is a mirror of mind and soul, and voice in writing can only be developed if the writer is functioning in an atmosphere of diversity and appreciation of contributions of others to classroom conversation. There are different ways to establish such atmosphere in the classroom, and listserv discussions are just one possibility.

Before analyzing the students' views on electronic communication, it is important to define the goals of the listserv project. One of my main goals for this project was to get the students exposed to other people's cultural knowledge, writing styles, viewpoints and ideas. Another goal was to make their writing more meaningful and geared towards a real audience of their peers as opposed just their teacher, as well as to shift the purpose of their writing from fulfilling the assignment to sharing views with other people. Still another goal was to provide the students with an opportunity to read more and to broaden their outlook on various issues by looking at them from multiple perspectives. My top priority in this project was not achieving grammatical correctness but sharing thoughts, ideas and perspectives. Besides, as the Internet generally is a very democratic form of communication, I was hoping that this project will teach the students to become more independent, to rely more on themselves and each other, and not look up to their teacher to make all the decisions.

Social construction of knowledge

Historical background

The idea of using peer groups as a learning tool in the classroom and, more specifically, to improve writing, is not new. Historically, writing groups have existed since a least 1728 and have proven to be an effective tool for improving essay quality and the intellectual level of the participants. Back in 1728, Benjamin Franklin became one of the initiators of mutual improvement societies -- "groups of people outside academic institutions who shared their interest in enhancing intellect but had to rely on themselves to create opportunities for fostering it" (Gere, 1978, p.32). Although the mutual improvement societies formed by men and women differed, they shared many common features, the main one being a considerable interest in writing (Gere, 1978).

The establishment of these societies in 1728 began a tradition that is still very much supported by composition researchers, teachers and theorists. Although the goals of mutual improvement societies were quite wide, ranging from developing "the intellectual sphere of young male clerks and apprentices" to liberating women "from domestic isolation" (Gere, 1978, p. 47), the main purpose remained the same -- to promote self-education of their members. Today's groups, like their predecessors, encourage and enable individuals to improve their writing and are based on the same idea of tendency toward egalitarianism of knowledge and cooperative problem solving.

Academically, peer groups were used at least as early as 1895, when the Knights of English Learning, a society that emphasized the discussion of students' work, was formed at the University of Minnesota (Maclean, 1895, 157-58). "During the same period, students at the University of Illinois were allowed to submit in their required rhetoric and theme-writing classes compositions produced for 'the various college societies' (Dodge, 1895, 73), and this extracurricular writing was taken as seriously as any produced in a class. The approach used in literary societies and writers' clubs was later adapted to and incorporated into the classroom environment. In 1870, over a century ago, "teachers struggling with large student loads turned to writing groups lighten the burden" (Gere, 1978, pp.14-18). However, at that time writing groups were mostly used in creative writing

classrooms, and closely followed the system adopted by literary clubs and societies. Today the situation has changed, as the issue of peer groups in any composition class is receiving more and more attention.

Writing as a social act

Although writing is often portrayed as a solitary activity carried out by a hermit away from the eyes of others, from the distractions of every day world in a remote and an isolated place, such depiction only shows us half the picture. While it is important to spend time alone while writing, it is at least equally important to interact with others on different stages in the writing process. In other words, I believe in the social definition of writing. A detailed explanation of this term would require examination of sociological, political, philosophical, scientific, literary, rhetorical, linguistic, and psychological theory that lies beyond the scope of this paper. Instead, I will give a brief explanation of the social nature of writing in connection with theories of collaborative learning and language development.

I believe that writing fits in the sphere of collaborative learning well because writing involves a dialogue between writer and context during which the audience is defined and the purpose is established. The act of writing can be successful only when it complies with the conventions of discourse accepted by a given community. To learn about these conventions and the acceptable discourse, writers need to use it in the kinds of conversations that occur in collaborative learning. Writing groups help the writers view their writing from the perspective of the audience, as, to an extent, collaborative writing blurs the distinctions between the writer and the audience and force the writer to think more consciously about his/her purpose and context.

The social nature of writing and the social genesis of language have been argued for by such theorist of language development as Lev Vygotsky. For Vygotsky the source of language lies outside the individual, and instead of being a transition from asocial to social language, egocentric or inner speech is a continuation of socially and environmentally oriented language development. "Development in thinking is not from the individual to the socialized, but from the social to the individual" (Vygotsky, 1962, p. 20). In Vygotsky's view, language follows a similar pattern of development; its origins are social, and "internalization depends upon the interaction of small groups of individuals engaged in concrete social interaction explainable in terms of small group dynamics and communicative practices" (Gere, 1978, p.83).

The perception that inner speech constitutes one of the stages of language development has been explained in a fundamentally different way by another prominent language researcher Jean Piaget that led to a view of the writing process as a highly individual activity. He states that language begins within the individual and must ultimately stay there. For Piaget writing is a highly individual activity, the aim of which is to become less dependent upon others. Piaget views socialization only as a component necessary for the development of the egocentric speech. Piaget's theory emerges from Cartesian epistemology, as demonstrated by its separation of individual and society, its description of development as hierarchical progression, its focus on the nature of individual thought, and its characterization of knowledge as a fixed entity. The whole tradition of cognitive psychology based on Piaget's work is Cartesian in its description of individual's ways of knowing (Gere, 1978).

Even though the theories proposed by Piaget and Vygotsky view language development in general and the development of writing more specifically in very different ways, their views can be seen as complementary rather than contradictory, as they emphasize the two different aspects of writing -- the individual and the social. These two aspects are equally important in writing and have to be incorporated in any writing process in order for it to be successful.

Writing groups and peer reviews in the modern composition classroom

A more recent return of peer groups in the composition classroom was initiated by work of such teachers and researchers as Peter Elbow, Ken Macrorie, and Donald Murray who pointed out the effectiveness of student interaction for improving the quality of writing and developing the students' skills as critical readers and independent thinkers. Peer group work and peer reviews in a writing class are helpful both to the reader and the writer, as they help foster critical reading skills that are not generally used by freshman students when reading professionally written texts (as they take their quality for granted). Gillam (1978) states that there are three main benefits of peer reviews: (1) they promote a "thoughtful" reading, one in which the reader reads like 'a writer composing a text' (Gillam, 1990, p.99); (2) they help the students generate "language about language, creating a vernacular to be internalized for the members' future use" (Gillam, 1990, p.99); and (3) they help the students to develop confidence in their capacity to learn from one another and for themselves.

The reading-writing connection cannot be overemphasized -- and the best way to reinforce is not only asking the students to read and respond to their classmates' work, but evaluate their own performance as critical readers. "How would you describe yourself as a critiquer of your classmates' paper? What do you do well and not so well?" (Marting, 1991, p.129) -- this is one of the questions included in a peer review in the composition class taught by the author of the article. I believe that it is very important to ask the students to reflect on their skills not only as writers but as reviewers, as it makes the students believe that their comments are valuable and, helps them become better readers and better writers.

Electronic interaction as a new dimension of peer group work

The idea of sharing messages and exchanges viewpoints via a public forum has been around since the times of ancient Greece, where citizens used to gather in specially allocated places for such public debates. In modern society, meetings at such public places have become less of a viable option, and, as a partial substitute, computer-mediated forums have emerged. Chat rooms, moos, listservs, electronic conferences and various distribution lists (see end notes for definitions) are a few of examples of such electronic gathering places set up for various purposes: from recreation to information exchange, and from cooperation in scientific research to business decision making. Despite the different goals and purposes behind these groups, there is one important commonality -- egalitarian sharing of ideas and viewpoints, hearing other people's voices and positioning yourself among the multitude of personalities and opinions in the ongoing discussion.

In the classroom context, computer networks provide a new dimension to peer group work and class interaction, they open new possibilities and create new problems. It is important for classroom teachers to decide how information technology can be integrated in a composition classroom. Are computers just reinforce traditional notions of education (teachers talk, students listen) or can they be used to enhance and change classroom environment and interaction? One view is that computers promote social construction of knowledge, as a lot of peer teaching goes on, students spend a lot of time writing, class becomes more student-centered than teacher-centered, opportunities for collaboration increase, etc. (Hawisher and Selfe, 1991, p.59).

The study of a computer-mediated communication experience of "basic writers" at the University of Illinois conducted by Colomb and Simutis (1996) indicates that in the course of the project the students experienced a sense of learning, reading and writing as "growing out of their collective activity" (Colomb and Simutis, 1996, p. 205). Therefore, the students "became a community of inquiry which they recognized as having a substantial, though peripheral, relation to a larger community of learners (Colomb and Simutis, 1996, p. 205). I believe that this result points to one of the most important aspects of classroom

computer-mediated communication projects, as such interaction allows the students to become less dependent on the teacher and develop a sense of self-esteem as writers and readers. One of my own students commented that posting journals to his electronic small group (as opposed handing it to the teacher) increased his motivation to write and increased his interest in reading other people's thoughts on the same issue.

Computer-mediated communication is a powerful tool, and, as teachers, we need to be aware that electronic conferences change the power balance in the classroom and may provide more opportunities for power play in the classroom that may contradict our notions of good teaching. In her study report, Murphy (1997) states that the students have to be more active participants in the (virtual) classroom discussion and "may not remain an anonymous member of the class often mistakenly thought to be engaged in learning simply by physical presence" (Murphy, 1997, 244). However, what is the nature of students' participation in a listserv monitored/read by the teacher? Are the students writing in open and sincere way if they know that the teacher is one of the recipients of the messages? We need to be aware that instructors who are a part of electronic conference have power that "exceeds our expectations or those of students" (Hawisher and Selfe, 1991, p.63), and students tend to self-discipline themselves in accordance with what they believe the teacher's expectations are. How can we create a comfortable electronic environment for interaction?

We need to consider our role as teachers and as researchers in these computer spaces, as well as of the overall effects of the introduction of technology into the classroom that stretch far beyond the electronic domain. We need to think carefully about our goals in setting up these electronic conferences and decide on the most productive uses of this technology to further our goals for the class. Hawisher and Pemberton (1991) believe that "the role of the teacher-researcher is particularly valuable in computer/writing research" (Hawisher & Pemberton, 1991, p.79), as we are connected to our classroom and the students in ways that outside researchers and observers are not. This connection enables us to be better observers and more effective researchers.

Research questions

General research questions: What are the students' attitudes about electronic interaction?

Specific research questions: What are the students' attitudes related to posting journals to their electronic small groups?

The study, setting and participants

This study's objectives -- to observe electronic interaction between the members of the classroom community and to consider such interaction from multiple perspectives -- suggested an ethnographic approach. Data consisted primarily of participants' own words (in a brief survey and follow-up interviews with selected group members), as well as of classroom and listserv observations (used mostly to establish, observe and describe the broader context of interaction). "Informed consent" was achieved through explanation and the consent form.

In the beginning of the semester, I asked the students in both classes to set up an e-mail account and subscribe to our listserv. After exchanging initial introductions and locating students with (preferably) similar topics, the students formed groups of 6-7 people, about 3 from each of the classes. After that, the actual project started that involved exchanging journals in small groups. As I received the messages, I sorted them by groups and saved them in electronic folders. Group formation and group interaction in this project is interesting, as each group has members from both classes, which means that each member interacts with half the group both in class and over e-mail and through e-mail only with the other half. Besides, half the group are US students, and half are international students.

Researcher role

In this study, the role of the researcher was that of a participant observer and, even more importantly, that of a classroom teacher. While there may be certain confounding variables related to such dual role of teacher and researcher (such as the issue of students' openness and willingness to give honest answers), I believe that the advantages outweigh the possible drawbacks. Teachers (as opposed to outside researchers) are able to "observe activities in the classroom on the regular basis" (Hawisher and Pemberton, 1991, p. 79) and gain insights that outsiders do not have. As teachers conducting research, we are able to notice subtle changes in the classroom dynamics and "discover the reasons why these changes occur" (Hawisher and Pemberton, 1991, p. 79). Classroom teachers have the unique opportunities for close observations, detailed case studies, and longitudinal research that can ultimately lead to better teaching and learning.

Data collection and analysis

The first set of data for this study was collected from 47 students of the two freshman composition classes I am teaching (101 and 107) through an informal writing assignment conducted early in the listserv project. I chose an open-ended question format over a structured survey to give the students more flexibility in their answers and to provide an opportunity to express their own ideas, and to avoid imposing any preconceived notions of listserv interaction that I might have had. My main purpose in conducting the initial survey was to find out the students' initial reactions and impressions of e-mail interaction. At the beginning of one of our class periods, I asked the students to free-write for about 15 minutes about their experiences with the listserv and electronic small groups. I believe that the results of the survey can be used to address the general research question: What are the students' attitudes about electronic interaction?

In the beginning of the project, all interaction was conducted over the general listserv. At that point, the interaction mainly consisted of participant introductions and discussions related to forming electronic small groups. I printed out all messages and kept them in the "general listserv" file for further analysis.

Later in the semester, the students formed electronic small groups, and most interaction was transferred from the general listserv forum including all students to small groups of 6-7 people. The content of small group messages differed greatly from initial listserv interaction, and was mostly restricted to comments on readings and essay topics. To facilitate the process of data analysis, I created seven additional files, one for each electronic group. Since the amount of messages was over a 100 per week, I kept most messages in electronic files, and printed out only files from the three focus groups selected later in the semester.

After collecting interaction data from the listserv and (electronic) small groups (see Appendix I), I conducted interviews (see Appendix II) with participants of the three (out of seven) focus groups. I chose the groups that were especially effective (i.e. mainly because they were formed early in the semester, were relatively independent from the teacher and posted messages on time), believing that these best-case scenarios would provide the clearest lens for observing the patterns of interaction and exploring the optimal possibilities for the use of a listserv in a composition class. These interviews were conducted at the point in the semester when most e-mail assignments were completed. I waited for quite a while before I conducted these interviews, as I wanted my students to get as much experience as possible with the listserv project and be in a position to provide intelligent reflection on the experience. I felt that the three groups were equally effective in their listserv interaction and equally interested in the project. I chose one group to use in this research report, to avoid repetition.

Initial survey results

One of the main goals of the listserv project was to provide an opportunity for the students to expand the discussion beyond one classroom and to extend the learning community to both classes. Another goal was to make the assignments more meaningful by creating a real audience of peers for the students as opposed to restricting the audience to the teacher. I believe that electronic discussions help the students learn to rely on each other more, and not depend solely on the teacher for answers and comments. The listserv also provided the students with an additional opportunity to share viewpoints and to learn more about each other's writing styles. The following comment from a 101 student provides a broad perspective on the use of the listserv in a composition classroom:

Working on the listserv has been very helpful because you are able to see different viewpoints and concerns of others as well as provide your own insights. This project has broadened my viewpoints and has allowed me to think more critically about myself and others. The other people in my group have also been actively participating... Using the listserv is fun and exciting. I enjoy reading other people's messages. It definitely helps me to learn a lot more about the issue since all of our ideas are collaborated. I have learned to critically evaluate the opinions and viewpoints of others; and that it's easier for me to communicate when the audience is more similar in age. My writing tends to be more expressive (101).

During the initial survey, a number of important issues related to the use of electronic discussions came to the fore. One of the points that a number of students both from 101 and 107 commented on was the feeling of anonymity arising from Internet communication. Some found it to be a positive factor that aided in communication:

I've learned that once we take away our colors, accents, and anything else that would separate us in a physical world everyone is really similar (101).

It is fun using the listserv and sharing ideas with people, making friends. One of the important things when you are talking to someone is to think what you are expressing is making him/her feeling uncomfortable or you are feeling uncomfortable when expressing your ideas. But when you are talking to people in e-mail groups, you don't know all the people you are sharing ideas with. So, *you can express your opinions independently and more comfortably (107).*

Others viewed the same feature of electronic interaction differently, and commented on a certain feeling of discomfort stemming from communication with unfamiliar people:

...the feeling that the people on the other end aren't really substantial -- for the most part I have never actually talked face-to-face with any of the members. Because of this it makes it hard to actually think that they are real in a way. (101).

Internet makes people isolated. Every time you send e-mail, you just face a computer instead of a real person, this may make people feel isolated -- talking to a computer (107).

On a more optimistic note, a number of students commented on the positive role of the listserv for getting to know each other's views, thoughts and writing styles.

It has helped to link people from my classes together, and *allows us to exchange thoughts while we get to know one another better (101).*

I learned more about my classmates than I would have without the listserv (101).

I found that it is very effective forming an e-mail group. A lot of students who are shy and quiet can express themselves through the e-mail much better and easier. *We are able to make friends and get to know our group members easier and faster. This helps us, the foreign students, who just started studying here, break the ice and learn how to socialize (107).*

Electronic interaction was viewed by a number of students as an additional opportunity to express their views for students who may not be very outspoken in the classroom :

I have learned that *some of my classmates open up more over the listserv* (101).

I've learned that communicating with an unknown person is fairly easy once one makes the initial contact and that communicating with a group of people is fun (101).

A number of 107 students commented on the importance of electronic interaction as an opportunity to do more reading and writing:

... this can really *increase our frequency of reading*. Besides, many people like to receive e-mail, so they will read the essays and messages happily... (107).

I find it rewarding to read the journals of the American students. It not only gives me their point of view as Americans, it also gives me an idea of their writing style and grammar (107).

I think that this kind of communication is amazing because I can talk with somebody else about the English class, the essays, etc. *These experiences have changed my way to write my essays*. Now I know the opinions of people writing the same assignments, so this clarifies many things in my mind. This helps me to write a little bit better (107).

To summarize, I believe that the students' attitudes to electronic interaction are generally positive, as it allowed them to see viewpoints of their peers, gave them a chance to read more, to learn more about other students (including the ones they haven't met) and feel more comfortable exchanging opinions both on the listserv and in class. On the other hand, a number of students expressed a certain level of anxiety, mostly related to the novelty of the electronic interaction experience, especially while exchanging messages with the students from the other class without knowing them outside of cyberspace. From these responses, it seems that the 101 students stressed the importance of the listserv mainly as a means to increase interaction and to share ideas with each other, while 107 students focused more on the role of the listserv as an additional tool to practice English, both through reading and through writing. This difference in the views of the two groups of students is not surprising, but rather expected, considering that 101 students are native speakers of English, and 107 are not.

Electronic interviews with select group members

Participant descriptions

In order to better understand the students' responses, it is important to create a mental picture of the participants. To keep their portraits as authentic as possible to the electronic interaction situation, I did not provide physical descriptions from an outsider's (my) perspective, as this is something that does not happen in electronic interaction. Instead, I asked my students to describe what they would like to share with their cyber colleagues, and the following are their responses.

K.R. (female, 101): I am an average girl who lived in many states in my 18 years of life. I was born in Southern California and I lived there for 9 years, I also lived in Hawaii for 4 years and my mother, stepfather, and little brother still live there, I also lived in Florida for 4 years and I have an ex-stepmother (my father died) and half brother that still live there, and I also lived in Flagstaff, Arizona for a year and a half before moving to Tucson in August. In Flagstaff I lived with an aunt and I loved it. I have had a string of bad luck in my life and I have experienced a lot of things that most 18 year olds would not ever expect to encounter. *As for what I look like... I don't find that to be important*. I am a strong and very independent individual. I live my own life and I am set on what I want in life.

S.S. (female, 101): *I would describe myself as a lover of the fine arts. I love going to museums and looking at classical artwork and architecture*. Of course, this is because I'm an art history major. I love watching people interact, which is why I like doing some black and white photography in my free time. I like seeing the human race in its most precious moments. Also, I love Arizona more than any place I've lived in, and that is a lot of places. I need to be where the weather is warm and the people are relaxed. My favorite singer is

Tori Amos. I think her music is so beautiful. It's like a mixture of classical and modern music. I have a mom, dad, younger sister, and younger brother. They all live in Princeton, New Jersey, right now. I'm a pretty independent person anyway. I want people to know I am nice, and only want to please. I hate creating any conflict, which is why I mostly stay quiet in large groups. I like smiling and brightening someone's day with it.

N.R. (male, 107): *I am from Sweden*, and I am here for one year as an exchange student. I study business here to broaden my law degree. I am 23 years old, and I am a male. I like to travel, scuba dive and visit auctions.

M.B. (female, 107): *M, Swedish, 26 years old, blond* (not everyone in Sweden is blond), interested in traveling, sailing, skiing, going to country auctions. I have studied for 3 years at the university and plan to graduate in 2 years. I will then be able to teach in government and policies and business in a Swedish high school level, ages 16-19. *When I meet with my friends on weekends (in Sweden) we usually get together and eat good homemade food, drink tasteful wine and talk until the morning hours. I also like a good movie (anything but really violent films).*

J.W. (male, 101): *Describe myself? Hmm... Tall, dark, and handsome. Just kidding. I would like people to know that I am from Phoenix, I love English and writing, I'm far from tall, I've dark hair and eyes. Beyond that, I hope they get the impression that I am friendly and hard-working, and have a good sense of humor... I guess I left out the fact that I was gay, even though that was clear from my first message on the listserv. While I have no problem with people knowing, and I am comfortable with who I am, I don't want people to judge me on that fact alone without seeing the bigger picture.*

As I was reading these descriptions, I was surprised as to how much I learned about my students. I realized that despite my conscious efforts to get to know my students over the course of the semester, a significant part of their personalities remains unknown to me. These introductions made me aware of the extent to which a specific context of interaction (in this case, the classroom context, and teacher-student relationship) limits our view of each other. The picture I create of each student is usually based on their opinions of issues we discuss, their choice of essay topics, their general class participation and classroom persona and, to some extent, their physical appearance. As opposed to such image created by an outsider based on limited and sometimes superficial features, electronic introductions allow the students to present themselves in a way *they* would like others to see them. The students' "electronic" portraits seem to be more authentic, as they can emphasize the most important aspects of their life and personality that are not necessarily obvious to a casual observer.

What are the students' attitudes related to posting journals to their electronic small groups?

A number of students (especially those who, by their own admission, are novices at using computers) commented that this project was useful to them in terms of learning to use e-mail, practice uploading and downloading files and learn about possible problems and pitfalls that can occur when using technology. However, from my perspective, learning to use computers was a secondary purpose (or, rather, a prerequisite) of this project, therefore, I will not focus my analysis on students' responses related to their use of computers.

The most frequent comment regarding the use of electronic small groups for posting journal assignments was related to the change of audience from one teacher to a group of peers that made the assignments more meaningful:

K.R. (female, 101): The difference about posting journals to an email group even though they do also go to the teacher is that I think *students are more open about things. It is like they are just talking with other students around their own age so it's easier.* So in that sense I think it may change our writing style.

M.B. (female, 107): My experience with the listserv project is that it has been functioning very good. It has been very *interesting to read the American students points of view in many of the quite controversial topics we have dealt with and also the other international students views.*

I think the idea about posting the journals on e-mail is a very good idea because the topics we have dealt with in class are very interesting and the *reason for writing these journals is not only to show you the teacher that we can write but also to share our opinions and learn about other students' ideas.* This makes you reflect over your own ideas and also to maybe reconsider your opinion and make it even more persuading.

S.S. (female, 101): My general impression of the listserv project is that it might be useful in some ways. *It was interesting to read other people's journals and essays, to see how they think. It always opens the mind to read other people's opinions.* The only bad part was trying to set the thing up. Having little computer experience, it was hard for me to figure things out even though now I see it is kind of easy. And heck, it saves paper!

J.W. (male, 101): Overall, I thought it was a pretty neat project. *It was cool to get to know one another (especially those in 107) even though our interaction was not face to face.*

There is a big difference between posting our journals to the listserv as opposed to handing them in during class. For one, we had the opportunity to read each others responses to the questions that were asked. *This allowed us to "hear" each others thoughts on the issue as well as see other people's writing style.*

A number of students commented on the effects of the seeming anonymity of electronic communication on their interaction styles. Some, such as K.R., found it easy to communicate with unfamiliar students, while others, such as S.S., felt intimidated about sharing their views with a group of people:

K.R. (female, 101): I think the listserv is a very good idea. It gives you a chance to communicate with people that you normally wouldn't communicate with. *You can be open about things and not really worry about what these people think of you because they don't really know you at all.*

S.S. (female, 101): Having to put journals on the group made me keep my true feelings a bit more quiet. *Knowing many people would read it, instead of just a teacher, I was reluctant to express my stronger opinions in fear of being ridiculed.* Of course that was probably just me. Everyone else was fine with it most likely.

Quite a few students noted the difference between conventional written journals and e-mail journals, stating that e-mail assignments are a different genre of composition: very informal, closer to spoken than to written speech:

N.R. (male, 107): I work more with journals I have to turn in, but I guess I only have to be used to hand in things over the net. I believe I have one language when I am using the net, more like if I was speaking not writing. My motivation is perhaps less when I do assignment over e-mail. One explanation could be that I think that you read e-mail as I do (which I really don't but I think you get my point). I do not spend much time reading something posted to my e-mail, I read it and that's it. So my "feeling" is that the receiver doesn't read the message as if he would have it on paper.

Conclusion

Computer networks add to the controversy of peer group work, as issues of gender, group formation, personality factors, leadership acquire a new dimension over e-mail due to reduced social cues, such as "age, gender, race, ethnicity, status and mood" (Eldred and Hawisher, 1995, p. 335) , and a different context for interaction that can change the overall dynamics of classroom interaction. According to Colomb and Simutis, "the case for computer-mediated communication (CMC) in writing instruction has to be based not on visionary claims about CMC as an all-purpose tool for automatic teaching

but on specific accounts of how and why the technology has helped teachers and students to achieve specific goals" (Colomb and Simutis, 1996, 203).

This study is my first step towards my own understanding of the potential and place of computer-mediated communication in a composition classroom. I believe that, even though my paper does not answer a lot of important questions about electronic interaction in a classroom, the results of this pilot study are useful for evaluating the role of computer-mediated communication in the composition process and for asking more questions about electronic interaction. Some questions for future research may include the following: Can traditional theories of group interaction be applied to electronic groups and, if so, to what extent? Is the electronic discourse environment different in terms of authority structures from the classroom environment and, if so, in what ways?

Notes

Chat room -- a virtual room where a chat session takes place. Technically, a chat room is really a channel, but the term "room" is used to promote the chat metaphor.

Chat -- real-time communication between two users via computer. Once a chat has been initiated, either user can enter text by typing on the keyboard and the entered text will appear on the other user's monitor. Most networks and online services offer a chat feature, but it is not widely used because it is easier to communicate by telephone, and messages that aren't urgent can be sent by e-mail.

Listserv (similar to distribution list) -- a type of electronic conference in which e-mail messages from individual members of the group are forwarded to all other members simultaneously.

MUDs -- Multi-User Dungeon or Multi-User Dimension, "an immersion of oneself into an addictive world of magic, monsters, and whatever else one's imagination can create" (Dali Mack's MUD Page).

MOOs -- Mud Object Oriented

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Writing Scientific Project Applications for Peer Review

Catherine Histon
University of Insubria, Varese, Italy

Increasing difficulty in obtaining funding for scientific research projects has created high standards in project application criteria. Both national and international funding agencies usually require these applications in English for peer review. Content-based instruction focused on this aspect of technical writing should be highlighted within advanced EAP/ESP courses for non-native speaker scientists. Some examples of the problems non-native speaker scientists encounter in dealing with a typical set of application instructions will be considered.

Introduction

The ever increasing difficulty in obtaining funding for scientific research projects and the decrease in funding sources has led to particularly high standards in project application criteria world-wide. This recent development applies to both national and international funding organisations as project applications are sent for peer review both within a national network and to at least one international referee. Project applications are therefore required in English or partly in English and the LI. A detailed summary and project objectives are normally requested in both languages. Hence, not only is a high standard of science required when making an application but also a high level of written English.

Funding Agencies

As government funding to science in general has suffered drastic cutbacks on a global scale both National and International funding agencies have become more stringent in their selection procedures. As competition for the limited funds available increases annually it is no longer enough to have a scientifically sound and innovative project proposal which clearly merits financial support, one must also present the research in English for peer review. One of the numerous selection criteria that many projects fail is the quality of the English version of the application. Some do not even get to the review stage as the English is deemed to be of too low a standard. Many non-native speaker scientists applying for funds in order to carry on with their research do not have the financial resources to pay for a technical translation and in this way the investment of not only money but also of scientific expertise in science is constantly being undermined.

Application Criteria

Funding agencies provide detailed sets of instructions on what to include in a project proposal and how to complete the application forms. Sometimes these instructions are so detailed that the applicant has trouble in deciphering them unless they are also provided in the LI. This unfortunately is another obstacle to be overcome and another way of eliminating excess applications if they do not conform to standard. On being approved for funding the abstract or summary of the project is often available on-line through the funding agencies web-site therefore prospective applicants can see what is required and the standard to be achieved. The summary is an important part of the application and must be written clearly and concisely therefore it is extremely useful to be able to compare various examples and identify the style used for a specific discipline. However, complete project applications or a sample application as a guideline for applicants are rarely made available. It is extremely difficult to write a proposal in English using specific argumentative language without knowing the style and conventions adopted by the funding agency. Unfortunately this may be yet another means of cutting

down the number of projects which could eventually reach the review stage as the approach used may be negatively evaluated.

Review System

Peer review is often by non-native speaker scientists not familiar with the LI of the project applicant consequently influences from the LI of both the applicant and the reviewer give rise to lack of clarity and comprehension both of which have a negative effect on the applications success in being financed. There is more bias involved here than in reviewing scientific articles as competition for funding is involved, some agencies try to reduce this risk by requesting a list of potential reviewers from the applicant. Writing conventions and styles even within the same field of research differ from nation to nation and this aspect must be considered by reviewers. Projects submitted for review can rarely remain anonymous as within specific disciplinary sectors it will be obvious to a reviewer who the applicants are or to which research group they belong just from reading the proposal. The address of the applicant, even if a native speaker, may also lead to the incorrect assumption that the English is inadequate by a non-native speaker reviewer. The detailed application and especially the summary must be concise and clear, no "packing" should be included in order to bulk out the proposal as the reviewer will just pass over it and the result will be to create a negative impression. It should be remembered that reviewing is usually not paid and does not appear in a scientific CV so there is absolutely no advantage for the reviewer himself in this activity. It requires a lot of precious time which could be spent in other ways. However, most reviewers realise that they themselves will also be a project applicant at some stage in the future and at the mercy of a reviewer and consequently most are conscientious and fair minded.

ESP/EAP Courses

It is time that these needs were taken into consideration when preparing ESP/EAP advanced writing courses for scientists. The communicative learning approach is more suitable sometimes for oral not written communication as not enough emphasis is placed on "register analysis and textual consistency" (Sionis, 1995). As the content not the form is usually of more importance to the learner in science, this attitude needs to be modified for dealing with certain types of written discourse. Lack of language for argumentation leads to inconsistent reasoning in text and badly expressed arguments by non-native speaker scientists lead to rejected research proposals.

Much emphasis is placed on content-based instruction for writing scientific articles but in order to reach the stage of presenting research the funding for the project must be first secured. Nowadays scientists are often employed on the basis of their ability to obtain independent funds for their research in order to 1) not be an extra burden on the university's budget and 2) to increase the prestige of their department by succeeding in obtaining large grants which allow them not only to carry out basic research but also to buy valuable equipment which then remains available for common use after the project has been completed. It is therefore of increasing importance for non-native speaker scientists to develop their skills in this direction. The non-native speaker scientist must be trained to identify the specific language requirements of his profession, the style used by particular funding agencies and to anticipate the reaction of a reviewer before attempting to write a proposal.

Application Strategies

A typical list of criteria to be covered in a scientific proposal is given below together with specific points normally included under each section. Some examples of commonly used lexical chunks (Schmitt, 2000: Knoy, 2000) for scientific arguments appropriate to these topics have been chosen which may be of use for scientific writing tasks. These have been taken from a proposal submitted to the Austrian Science Foundation (FWF) in 2001 which was granted the full financial support requested. In

general written research proposals are usually limited to 15 pages or less (1.5 spacing at 12 pt.) therefore the additional use of illustrations, graphs etc. may help to support specific argumentative language. However, care should be taken that they are incorporated into the text by a consistent use of general language for transmitting the scientist's optimal meaning.

Abstract/Summary

Points to include: a) outline the state of the art of the discipline, b) give the general background to the problem and then c) lead into the specific problem, d) explain the aim of the project and e) give any preliminary results available which have given impetus to the present application. The summary may be recycled from the more detailed sections which follow:

1. Introduction

Points to include:

- a) statement of problem to be solved,
- b) state of the art of the science,
- c) application of this scientific method to the problem,
- d) current relevance of the results to be obtained.

2. Key Objectives of the Project

Points to include: a) repeat the problem to be solved; b) list the individual objectives emphasising the importance of the contribution to be made to the discipline both on a national and international scale if the aims are achieved; c) describe any preliminary results from previous studies which gave impetus to the project proposal.

3. Background

Points to include: previous research.

4. Methodology

Points to include: Other on-going studies which will add to the overall progress of the project, the scientific method to be applied.

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Using the Community Language Learning Approach to Cope with Language Anxiety

Naomi Koba
Naoyoshi Ogawa
Dennis Wilkinson

Siebold University of Nagasaki, Nagasaki, Japan

Many studies have been done to investigate the relationship between affective variables and second or foreign language learning. One of the affective variables, anxiety, will be focused on in this paper. To begin with, this paper will examine what anxiety is and how anxiety affects second or foreign language learning. The Community Language Learning (CLL) approach seems to be suitable to cope with language anxiety. To prove this notion, first, the CLL approach is analyzed along with learners' reflections about a demonstration. Second, interviews with college students are provided to compare the traditional classroom and the CLL approach. Finally, a study which compared the Counseling-learning approach and the Audio-Lingual Method is investigated.

Anxiety

Anxiety is defined as a state of uneasiness and apprehension or fear caused by the anticipation of something threatening. Language anxiety has been said by many researchers to influence language learning. Whereas facilitating anxiety produces positive effects on learners' performance, too much anxiety may cause a poor performance (Scovel, 1991).

Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1991) have found that anxiety typically centers on listening and speaking. Speaking in class is most frequently difficult for anxious students even though they are pretty good at responding to a drill or giving prepared speeches. Anxious students may also have difficulties in discriminating sounds and structures or in catching their meaning. Horwitz et al. (1991) also state that over-studying sometimes makes students so anxious as to cause errors in speaking or on tests. According to Krashen (1980), anxiety contributes to an affective filter, which prevents students from receiving input, and then language acquisition fails to progress (Horwitz et al., 1991).

Price (1991) investigated by asking questions about what made students most anxious in foreign language class. All of the subjects answered that having to speak a foreign language in front of other students resulted in the most anxiety. Other responses were making pronunciation errors or being laughed at by others. Price then mentions the role of the instructor. He says that those instructors who always criticize students' pronunciation might make students anxious. He suggests that they could reduce students' anxiety by encouraging them to make mistakes in the class. Price also advises that instructors should make it clear that the classroom is a place for learning and communication.

It is often the case with Japanese students that they do not speak in the class until they are called on. This is partly because Japanese students are used to not speaking their opinion in the class but keeping silent. It is assumed that Japanese learners of foreign language tend to have this anxiety about speaking in front of other learners as well as the anxiety about learning a new language, which students might have regardless of culture.

A small survey was conducted to search for any distinctive characteristics of Japanese learners. The result shows that Japanese students are likely to feel more comfortable with taking tests and studying grammar than non-Japanese students. They are also likely to be afraid of taking risks. Non-Japanese students are less anxious about

speaking and group work than Japanese. From this survey it seems true that everyone, regardless of native culture, may have some kind of anxiety about learning a foreign language.

Community Language Learning

Community Language Learning appears different from traditional language learning in many ways. One of the most significant issues is that it has many techniques to reduce anxiety. First, the form of the class, that is, the conversation circle itself, provides security. The desirable size of the conversation circle is less than ten. Second, understanding between the teacher and learners produces a sense of security, which reduces anxiety. Finally, a sense of security is woven into each activity of a typical CLL cycle.

The CLL approach for learning Japanese was demonstrated with twelve college students from different countries who had not studied Japanese before. Ten Japanese students played a counselor's role.

According to subsequent reflection over their CLL experience, most of the students felt comfortable with the conversation circle, whereas a few students mentioned that facing other students provoked anxiety. However, their anxiety decreased or disappeared as the class proceeded. The circle helps to build community. It provides a non-competitive atmosphere, a sense of involvement and a sense of equality. When students are comfortable with their peers, they take more risks.

Though the teacher is not standing in front of the students, his role is even more important in CLL. There should be mutual trust between the teacher and the students. In a non-defensive relationship learners are able to engage with and personalize the material (Rardin, Tranel, Tirone and Green, 1988). If the teacher increases learners' anxiety by, for example, always correcting learners' pronunciation in the conversation circle activity, that will bring about disaster in learning. The teacher should not control the conversation in CLL, but let students talk whatever they want to talk (Rardin et al., 1988).

Understanding is another key issue in CLL. Active and empathetic listening is essential to understanding. The teacher has to be a good listener. When a teacher is an understanding person, learners feel secure, and then can be open and non-defensive in learning. Within such a relationship, anxiety may disappear and effective learning can take place (Rardin et al., 1988). Without communication, defensive learning prevents a learner from speaking a foreign language fluently although he knows the grammars and linguistic theory (Rardin et al., 1988). This is often the case with Japanese students. Therefore, the CLL approach can be effective in foreign language classes in Japan.

Finally, typical CLL activities or items: the conversation circle, transcription, the human computer, card games and the reflection session are examined in relation to security. As was mentioned earlier, in a conversation circle, the form of the circle itself provides security. It enhances the sense of community and also facilitates conversation. Learners in the first stage have only to listen to and repeat what the counselor says. They are free from their stress about not knowing what to say in the target language. This activity allows learners to talk about whatever they want to by saying it first in their own language and then repeating after the counselor in the target language. In other words, learners create their own materials. Therefore, this activity makes learners feel not only belonging but also responsibility. Thus, anxiety is reduced and motivation to speak the target language is stimulated.

Transcripts of conversations, which are usually provided in the CLL approach, give a lot of security especially to the learners whose learning style tends to rely on written forms. However, one has to be careful so as not to depend on written forms too much, which has the danger of ruining learners' pronunciations since they are not relying on listening.

Samimy (1989) describes the "human computer" as "based on the best aspects from human and machine. . . an excellent combination of the depersonalized quality of a machine with the sensitivity of a human and a native speaker's linguistic competence." (p. 171) The human computer is controlled by the learners in practicing pronunciation. They choose whatever they want to practice: either syllable, word, phrase or sentence, and they start and stop the human computer by themselves. They can have a sense of security toward the human computer because it does not correct pronunciation errors, and thus learners need not feel humiliated.

Card games were reacted to both positively and negatively at the demonstration. Some students doubted whether games really helped them to learn a language. It seems that card games are helpful to internalize the material as well as enjoyable. When one is enjoying, he may be relaxed. This implies that games reduce learning anxiety. Moreover, if the members in the learning community get closer through games, that will bring them to a still better condition for learning.

Above all, the reflection session is essential in the CLL approach. Trust between the teacher and learners or among learners is established by sharing their feelings, anxieties, frustrations or demands. By sharing anxiety, learners may build a sense of unity to do one task together (Rardin et al., 1988).

Thus, the CLL approach can remarkably reduce the learners' anxiety. On the other hand, it could increase the teacher's anxiety. He should provide appropriate language, taking the learners' stage into account.

Comparison of a Traditional Class and CLL

In order to see if there are differences between a traditional class and CLL, three Japanese college students who experienced these two kinds of instructions were interviewed (the foreign languages that they studied are not the same).

Student A had a high motivation when she decided to take a traditional foreign language class. However, her motivation decreased and she became more anxious as the class proceeded. She was rather passive in the class without volunteering answers. She felt the linear relation between the teacher and herself and no link to other students. In the CLL experience; however, she felt no anxiety but strongly felt that she belonged to the learning community. She also felt responsibility to the community because in CLL all the members are responsible for constructing their learning. She was willing to volunteer to speak.

In the case of student B, she was disappointed with a traditional class because they only practiced grammar, and the teacher spent more time speaking than the students did. Sitting always in the front row, she did not see the faces of other students at all. She felt isolated. She did not volunteer to answer questions. On the other hand, in her CLL experience she often found herself raising her hand without any hesitation. She says that she did this because she felt comfortable with other members of the conversation community.

The comments of student C shed light on this comparison from a different angle. For her the first activity of the CLL approach, just repeating the target language in a conversation circle, provoked anxiety. She felt uneasy among other students when she could not discriminate the sounds the counselor produced and could not produce unfamiliar sounds. For adult learners in particular, written forms might provide greater security.

Taking the comments from these interviews into account, the CLL approach seems preferable to the traditional method for language learning. Subsequently, a concern will arise as to how the CLL approach can be applied in a language classroom and how effective it is. Samimy (1980) conducted an experiment with an adaptation of Counseling-learning (CL) in a Japanese university language curriculum to see its effectiveness. She

compared the CL approach with the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM). The result shows that the average score of the experimental group was slightly higher than that of the control groups. This result proves that at least the CL approach does not cause a negative effect to students' grades. Also, in this study motivation correlated positively with communicative competence. This study; however, does not prove that the CL approach modifies learners' affective variables positively. In spite of positive reactions from researchers, the application of a new approach in a traditional language class seems rather difficult. The study concludes that although traditional practice such as pattern practice is still necessary in a language class, a new approach is useful as well. In other words, "ALM and CL are not mutually exclusive." (p. 176) Even though this study compared ALM and CL, not CLL, the findings are applicable to the comparison between ALM and CLL.

Application of CLL to a Language Class

In Japan, English is a required school subject, but only grammar and translation have been focused upon at school. Therefore, many people have been complaining that in spite of studying English for six years they cannot speak it. As more and more demands to acquire communicative competence arise, educators have recently turned their attention to listening and speaking. Nevertheless, in the same traditional classroom it may be impossible for students suddenly to learn to speak and listen to English. As mentioned earlier, it is often the case that Japanese students are not used to speaking in the classroom due to anxiety. Now the CLL approach seems to work well to fill the gap. La Forge (1979) wrote an article about using CLL for oral English at junior college in Japan for four years. Despite a six-year background of English study, the students had no experience of hearing English spoken by a native speaker. Therefore, their cognitive knowledge of English was quite high, but their effective use of English was almost at just the first stage of CLL. He found that "as the students continued to struggle to make themselves understood during reflection periods over two months, the quality of the English showed a remarkable improvement." (p. 252) In CLL context, Japanese students could change their attitude in foreign language classrooms toward success in acquiring the target language. La Forge suggests that English teachers should not abandon all the traditional methods, but they should at least introduce a CLL reflection period into their classrooms.

Conclusion

This paper has explored how anxiety affects foreign language learning, and how the CLL approach copes with this anxiety. There are many differences between a traditional language class and the CLL approach. The CLL approach seems useful for listening and speaking and also useful for adult learners. It is found in this paper that the CLL approach is effective for Japanese students of English, whose anxiety is often high because English is far different from Japanese. Therefore, the CLL approach should be especially effective in cases where students' native language is a non cognate language of the target language. The CLL approach seems worth trying.

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The Australian/Japanese Homestay Program and its Positive Contribution to Cross- Cultural Understanding

Lawrence Klepinger
Sugiyama University, Nagoya, Japan

Introduction: Homestay Programs. The New Cross-Cultural Educational Phenomenon

Homestay programs are nothing new - or so history would have us believe. For centuries, wealthy families have sent their children to study in foreign countries with the hope that, by total immersion, they will better understand - and incorporate into their own system of thinking - a wider range of ideas, concepts and methods of problem solving that will help them to succeed in their chosen field of endeavor later on in life.

The idea of studying in a foreign land has always appealed to families as an invaluable tool for learning, and at the same time a tremendously cost effective method of educating their offspring. For not only does the student learn the subject that he/she is specializing in, the student also has the added advantage of absorbing another language, gaining a different cultural perspective and being exposed to a totally different set of mores that can be drawn upon throughout the course of one's career.

In essence then, the host country in which the student is studying becomes, in itself, an extended university. So the student is actually studying in two universities at the same time - for the price of one. The acknowledged university on the inside and the actual, real life situation university "school of hard knocks" on the outside. "Nothing can beat the experience of actually being in a country and experiencing its culture and way of life to motivate learners." (1.)

As Dr. Kenji Yamada, International Student Director, Sugiyama University, pointed out, "One of the most important aspects of a viable homestay program is they afford Japanese students the opportunity to live independently from their parents in a totally foreign environment." (2.)

Gerry Meister, Head, La Trobe University Language Centre, Victoria, Australia, goes on to say, "A good homestay program is an excellent opportunity for students to experience day to day life in the host country. Students get a chance to practise their English, meet new people, and have personal care and attention outside the classroom." (3.)

But yet, even with this supposed historical background of overseas pursuit of academic excellence, those of us in the academic field dealing with the physical day-to-day administration of homestay programs are constantly running into problems as to how a properly administered homestay program should be organized.

It is, therefore, apparent to anyone involved in running a homestay program which is administered on a large scale that this phenomenon is new. So new, in fact, that the 1990 Edition of The Oxford Reference Dictionary doesn't even have the word "homestay" listed. "Homestead" and "homework" yes, "homestay" no. (4.)

So, in actuality, homestay programs, and the consequent proper implementation thereof, either by educational institutions or business organizations are, in fact, the *new* cross-cultural educational phenomenon.

One Basic Organizational Problem That Plagues All Homestay Programs Dealing with Australian/Japanese Students

One of the most fundamental problems confronting both on-going and start-up homestay programs alike is the absence of any kind of strategic outline, step-by-step format or even a basic homestay manual that presents in a "hands-on fashion" how a successful homestay program should be administered.

In preparation for this paper I found bits and pieces of "philosophical" statements relating to the many obvious educational benefits, i.e., overseas travel, getting to know another culture, self-fulfillment, etc., that homestay programs can, and do, provide.

However, I found nothing that even remotely resembled a list of basic ideas that could be used in a step by step manner as a guide to establishing a well-administered, verifiable homestay program. There simply is nothing in general circulation within either the business or educational community that lends itself to helping solve this problem.

Consequently, as Sue Fujino, Director of Homestay Programs at La Trobe University Language Centre, Victoria, Australia, so aptly pointed out, "Most people are just doing their own thing. And that is where the problems originate." (5.)

It is, therefore, the thesis of this paper to show that the proper running of any homestay program is paramount to contributing to a positive cross-cultural understanding.

For if programs are shoddily run, curriculum thrown together and homestay (host) families are picked at random - or seemingly so - the outcome will result in a negative cross-cultural misunderstanding which will ultimately defeat the whole purpose for which homestay programs were originally intended in the first place.

Why Hasn't a Manual about How to Run Successful Homestay Program Ever Been Produced?

One reason is that it simply isn't an easy job to accomplish. Another is the amount of time that it would entail trying to interview people in the field, formulate procedures, make a list of "dos and don'ts," anticipate problems that might arise, and decide the criteria for selecting homestay families - let alone trying to figure out the legal implications involved in setting up such a program. Add to this the medical problems that might arise without proper medical insurance coverage or the complex aspects associated with the more litigious nature of Western cultures and one begins to see how involved an undertaking such as writing a basic homestay "manual" could become. These problems, compounded with the ever present possibility of encountering a life-threatening situation while administering a homestay program, have been enough to make most people shy away from this most formidable undertaking.

Yet, it is for this very reason - the unwillingness to accept *initial* responsibility, and the courage to lay one's reputation on the line that makes it possible for serious problems to continue to arise - sometimes in very disturbing, reoccurring fashion - in many homestay programs being implemented today.

How Can This Problem Begin to be Rectified?

What I don't intend to do is launch into yet another philosophical diatribe about the benefits associated with studying overseas. I am assuming that the readership of this paper is already sophisticated enough to operate from this basic premise.

Given the obvious fact that I am constricted in a paper this size, I nevertheless want to focus my attention on a few concrete points that I feel are constantly being overlooked in programs of this nature.

Points #1 and #2 are strictly mechanical in nature. They are simply what should be done to help make a program run better from a purely administrative standpoint.

Points #3 through #7 are where most of the inter-cultural *mis*-understandings seem to find their roots in both students *and* administrators associated with Australian/Japanese homestay programs.

And finally, point #8 is a partial list of other ideas that could be included in a general manual on homestay.

These points are:

1. Police Records Check.
2. Insurance Review.
3. Honne and Tatemai.
4. Group v. Individual.
5. Selective Historical Perspectives.
6. Patience.
7. Prejudice.
8. Partial List of Further Points to Consider.

1. Police records check

Graham Bell, Managing Director, Bellder International, located in Western Australia, told me in a conversation once that, "I never place a student in a host family until I have run a complete police check on everyone of its family members. I'd be derelict in my duty if I didn't protect my students - and myself in this manner." (6.)

Mr. Bell is absolutely right in his assumption. The need for proper police records investigation by the agency responsible for placing students in host families can't be stressed enough.

But many schools, to this day, still do not check on any homestay family's police background for fear of invading their privacy or "losing" them for use in future homestay programs.

I have often been asked, "How do you go about checking a host family's criminal record?" First and foremost, you *must* ask them if it is all right with them for you to check with the local police. Make sure you get their permission. Ideally, you can go with them to the police station, which affords the homestay administrator the opportunity of meeting with the local police and discussing their homestay program with them.

In fact, police are very good sources of ideas on safety and procedure when dealing with homestay students and their host families. I have found them to be very willing to offer suggestions about good places to visit off the "beaten track" and have even had some of them - once the program is explained to them - become host families themselves! It is also an exceptionally good way to make inroads into the community and be on the safe side at the same time.

The local police are a tremendous source of information that is rarely, if ever, pursued by the educational community. It shouldn't be that way. Of all my experiences with law officials in an administrative capacity I have found them to be very cooperative and willing to go out of their way to help. I have even had police officers invite groups of homestay students to take a tour through their police department - and via their friends and acquaintances have arranged guided tours of their local fire department. Some students commented that these excursions were some of the most informative - and exciting - of their homestay program.

Checking criminal records is becoming standard procedure at most reputable homestay institutions, but I have been surprised to find that many schools still do not implement this one basic procedure as standard policy, thus leaving themselves wide open for a lawsuit, unfavorable publicity, permanent damage to students, families and institutions alike, not to mention tremendous financial expenditures in court fees, legal costs and in final settlement agreements.

The importance of checking police records is a simple, painless way of "covering yourself." It doesn't take any stretch of the imagination to see what kind of legal entanglement that would ensue if a student was found to have been molested by her host

father - who had a previous record for sexual assault, but was never properly investigated by the placing agency.

One note of reassurance. Most people readily agree to having their police record inspected by you - and are relieved to see that you are thorough and professional enough to care about fulfilling your responsibilities in such a manner. But, on the other hand, if they refuse, don't hesitate to drop them immediately.

Any homestay manual should have a method for checking police records as standard policy procedure.

2. Insurance review

This may sound obvious but I am constantly amazed at the number of homestay directors who don't know what coverage they have or what their insurance responsibilities are.

A total review of basic fundamental insurance policies is an absolute must for any homestay program.

A. The traveling students - and accompanying teachers - must be insured for both life and bodily injury.

B. Students and teachers must also be fully covered for all medical expenses that might arise.

C. All drivers of vehicles must be properly insured against uninsured drivers, medical costs and hospitalization

D. *Pre-existing illnesses* must be addressed and clearly understood by the concerned parties. Many insurance programs protect students against injury, hospitalization or sickness but most *do not* insure against pre-existing illnesses. This must be fully spelled out - and understood by the students and parents alike - before going overseas.

E. Homestay families must have *adequate* homeowners insurance to cover accidental death or serious injury to anyone who is physically on their property. Homestay families are legally responsible for all guests on their premises.

3. Honne and Tatemai

"Honne" means to talk honestly and express your feeling without reservation.

"Tatemai" means to hide your true feeling and to say what you think people want to hear.

I must admit that in my 16 years of living and working in Japan I have never found any two people - be they Japanese or otherwise - who could agree on the definition and implementation of these two Japanese concepts. I therefore don't intend to engage in a cultural analysis of their meanings at this juncture.

What I do wish to point out is that Japanese have been trained from childhood not to express their true feelings and to "go with the flow." Consequently, Westerners tend to perceive Honne as "telling the truth" and Tatemai as simply "lying."

If Australian students are expected to cope in a positive manner when dealing with Japanese it is imperative that they, at least, try to understand this vital concept of Japanese culture.

However, it must also be pointed out that Japanese are not averse to lying. They will say things they don't mean - just like anybody else. The myth about Japanese never lying is just that - a myth.

Yet, time and again, I have seen Australian students shocked, surprised and ultimately hurt when they find out their Japanese counterparts have not been totally honest with them.

Many Australian students coming to Japan for the first time are permanently turned off by Japan when they discover how deceiving and circumspect the Japanese can be.

If, on the other hand, they are adequately prepared - and forewarned of this cultural idiosyncrasy - they will be more able to cope with it in a positive and beneficial manner.

The more level the playing field is the better chances for positive cross-cultural understanding to take place. "Honne" and "Tatemai" are two of the most essential aspects - and least understood by Westerners - of Japanese culture.

It is a wise and formidable opponent who can learn to adroitly use "Honne" and "Tatemai" to their advantage.

4. Group V individual

"Tatemai" is one of the essentials of holding the Japanese group mentality together. Japanese go to extreme lengths to engage in, what appears to be meaningless conversation - and many times it is. However, it must be remembered that the Japanese are almost pathologically concerned about what others think of them - thus their proclivity to always smile, use "Tatemai" and strive to be in constant good standing within their group. The biggest fear of any Japanese is to be ostracized from the group which is what accounts for their constant desire to be included within its confines at virtually any cost.

On the other hand, Australians - and Westerners in general - tend to be more individual in their approach to interpersonal relationships. So when Australians witness Japanese smiling to everyone and trying to be "all things to all people" they tend to be put off by what they perceive as fawning, or being a nation of professional apple polishers. "The Japanese character has thus been formed in a social environment which forced people from the time of their birth onward to maintain their own social standing and to respect their relationships with others." (7.)

The issue of group as opposed to individual should be more openly dealt with by both Japanese and Australian students to ensure a better understanding of where each other is coming from.

In all fairness it must be noted that Japanese themselves exclude *each other* from certain core groups. So when Australians are excluded from a particular Japanese group they shouldn't feel offended by it, or assume they are being singled out because of race or any other reason.

Understanding each other's cultural traits - and how to deal with them - is one of the biggest challenges to establishing a positive cross-cultural understanding.

5. Selective historical perspective

The consequences of laboring under the dilution of a selective historical perspective has not played well for Japan in the international community - especially with its Asian neighbors.

"As long as Japan refuses to come to terms with its past, the people of Asia will remain wary of Japanese motives." (8.)

As long as the Japanese Ministry of Education persists in its consorted effort to pass off selectively distorted historical views in their public schools as worldwide accepted fact, positive cross-cultural understanding will be slow in coming for Japan and its intentionally dis-informed citizenry. "In Japan history is censored to ensure children are kept in ignorance." (9.)

Although outside pressure - most notably from China - has forced Japan in recent years to be more truthful with regard to their "aggressive acts in Asia, they still leave hazy the issue of who was responsible for the war." (10.)

As an educator it is very disheartening to witness the historical inaccuracies - and consequently accepting them as fact - that the vast majority of my Japanese students hold. I was stunned to find out that, when I administered a survey questionnaire both last year and this year regarding, among other things, certain aspects of Japanese history, that the uniformity of answers was, in fact, frightening.

In the above mentioned questionnaire only 6% of the students surveyed knew that Japan had annexed Korea as a colony in 1910, only 9% were aware that Japanese had invaded Manchuria (Manchuko) in 1931, only 13% were aware of Japan's plunder of Nanking in 1937. When asked if Japan had bombed Australia during World War II a stunning 93% answered no! (11.)

The Japanese Ministry of Education has blatantly misled its citizens by intentionally lying to them in such a fashion. For this reason it is imperative that Japanese homestay students be given a more comprehensive historical perspective - especially with regard to the Asia Pacific region, with a special note on Japan's attack on Australia's Northern Territory before they come to Australia, to inform - *and prepare them* - for the inevitable social encounters that they will most assuredly come in contact with.

I have known Japanese students to be embarrassed, humiliated and ultimately reduced to tears when they find out - from foreign sources in not so gentle a manner - what kinds of atrocities Japan committed during World War Two.

For the sake of more positive cross-cultural understanding Japanese homestay students should be enlightened in a crash course with reference to Japan's *real* historical transgressions in the Asian region - before they are sent overseas.

A level playing field tilts both ways and if Japanese students are to make a positive impact on cross-cultural understanding they must be given the proper tools - in this case *comprehensive* information about their own historical past - so they can deal with confrontational situations in a logical and *informed* manner.

Since the Japanese Ministry of Education refuses to educate its own students in a truthful manner, it is up to the Japanese Homestay Director to see that this job gets done. To not address this issue of a comprehensive historical perspective with regard to Japanese students would - in simple terms - be grossly unfair.

6. Patience

For Australian students, coming to Japan for the first time, patience is not one of their virtues. Whereas Japanese students have had it drilled into them since childhood to adhere to the "group" and patiently persevere, Australian students have always been taught to speak their minds and to get things done - *now*. Since Australians, in general, like to face a problem, "sort it out" and go on from there, Japanese despise solving problems and try to ignore them in hopes that they will just disappear. "The Japanese attitude toward life, then, is characterized by inertia and by submission to authority, rather than by individual conscience or rational judgment." (12.)

Here again, we witness the clash of cultural ideas in the form of the group concept as opposed to the ideal of the individual human being.

Of the many aspects that Australian students continually complain about, the frustration of trying to generate a truly patient mind-set is one of the most difficult attributes of Japanese culture to try to absorb.

But, here again, if Australian students are encouraged to develop a keener sense of patience when dealing with the multitude of frustrations Japanese society has to offer its foreign visitors it can only help - not hurt - when dealing with stressful situations in the future.

Japanese students tend to feel a great amount of frustration when going overseas for the first time, but in my observations it has generally revolved around their language ability - or lack thereof - in trying to get their point across, whereas with the Australian homestay student problems tend to be more cultural in nature.

The main point is that both groups should be instructed to take things as they come and not to let the frustrations of culture shock get the best of them.

7. Prejudice

This is one topic that both the Australian and Japanese homestay Directors seem to shy away from and this is a mistake of monumental proportion.

Prejudice, both institutionalized - *de jure* (overt) as it is in Japan and *de facto* (covert) as it exists in Australia today must be addressed, and if done so in the right manner can be handled in a positive light. However, shunning the subject or denying that it exists altogether - as both Australia and Japan tend to do - only confuses the issue, and in essence helps to foster the concept of racial prejudice, by not allowing it to be discussed in the open marketplace of a free thinking society. The last thing racial prejudice wants is open discussion of the subject - and for that reason it must be squarely faced and dealt with in a *positive* manner.

In this sense when I say *positive* I *don't* mean that racial prejudice is good. What I mean when I say to deal with it in a positive manner is to inform the students that racial prejudice infects *all* societies and that it is something that should be systematically discussed, dissected under full public scrutiny, and completely eradicated as a method of cultural bias. Only when prejudice is acknowledged can it be dealt with and properly done away with. It is only when people deny that it exists that it is able to endure as social policy.

What makes this topic so pertinent to the discussion of homestay programs and their contribution to positive cross-cultural understanding is the fact that when both students from Australia and Japan exchange places in each other's societies they immediately become minorities - and are subject to the prejudices that accompany their minority status. And in my opinion this is the most important learning aspect and positive contribution to cross-cultural understanding that successful homestay programs have to offer.

Suddenly, when Japanese students go to Australia they are no longer the norm, but the exception. They have now become the *gaijin* (foreigner) and are accorded all the prejudice that accompanies that status. More than once have Japanese students been the subject of catcalls from passing vehicles as they walk along the street, or have received sneering looks from the local inhabitants - just as Australian students are pointed at and called "*gaijin*" in the trains and subway stations of Japan, or have to endure side glances or the infamous sucking of air between the teeth that disgruntled Japanese often employ when they encounter a foreigner in their midst.

Australian exchange students will know what it means to be refused to rent an apartment because they are not Japanese, or denied a Japanese bank credit card because they are considered untrustworthy - just as the Japanese student will feel the bitterness that still lingers in the hearts of many Australians for what the Japanese did to Australia - but refuse to acknowledge to this day - during the Second World War.

For the first time in their lives exchange students from both countries are thrust into a situation where they feel the crushing unfairness, humiliation and degradation that racial prejudice has to offer. They can be read about it for years in school textbooks and never understand the true implications thereof. It is only when the boot heel of racial prejudice comes crashing down *personally* does it begin to become internalized and make a lasting impression.

But if exchange students from both countries are forewarned about these facts, and instructed properly in how to deal with them in a positive and straightforward manner, the concept of racial prejudice will diminish in size and scope, and hopefully, disappear from the lexicon of all free-thinking societies.

Partial List of Further Points to Consider

The following is a partial list of further points to consider for anyone who would like to attempt to establish a homestay handbook for general reference throughout the educational community. For a more complete list with explanations and further ideas

concerning establishing a viable homestay program please refer to my article entitled "How to Conduct a Successful Japanese ESL Overseas Homestay Program: Some Basic Concepts and Systematic Strategies" (13.) in the notes section of this paper.

1. Australian/Japanese Embassy/Consulate address and telephone number.
2. Country's emergency number.
3. City map - with dangerous areas noted.
4. College information sheet/map.
5. Transportation routes and schedules.
6. College/hotel lodging information.
7. Homestay information:
 - a. Smoking/non-smoking.
 - b. Allergies.
 - c. Pets/no pets.
 - d. Children
8. Discounts from local merchants.
9. Course descriptions/classes/schedules.
10. Master map with all host families annotated.
11. Video of the whole homestay program - make copies after editing distribute to the students.
12. Temporary student passes.
13. Bicycle rental information.
14. First meeting place - airport or pre-arranged area.
15. Before homestay is actually started - letters of introduction to be exchanged.
16. Seating on airplanes - no smoking and all together.
17. Everyone involved in administering homestay programs should have each other's business *plus* home phone number.
18. Small gift to homestay family.
19. Student to fill-out questionnaire after homestay program - good/bad points. No names on questionnaire.
20. Student *and* parents - pre and post homestay seminar/party.

CONCLUSION

If a homestay program is to be successful all parties concerned must, first and foremost, be dedicated to the concept of cross-cultural education. They must also believe in the idea of total immersion as one of the best ways to learn another language and culture.

It is vital that all homestay Directors take it upon themselves to compile as complete a list as possible with every aspect concerning the running of a successful homestay program and use it as a guide for future reference.

I have tried to give some ideas that I thought were pertinent to the implementation of a successful homestay program and their value in contributing to positive cross-cultural understanding.

One of the best ways to insure that each person's job is completed satisfactorily with relation to the running of a successful homestay program is to have a stated general manual of procedures that can be referred to at any time to guide administrators not only in questions of policy, but also in implementing new ideas and concepts to help improve the overall concept of successful homestay programs between Australia and Japan.

In this paper I meant in no way whatsoever to espouse the idea of institutionalizing homestay programs. Far from it. What I am suggesting is that a model be developed as a "starter" to be added to - and subtracted from - when the need and opportunity arises.

I invite others to use this paper as a starting point in which those of us in the business of administering homestay programs can someday present a hands-on manual to

the educational community at large that will help to make all cross-cultural understanding be viewed in an even more positive light.

We are living in very precarious times. And make no mistake about it, world war is still not ruled out as a viable military, political or even economic alternative to world leaders and the nation-states they represent. One need only witness the recent "testing" of atomic weapons by France to realize that ignorance and ill-conceived notions of grandeur will plague us well into the 21st Century and beyond.

With the year 2000 rapidly approaching and the globalization of the world economy already a reality it is of utmost importance that we learn to live, work and play together in harmony with each other.

Through properly run homestay programs and their positive contribution to cross-cultural understanding maybe we can do a small part to help put to rest, once and for all, the ever-present pre-battle equation:

Ignorance + Fear = War

Dr. David Wilmoth, Head of the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology, sums it up this way. "Homestay programs are among the most powerful means I know to promote international understanding and goodwill. Households that open their doors to visitors in this way do so for many reasons - interest, curiosity, conviviality among them - but the effect of even short stays can be profound for guest and host alike. The generosity of Japanese families in having an Australian visitor, for example, may lift the scales of prejudice in one day. Such contacts can be lifelong, indeed, intergenerational, as children years later look up faded entries in old address books. The future of international understanding may rest more on such simple acts of kindness than on all the treaties we can devise." (14.)

Notes

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(2.) Dr. Kenji Yamada, Individual Studies Seminar, Sugiyama University, July 17, 1995.

(3.) Gerry Meister, Personal Letter, Head, La Trobe University Language Centre, Victoria, Australia, 3 August 1995.

(4.) *The Oxford Reference Dictionary*, 1990 Edition, page 394.

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(7.) Ichiro Kawasaki, *Japan Unmasked*, Charles E. Tuttle, 1969, page 187.

(8.) Frank Ching, "Eye on Asia," *Far Eastern Economic Review*, 26 August 1993, page 26.

(9.) "Welcome Mr. Nice Guy," *The Economist*, February 20, 1993, page 15.

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Scaffolding Academic Learning for Second Language Learners

Karen Sue Bradley
Jack Alden Bradley
Texas A&M University, Kingsville, Texas, USA

Introduction

What is meant by the term scaffolding? "Scaffolding refers to providing contextual supports for meaning through the use of simplified language, teacher modeling, visuals and graphics, cooperative learning and hands-on learning" (Ovando, Collier, & Combs, 2003, p. 345). The teacher of second language learners has to facilitate that support. Then, "as students become more proficient, the scaffold is gradually removed" (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002, p. 85). Three types of scaffolding have been identified as being especially effective for second language learners.

1. Simplifying the language: The teacher can simplify the language by shortening selections, speaking in the present tense, and avoiding the use of idioms.
2. Asking for completion, not generation: The teacher can have students choose answers from a list or complete a partially finished outline or paragraph.
3. Using visuals: The teacher can present information and ask for students to respond through the use of graphic organizers, tables, charts, outlines, and graphs.

The development of academic language is vital to student success in the classroom. Each of the content area subjects contain a unique and demanding technical vocabulary. In addition, familiar words are used in completely different ways. The purpose of this paper is to share strategies that can facilitate a teacher's scaffolding of difficult academic vocabulary. Active student involvement is the key to success.

"The overriding drive in current changes occurring in second language teaching is the need to teach language through something essential and meaningful to the student. When the goal is to prepare students for academic success in classes taught in English, then ESL is best taught through lessons that teach meaningful mathematics, science, social studies, and language arts concepts simultaneously with second language objectives" (Ovando, Collier, & Combs, 2003, p. 310). This drive supports efforts toward planning thematic instruction. Theme studies provide a meaningful context for learning technical, academic vocabulary. In the sequence of activities described, a group of fifth graders are involved in the theme of great inventions.

The lesson design format integrates reading and writing and leads students from the pre-reading stage through the post-writing reflection stage.

I. Overview

Helping second language learners master academic content can be challenging. Scaffolding reading/writing lessons emphasizing active student involvement provides the setting for success in this area.

- Theme: Great Inventions
- Using the book: Great Inventions
- Demonstration Lesson: Transportation and Under Water
- Overview: After a study of great inventions related to the history of transportation, students will research a topic, create a poster, and orally present it to the class.

II. Objectives

- Connect student background by making predictions about text.
- Predict text content through pictures.
- Make connections through personal experiences to text content.
- Interrelate concepts using a structured overview and visuals.
- Keep notes in margins while reading.
- Self-question as sections of the text are read.
- Work collaboratively in a group.
- Create a poster to present the most important information about your group's selected topic.

III. Pre-reading Activities

1. Pre-Reading #1 - Think About the Title:

- Ask student to think about what they already know about transportation on and under water. Give them a couple of minutes to share their predictions of the content of the text with a partner. Debrief as a total class, writing the responses on the board.
- Ask students to look at the pictures in the text (The text has vivid pictures of a sailboat, an aqualung, a submarine, a propeller, and several types of ships, as well as a lighthouse. Ask students to write down what they think the text is about, based on the pictures. Debrief as a class and add those ideas to the list on the board.
- Before actually reading the text, ask students if anyone has ever traveled anywhere in a boat or ship. Then ask the class if anyone has had any experiences in a boat. Students share their stories.

2. Pre-Reading #2:

Provide a structured overview that previews and highlights important information and the interrelationships of ideas.

For this activity, students can be placed in groups and given a set of index cards containing the inventions related to the reading selection. If inventions for land and air transportation have been previously studied, they could be included. Students sort the inventions under the appropriate category as shown in the structured overview. This can be done as a prediction prior to reading.

IV. During-Reading: Monitoring Comprehension

English language learners need to have an established purpose for reading something so they can evaluate whether they are successful readers. The purpose of during-reading strategies revolves around the teacher's modeling of questioning techniques in order to develop the self-questioning ability of students. For example, the purpose for reading the selection "On or Under the Water," which was established during the pre-reading phase, was to find out what inventions promoted the development of different types of boats throughout history.

Two during-reading strategies that effectively assist students in monitoring their own comprehension are using subheadings and headings and analyzing captions.

During Reading #1: Analyzing Captions

For example: One caption from "On and Under the Water" says, "Finding the Way." The pictures surrounding the text are of a lighthouse, which might be within the students' background knowledge, and a gold, circular object that they probably will not be able to identify (It is a mariner's ASTROLABE).

The teacher's role is to discuss the purpose of the lighthouse (or something students already know about) and then suggest that perhaps the other object is also something that will help ships "find their way," as the text says.

During-reading #2: Turn Headings and Subheadings into Questions

Using the same example, one of the subheadings reads, "Beneath the Surface." The teacher should guide students in the process of changing the subheadings into questions. The question should be a prediction of what the text will say below that subheading. For "Beneath the Surface," the question might be, "What invention made it possible to take a boat beneath the surface, or under the water?" Because expository, or non-fiction texts usually have headings and subheadings, determining where to ask questions is easier. Good readers use those signals and self-question as they read.

During Reading #3:

Read "On or Under Water" aloud, asking students to join in as they are able. (This is a short, two pages of text) Students have a copy of the chosen text so they can write notes as the selection is studied. During the reading, specific vocabulary words are identified as follows: navigation, invention, lighthouse, relied, chronometer, accurate, and satellite signals. Students write the words in the margin. Before having students reread the text silently, pre-teach this key vocabulary using a variety of techniques.

During Reading #4: Students Should Reread Either Silently, in Partners, or in Groups.

V. Post-reading

The goal of this activity is to have students actually participate in a process that has traditionally been used by teachers to modify text for English language learners. Through the use of simplification, expansions, direct explanations, and comparisons, comprehension is built in to create a clearer, more understandable text, as in the following example:

Simplification: The government's funds were depleted. (It was almost out of money.)

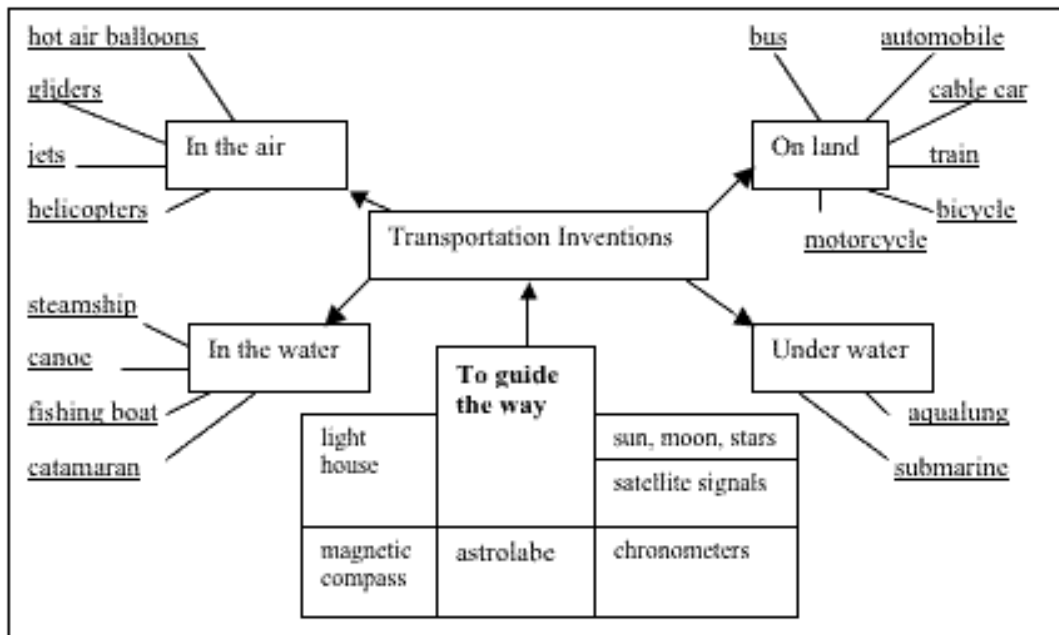
Expansion of ideas: The government funds were depleted. (It had spent a lot of money on things; equipment, help of the poor. It did not have any more money to spend on anything else.)

Direct definition: The government's funds were depleted. (This means that the government had spent all of its money. (Diaz-Rico, & Weed, 2003, p. 230).

For this activity, the teacher models the first work after creating a bulletin board which is labeled as follows:

Word	Original Sentence	Simplification	Expansion Or Ideas	Direct Definition
Relied	Early sailors <u>relied</u> on the sun, the moon, and the stars to navigate.	Looking up at the sun and the stars helped sailors find their way.	Navigation in the open ocean is difficult. Long ago, sailors were dependent on the sun and the stars to find their way. New inventions make navigating more accurate.	<u>relied</u> Early sailors relied on the sun, the moon, and the stars to navigate. Relied on must mean to depend on.

The end goal of this activity is to have students do this activity in groups, with the teacher circulating as facilitator. The amount of teacher-directed instruction is going to vary depending on the students involved. Organize students into small groups and have them brainstorm ideas about the history of inventions related to transportation. Then, have them share with the whole class. As ideas are shared, create a graphic on the board or overhead. Each cooperative group is to select an area for further research. An example of a graphic which might culminate study of transportation inventions follows:



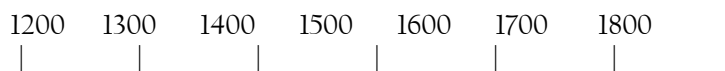
VI. Writing

Each group is to create a poster "showing" their topic in an organized fashion.

1. Planning

The group has to decide how best to organize their information.

For example, a group who selects a study of inventions used throughout history to guide ships in the open sea, might present their information using a time line as a focus.



Students select materials to use to best present their topic. (A variety of art materials should be made available as well as magazine pictures)

2. Writing

The first draft is produced.

3. Sharing

Posters are shared with the rest of the class. Each person in the group tells what his/her part was in the creation of the project.

4. Revising

The first draft is reshaped, incorporating the feedback from the sharing.

5. Editing

Students proofread for conformity to the conventions of the English language.

6. Evaluation

The writing is judged to determine if it meets the criteria on the evaluation or rubric and if it satisfies the writer and the reader.

7. Writing Log Reflection

Students write in their individual logs. Give them a guided question to get them started.

Example: Review the activities you have participated in during our study of great inventions. Which of the activities do you think most helped you understand the information? Why?

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Creating a Healthy Learning Environment for Student Success in the Classroom

Bahaudin Mujtaba

Nova Southeastern University, Fort Lauderdale, Florida, USA

Lisa Mujtaba

University of Central Florida, Orlando, Florida, USA

Effective education to every student is a moral imperative for all teachers. Educators are obligated to avoid issues that present a conflict of interest in order to create a healthy learning environment for all students. This document provides a review of diversity related issues such as harassment and general teaching considerations geared toward educators of diverse students.

Introduction

The creation of a healthy learning environment requires teachers and facilitators who are culturally competent. Faculty members of higher education are obligated to treat each student fairly and expect high standards from them regardless of their diversity makeup.

Furthermore, teachers should and must avoid all issues that present a conflict of interest in their faculty-student relationship.

For example, regardless of whether "quid pro quo" cases are intentional or unintentional, they must be avoided since they put students in a challenging position when their course grade depends on the faculty member's perception. This document presents the basics of sexual harassment, implications of diversity issues, diversity management concerns in education, and best teaching practices while offering suggestions for educators of diverse student populations. The key is to find out what works well and get the whole organization to do it. The suggestions offer ideas so adult educators can be successful in achieving their learning outcomes based on fair learning practices that can produce positive results for everyone.

Diversity Management and Adult Education

The student population of nearly all tertiary institutions has drastically changed from what it was twenty and thirty years ago. It is apparent that today's student populations are much more diverse in terms of their gender, ethnicity/nationality, age, disability, and beliefs than they were twenty years ago.

Therefore, these student populations need diverse teaching skills, different experiences, and more facilitation abilities in order for them to learn best as per their learning styles. One of the needed skills would be to acknowledge their differences and actively incorporate their experiences into the learning objectives of each session. Recognizing and understanding these differences are not easy, nor automatic, since they require conscious focus and a good level of comfort on the part of the faculty with cultural diversity issues. In order for educators and students to be successful, they need to become culturally competent.

"Cultural competency" for all practical purposes refers to the continuous learning process that enables both educators and students to function effectively in the context of cultural differences both in academia and in the workforce.

Nearly all organizations and academic institutions have various forms of formal or mandatory training for their associates, faculty and/or staff during their initial hiring process and as an ongoing process annually. However, in many academic as well as corporate organizations, much of the training on diversity and sexual harassment topics

are not reinforced through training and development. Often time, employees are provided a handbook or a website link to read the material individually and to sign a document that they have read the material. There is no assessment of actual learning. Furthermore, some organizations that do offer a formal face-to-face training session on such important topics tend to brush through the content to make sure the legal side is covered without making sure that the material is received, understood, fully comprehended, and the specific behaviors can be successfully applied by those who attended the session. Nonetheless, many of such topics are often effectively presented by experienced facilitators and a review of them seems relevant for educators.

"Sexual harassment" is often times seen as behavior that is un-welcomed (the recipient does not want it), unsolicited (the recipient did not ask for it), and repeated (the behavior is not one isolated incident). A behavior can be considered sexual harassment when submission to such conduct is made a condition of the individual's course grade or employment; when submission to, or rejection of, such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for grade or employment decisions (such as salary increases, promotions, etc.) affecting the individual; and when such conduct has the purpose or effect of interfering with the individual's performance or of creating an unfriendly or offensive environment.

Quid pro quo is a condition created by the harasser in which the harassed submits to unwanted sexual and physical advances to either obtain a reward (such as a good grade without earning it through objective performance in the course) or to avoid a consequence. An actual act is not required to establish quid pro quo. Such situations must be avoided by using professional, consistent and fair treatment strategies for all students in the class.

Also, adult educators should be aware and eliminate the presence of a "hostile learning environment" in their classroom. A "hostile learning environment" can be described as a situation where inappropriate remarks consistently take place and it is not corrected by the teacher/faculty member. This is a situation where insensitive and inappropriate remarks should be addressed publicly by the faculty member so everyone in the class understands the ground rules and the fact that inappropriate/insensitive comments are not appreciated nor tolerated. Educators must also avoid and eliminate the presence of sexual harassment from taking place in the classroom while maintaining a faculty-student relationship. Tangible consequences such as a lowered grade do not have to occur to substantiate the existence of sexual harassment. If a student's emotional and psychological abilities are substantially affected, there may be enough proof that sexual harassment occurred.

Diversity also encompasses the multitude of experiences, aptitudes and attitudes available in today's workforce. Diversity initiatives encourage leaders and educators to empower their associates and students as well as to tap into their wealth of differences in order to achieve synergistic results. In return, these students and associates will be ready to satisfy, excite and delight their diverse customers and achieve organizational effectiveness by delivering superior value as a result of diversity initiatives modeled in the classroom by the educators. Robert Reich, Secretary of Labor during Clinton's Administration, said, "No longer are Americans rising and falling together as if in one large national boat. We are, increasingly, in different smaller boats." So, our classroom students, customers, organizations, and societies will become progressively more diverse and we as educators need to tolerate differences, respect them, understand their nature, and educate our students about them so they can successfully work with their diverse organizations and customers. Eventually, this may lead to student's personal and professional success and they can be as successful as they so desire to be.

What is success and who defines it? According to Sophocles, "success is dependent on effort" and not necessarily physical characteristics or limitations. According to Brian Tracy, Author and Speaker, "One of the most important rules for success is this: every great

success is the result of hundreds and thousands of small efforts and accomplishments that no one ever sees or appreciates." In the summer issue of Nova Southeastern University's Foresight publication (2001), Dr. Randolph Pohlman, Dean of Graduate School of Business and Entrepreneurship, wrote, "In this final issue ... we strive to get at the core of what is success. By sharing with you the thoughts of various leaders, educators, and entrepreneurs, we hope to help our readers define for themselves what is success?" The same is true for students; therefore, success should be defined by students based on their desires, abilities, goals and efforts.

At his primary school, Malcolm X (African American leader) was told by one of his (white) teachers that he should not dream of becoming a lawyer since he could not be very successful in that job and should pursue something that requires the use of his hands. Unfortunately, due to strong biases and stereotypes such in-competency may still exist in the American education system and we need to do everything possible to ensure it does not happen in our schools or to our students. It is not the place of the faculty member to determine how successful a student can or should be based on his/her first impression of the student or based on the student's physical/personality characteristics.

Ralph Waldo Emerson said, "What is success? To laugh often and much; to win the respect of intelligent people and the affection of children; to earn the appreciation of honest critics and endure the betrayal of false friends; to appreciate beauty; to find the best in others; to leave the world a bit better, whether by a healthy child, a garden patch, or a redeemed social condition; to know even one life has breathed easier because you have lived." Simply put, success can be practicing what you preach, progressively realizing predetermined goals/ideals, and doing one's best to make worthwhile contributions to society. It is our moral imperative and obligation as educators and faculty members to (assume and) proceed as though limits to our students' abilities do not exist, unless objective evidence tells otherwise.

Recognize and Respect Diversity in the Class

Recognizing, understanding, appreciating, and valuing personal differences in each individual student can eliminate groupthink both in the classroom as well as in the boardroom. Groupthink is a pattern of faulty and biased decision making that occurs in groups whose members strive for agreement, among themselves, at the expense of accurately assessing information relevant to a decision. Groupthink is not a desirable objective in today's diverse and sophisticated world of intermingled competition. This usually happens in homogeneous teams and groups because everyone's societal values tend to be similar. Research has shown that homogeneous teams are neither as creative nor as productive as heterogeneous teams when dealing with or solving complex problems. Diverse teams can achieve synergistic results if they appreciate, understand and value their differences effectively. Synergy is where the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. Ultimately, synergy is the performance gains that result when individuals, teams and departments coordinate their actions toward the same goals. Synergistic teams, colleagues, peers and departments tend to function more cooperatively and productively than if they were operating in isolation.

Synergy happens when two or more individuals working together produce more than their combined efforts individually. For example, a team of four students should produce a final project (product) that is much better than the combined results of each of the four students' work that is produced individually. Diversity awareness can help teams function harmoniously in the context of cultural differences and produces synergistic results. On the other hand, lack of diversity awareness and lack of respect for diversity can lead to negative synergy. Negative synergy, similar to social loafing, is when two or more people working together produce less than what they could produce individually. As you

know, negative synergy takes place when people do not respect and appreciate each other's differences.

Differences may even exist in how male and female students relate to and understand material presented in the classroom. Using sports analogies to make a point in the classroom may not clarify the concepts or objectives to those who are not familiar with the rules of a specific game. This can apply to both males and females in the same way. Faculty members need to be aware of their audience and create an "inclusive learning environment." An "inclusive learning environment" is where all of the students and participants are actively involved in the learning process and can fully relate to the concepts being presented. Research has shown that gender differences (in orientation, communication, and behavior) seem subtle, yet they represent great dissimilarities in the ways that men and women function on a daily basis. Simply put, the differences can translate into an institutionalized tendency to work only within one's comfort zone, men working only with men and women working with women unless this tendency is consciously acknowledged and avoided. Many firms have established gender-sensitivity training in order to create awareness and to eventually produce synergistic results among teams.

During the training at The Kinney Shoe Corporation, the participants learned that females, in general, view work as a process while males usually focus on the end result and desire specific action plans. Researchers have concluded that many of the males were raised with a competitive nature, where power was the key. Furthermore, males have been found to have more of a succinct speaking style, similar to military speech, whereas, females communicated in a storytelling style. While many females prefer a circular style of group discussion so everyone can be heard, seen and acknowledged; males tend to prefer the lecture style where the group is directed and the meeting can be brought to a closure in a timely manner. Females tend to put more focus on the process (how we get there) while males may focus more on the results (where are we going and when will we get there). Such differences may exist in the classroom as well and educators need to recognize and capitalize on such differences appropriately as per their course learning outcomes. Understanding and respecting such differences can create an "inclusive learning environment" where groupthink is avoided and synergistic results flow infinitely as learners think for themselves and stretch their abilities beyond their existing boundaries.

Summary

Valuing diversity and the educator's genuine commitment to its thorough implementation are critical to one's success as an individual educator and to his/her student's survival in the real world. In order for educators and students to be successful, they should become culturally competent.

Furthermore, teachers should and must avoid all issues that present a conflict of interest in their faculty-student relationship. For example, just as faculty members must not use student information for marketing or promotional purposes they must not put students in "quid pro quo" positions that are often linked to cases of sexual harassment. Many of the (students') employers are concerned with proper employee behavior and code of conduct compliance in relation to their industries and related organizations. As such, educators have the responsibility of being and becoming role models for students as these future leaders/managers are likely to mimic the actions of their teachers. Overall, this document has pointed out the moral/ethical imperatives of education in the diverse environment.

As Thomas Henry Huxley states, "Perhaps the most valuable result of all education is the ability to make yourself do the thing you have to do, when it ought to be done, whether you like it or not . . ." Many individuals tend to live with general stereotypes, misinformation, and biases for a lifetime but educators are more likely to be open-minded

in treating their students fairly. Being open-minded and treating all students fairly are critical to creating a healthy learning environment.

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Ideas for Developing a Personal EFL Teaching Curriculum

Joe Drakos
YES Language School, Hasaki, Japan

A simple guide for novice teachers on how to develop personal teaching curriculums for their classes when no standardized curriculum is available.

Introduction

A curriculum is a vital part of TEFL classes. It provides a focus for the class and sets goals for the students throughout their study. A curriculum also gives the student a guide and idea to what they will learn and how they have progressed when the course is over. Although many large English schools have set curriculums for their teachers the smaller, more abundant English schools tend to let their teachers decide in what way the classes are conducted. This latter method, as free as it may sound, can cause difficulties for those who have little or no experience teaching English. From my experiences I have seen many novice teachers hired into English schools and told to teach as they see fit. Although they exert great effort and enthusiasm in teaching English to their students, they soon end up distressed because they can not find enough material to fill up a lesson because of difficulties finding expansion activities. This is one time where the personal teaching curriculum can come into play. A personal teaching curriculum is composed of basic English conversation topics which can be used without a textbook or as a reinforcement to text centered lessons. This article is designed to give new, and seasoned teachers ideas and points on how to develop a personal teaching curriculum and language targets that will, in turn, benefit the students' study goals.

Putting a Curriculum Together

Developing a curriculum is no easy task. It requires a long period of research concerning the needs of the student(s) and experimentation. It is important that the teacher keep searching for new ideas to expand their curriculum. The Internet is a great way to keep up with teaching methods and ideas. Utilize EFL/ESL teaching websites as much as possible to keep pace with the EFL/ESL industry and to find new ideas. Also, try to keep a library of teaching manuals and textbooks. Many publishers give free copies of new textbooks. These can prove to be good resources for expansion activities stemming from text oriented lessons of non-text centered lessons. Most of all don't be afraid to ask questions to colleagues. They either can introduce new ideas or provide useful advice based on experience.

It is difficult to say how much English a student should be capable of doing after the first, second or third year of study. It must be understood by all those studying and supporting other's who are studying, i.e. teachers, that the acquisition of any language other than one's own is a slow process. Furthermore, it is affected by a number of factors including:

- Exposure to the target language by native speakers
- Willingness of the student to experiment with the target language
- Personal confidence in self
- Learning ability
- The amount of vocabulary the student knows

In the case of children one must accept the idea that most of these factors will be ignored or hidden because of the age or maturity level of the child. Therefore, static phrases and vocabulary should be emphasized at the elementary level with minute attempts to

expend to language experimentation. Adults, on the other hand, may exert more effort when speaking as they, obviously, have a higher maturity level but this, too, is case by case.

The following section contains focus points teachers might find useful for creating their curriculum. Primarily, this is for children at the elementary level (grades 1-6) but it can be modified for kindergarten, junior high classes and even beginning adults, and can be applied to large or small classes. It provides a basis on what a teacher might want to focus on and assumes that the student will continue with the teacher for three years. The first two years focus on essential language targets for building basic skills while the third year concentrates on practical and spontaneous application.

Teachers may want to consider these grammar and conversation points while developing a curriculum for first year students.

- Making self introductions (i.e. name, age or where the student lives)
- Subjective pronouns
- The "wh" question words what, where and when
- Auxiliary question words involving like, do and can
- Corresponding "yes/no" answers to auxiliary questions
- The use of this and that, these and those
- Tell information such as objects, time, date (w/ month name) and weather.
- Develop a large vocabulary of nouns and basic verbs
- Simple commands
- Understand the basic phonics of English letters

Teachers may want to consider these grammar and conversation points while developing a curriculum for second year students. Also, include time for review of the previous year's lessons.

- Possessive pronouns
- Past tense and present continuous tense
- Make simple sentences using adjectives to modify nouns
- Give more descriptive information about objects, time, etc.
- Understand "wh" question words who, which and how
- Have increased vocabulary to include more verbs and adjectives
- Have an understanding of blended phonics
- Have simple knowledge of English grammar (subject-verb-object) in easily understood concepts, e.g. I like... I want...or I can...

Teachers may want to consider these grammar and conversation points while developing a curriculum for third year students. Also, include time for review of previous year's lessons.

- Have students communicate simple thoughts without prompting
- Get students to ask questions involving the above-mentioned "wh" and auxiliary questions, i.e. "What sports (fruits, games, etc.) do you like?"
- Have students read and understand simple sentences.
- Have students recognize objects and describe them with little pause.

If a student continues to study he or she should have well developed English skills if they have mastered the language targets mentioned above. This means the student has the ability to recognize simple questions and answer them using a variety of objects. Don't worry if the students may still not be able to formulate fluent answers because some may lack adequate daily exposure to English. For most students there are few, if any,

opportunities to hear various accents, dialects and pronunciations as well as syntax structures.

Overall, the points mentioned should be used as a blueprint for teachers to create their own method of teaching. Some teachers try to combine their own teaching style and curriculum into their textbook oriented classes. For example, one week might include a lesson with activities particular to the teacher while the next week might focus on the textbook lesson. This is a good method as it gives the students exposure to English outside the textbook. This works very well if the teacher can change the focus of their curriculum to match that of the text series employed by the particular school.

Using Textbooks as Curriculum Guides

Good textbooks contain lesson that introduce simple dialogue and expand on it gradually. They are also prime examples on how to build your personal curriculum. The text book can provide the basis of the lesson while your curriculum can help the student to develop skills in order to language beyond what the textbook lesson teaches. I find that text series that employ lesson where the students can change the object of sentences are especially good for teaching students how to use their creative talents to produce real language. The textbook lessons should be clear enough so that the teacher can develop a lesson plan without the use of a teacher's book. An example of a clear lesson might be on giving and receiving things and the use of polite language. Perhaps the page shows a person giving a friend a gift and says "Here you are". The friend takes it and replies with "Thank you". This is followed with "You're welcome". Upon reviewing the lesson in the student text the teacher can quickly become familiar with what the students will be learning and be able to prepare expansion activities based on what the students see in the book. Supplement activity suggestions and expansion ideas should be included in the teacher's book. I have seen step by step instructions on how to teach the lesson and even translations and pronunciation guides on how to say various phrases in the students' native language in many teacher books. This can be helpful for teachers teaching low level classes.

Reinforcement

Reinforcement activities are necessary to allow the student to try to use the new language skills in a practical sense. Try including activities that allows the student to use the target language as a native speaker might, i.e. role playing. Games work especially well for children as well as secondary students and, if the right games are chosen, for adults, too. Furthermore, games provide a challenge arena so those who are reluctant to participate in a practice session might be more responsive when the spirit of competition is aroused. Worksheet activities also provide good reinforcement and review. Using a variety of workbooks from different series can provide a wealth of activities for reading and writing.

Conclusion

In conclusion, I feel that it is important for all teachers of ESL or EFL to develop a style which is comfortable for them to teach yet at the same time challenging for the students. Once the teacher gets a feel for developing personal curriculums he or she can start applying their techniques to English for special purposes classes, English test classes and high level conversation classes such as business English. This method only suggests the basic ideas on what things should be considered when developing a personal curriculum. With careful consideration and keeping the student's needs and abilities in mind an EFL teacher can progress from novice teacher to skilled EFL educator.

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Practical Ways Brain-based Research Applies to ESL Learners

Judy Lombardi

California State University Northridge, Northridge, CA, USA

Introduction

These are exciting times for ESL teachers. We are in the midst of a revolution in new teaching and learning strategies, i.e., “...*accelerated learning; action research; applied learning; arts in education; character education; cognitive coaching; cooperative learning; democratic classrooms; emotional intelligence; environmental education; environments for learning; graphic tools; instrumental enrichment; keeping fit for learning; learning styles; literacy; multicultural education; multiple intelligences; service learning; teaching for understanding; technology in education; thinking skills*”

(http://www.newhorizons.org/strategies/front_strategies.html, 2002).

ESL faculty are infusing nontraditional types of instructional strategies, from portfolios to case studies to gallery walks, into their teaching.

Brain-based and second language acquisition research has taught us, thankfully, that the old school method—assign a chapter, take a test, and discuss the test—will not result in quality and depth of thought. Our ESL students are not tape recorders, waiting eagerly to receive our golden nuggets of wisdom. Instead, they are multi-taskers who can play video games, talk on cell phones, and listen to music, all without missing a beat.

ESL teachers who want to update, refresh, and rejuvenate their teaching should apply mind/brain learning principles, as described by Caine and Caine (1994). These principles can become the basis of second language teaching and learning at the highest quality levels:

Principle 1. The Brain Is a Complex Adaptive System.

The brain can function on many levels and in many ways simultaneously. A complex and multifaceted task, learning should be approached in a variety of ways. For an exciting, new way to look at learning styles and strategies for second language learners, visit Andrew Cohen’s work at the University of Minnesota (<http://www.carla.umn.edu/about/profiles/CohenPapers/LearningStylesSurvey.pdf>, 2003). In Levine’s pivotal work, *A Mind at a Time* (2003), he recommends transforming a verbal into a visual task, and a visual task into a kinesthetic one. Challenging the brain, not numbing it with overload, keeps the mind happily humming and is essential to the ESL classroom. Activity shifting and teaching around the wheel of learning styles stimulate thought and action in second language learner classrooms.

Principle 2. The Brain is a Social Brain.

John Donne got it right in 1684: no man is an island. The brain likes and responds well to social engagement and oral sharing. Witness the best-studied of all educational strategies, cooperative learning. Structuring the task, assigning roles and teams, sharing of materials, and requiring interdependability of team members are all essential to quality cooperative learning in the ESL classroom, breathing life into subjects and classes (Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec, 1994; Kagan, 1997). Cooperative learning has an essential role in ESL instruction, especially in regard to listening and speaking, and in providing support mechanisms for anxious learners.

Principle 3. The Search for Meaning Is Innate.

The brain not only wants to make sense of what it learns, but also wants to know that learning has purpose and value. Adler believes that people learn things, when they need to know them (1998). The search for meaning extends from deep-seated

philosophical questions of the Eriksonian crisis (Who am I? What do I want? Where am I going?) to the rationale students demand for making sense of assignments. Simply put, the brain likes explanations. When ESL teachers share with students the why of what they are doing, not just the what and the how, the brain appreciates it and more deeply values the learning.

Principle 4. The Search for Meaning Occurs Through Patterning.

When the brain encounters a new idea, it searches for prior knowledge and experiences similar to the new concept. Effective ESL teachers use frontloading, by integrating graphic organizers, using prediction strategies, introducing vocabulary, conducting pair-shares, and presenting video clips, to prepare the brain for the new knowledge to come. Helping second language learners ground new ideas in current knowledge makes learning meaningful, as they climb the ladder of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives.

Principle 5. Emotions Are Critical to Patterning.

The term "emotional intelligence" was coined by psychologists John Mayer and Peter Salovey in 1990. The principle of EQ, or emotional quotient, is described in Daniel Goleman's pivotal work, *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ* (1997). The premise of emotional intelligence is that optimists with effective people skills are more successful than individuals with only high IQs or book smarts but poor interpersonal skills. Emotional intelligence also champions the concept of impulse control, the ability to delay gratification for a greater reward. In the ESL classroom, a warm, supportive, encouraging educational climate is conducive to successful learning outcomes, i.e., using a variety of teaching strategies and creating lessons that are engaging and exciting to second language learners.

Principle 6. Every Brain Simultaneously Perceives and Creates Parts and Wholes.

Left-right brain research is only the beginning of understanding the way the brain divides learning tasks between verbal and visual, analytical and global, logical and creative. Successful ESL instructors engage learners in tasks that require both sides of the brain to engage, e.g., using art to teach a math lesson or music to teach physics. In ESL classrooms, crossdisciplinary approaches embrace the multifaceted aspects of the brain and recognize the interaction of both hemispheres in meaningful learning.

Principle 7. Learning Involves Both Focused Attention and Peripheral Perception.

The brain absorbs direct information, but also pays attention to what Ruggiero calls fringe thoughts (2000). Think of a bull's eye on a target: the brain focuses on the central target but also notices the rings around the bull's eye. Frequently, it is the off-handed remark, the subtext of a speech, and the nuances of a lesson that ESL learners respond to, as the mind perceives subtleties. The ESL instructor's belief systems and attitudes toward subjects also come through, no matter how well the instructor thinks they are hidden from students.

Principle 8. Learning Always Involves Both Conscious and Unconscious Processes.

In this iceberg principle of learning, much of what is learned lies beneath the surface. At the surface level of awareness, ESL learners discuss and take notes. Deeply ingrained learning comes later, when students digest what they have learned, connect it to life experience, or apply the knowledge to life events. To bring invisible, unconscious thought alive in the classroom, ESL instructors use reflection and metacognition, through questioning and application of learning. How does this knowledge apply? relate? work in reality?

Principle 9. We Have at Least Two Ways of Organizing Memory.

Theories on long-term and short-term memory have been around since the 1960s. Caine and Caine (1994) refer to the neuropsychology of memory systems described by O'Keefe and Nadel (1978) as taxon/locale and spatial/autobiographical. Taxon/locale memory, motivated by rewards and punishments, recalls seemingly unrelated information. Spatial/autobiographical memory recalls experiences instantly, such as the shirt you wore yesterday (Caine & Caine, 1994). These two types of memory help ESL learners record completely all their experiences, as important and unimportant details get categorized and stored differently. ESL instructors can attend to both types of memory by organizing activities into meaningful parts, placing ideas in context, and infusing a range of learning styles and multiple intelligences into classroom practice.

Principle 10. Learning is Developmental.

While the brain is hard-wired by genetics and certain environmental aspects, the good news is that Scheibel and Diamond's dendritic fireworks theory of the 1980s links brain enhancement to environmental enrichment. Learning something new actually helps the brain to grow by building new, neural pathways and connections. ESL instructors take advantage of this research by applying a myriad of new learning strategies to their second language learner classrooms, including all the modalities of learning.

Principle 11. Complex Learning Is Enhanced by Challenge and Inhibited by Threat.

At what level should we teach our ESL students? If we teach beneath them, they are insulted and understimulated. If we teach at their level, we teach them in their comfort zone, where they do not learn much. Teaching at a slightly elevated level, challenging but not impossible, encourages our students to strive. Today's learning climate in the ESL classroom is more effective as a partnership, not a them vs. us situation of intimidation and gamesmanship.

Principle 12. Every Brain Is Uniquely Organized.

Levine's *The Myth of Laziness* (2002) chronicles the frustration and attitudinal problems that stem from unaddressed dysfunction in learners. Gardner's multiple intelligences theory (1993), which challenges traditional notions of a single, fixed IQ, emphasizes not how smart the learner is, but how the learner is smart. Given the right kind of assistance in organizing their learning through work plans, alternative approaches, and assignment previews, ESL students can improve their skills and attitudes.

Summary

Today's ESL students have little patience with long-winded lecturing and a lack of dialogue in the classroom. ESL students must be invited into the excitement of learning, through strategies that honor the amazing power of the brain and the unbridled energy of the human spirit.

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IAFOR Silk Road Initiative

The IAFOR Silk Road Initiative encourages individuals and institutions working across the world to support and undertake research centring on the contact between countries and regions in Europe and Asia – from Gibraltar to Japan – and the maritime routes that went beyond, into the South-East Continent and the Philippines, and later out into the Pacific Islands and the United States. The IAFOR Silk Road Initiative is concerned with all aspects of this contact, and examines both material and intellectual traces, as well as consequences.

www.silkroad.iafor.org

IAFOR Silk Road Initiative

As an organisation, IAFOR's mission is to promote international exchange, facilitate intercultural awareness, encourage interdisciplinary discussion, and generate and share new knowledge. In 2018, we were excited to launch a major new and ambitious international, intercultural and interdisciplinary research initiative that used the silk road trade routes as a lens through which to study some of the world's largest historical and contemporary geopolitical trends, shifts and exchanges.

IAFOR is headquartered in Japan, and the 2018 inauguration of this project aligned with the 150th anniversary of the Meiji Restoration of 1868, when Japan had opened its doors to the trade and ideas that would have precipitate its rapid modernisation and its emergence as a global power.

At a time when global trends can seem unpredictable, and futures fearful, this Silk Road Initiative gives the opportunity to revisit the question of the impact of international relations from a long-term perspective.

This ambitious initiative will encourage individuals and institutions working across the world to encourage research centring on the contact between countries and regions in Europe and Asia, from Gibraltar to Japan, and the maritime routes that went beyond into the South-East Continent and the Philippines, and later out into the Pacific Islands and the United States. The IAFOR Silk Road Initiative will concern all aspects of this contact, and will examine both material and intellectual traces, as well as consequences.

A series of round tables on the IAFOR Silk Road Initiative were held in Japan, the UK and Spain in 2017, and the initiative was a central aspect of a series of conferences, meetings, seminars and workshops from 2018 till now in Asia, Europe and North America.

Rationale

The occidentalisation of history and the grand narrative of European and American progress has consigned the Silk Road instead to historical quaintness, exotic literary caricature in the adventures of Marco Polo, or the sort of esoteric academic investigations that receive little attention. This largely ignores its huge historical and present-day importance and relevance to the routes and paths that continue to connect humans through trade and exchange.

In a world of rankings, algorithms, unedited "news", and self-referential "centres of excellence", it is facile to conclude that the centre and pinnacle of all knowledge is held by a few pockets of venture-capitalbacked open-plan offices in Silicon Valley, or schools and universities in which the cloistered architecture does not even offer the pretence of openness. Globalisation, and the technology that has enabled it, has allowed an immense flowering of possibilities in communication and access to knowledge, while at the same time increasing alienation from self and society, encouraging "virtual" worlds, creating and cementing fissures, and encouraging fear of the foreign. It is only through encounters with difference that we are able to shape ourselves and our ideas, and physical human interaction is and remains at the source of all value. The international, intercultural and interdisciplinary meetings that lie at the heart of IAFOR and this research initiative have never been more important in our globalised world.



IAFOR Silk Road Initiative: 2020 Moscow Roundtable Report

The IAFOR Silk Road Initiative roundtable of 2020 was held in Moscow on February 21, and in partnership with Moscow State University.

The event was hosted by the Moscow State University Institute of Asian and African Studies, and opened by the Director of the Institute, renowned scholar of politics and international relations, Professor Igor I. Abylgaziev. Attended by a group of invited scholars from both universities in Moscow and abroad, the Roundtable was organised with the kind support of the President of the Faculty of Foreign Languages and Area Studies, Professor Svetlana Ter Minasova, and Dr Elena Mishieva, Academic Secretary of the same faculty, and IAFOR Silk Road Initiative Project Coordinator in Moscow.

The roundtable was co-chaired by Professor Georges Depeyrot of the *École Normale Supérieure* (ENS), Paris, and Board member of the *Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique* (CNRS), and Dr Joseph Haldane, Chairman and CEO of IAFOR, and took as its subject, “International Academic Cooperation in Uncertain Times”. The topic was very timely, as this is a period of great global political uncertainty.

Professor Svetlana Ter Minasova delivered the opening address, which set the scene by underlining that most senior academics had effectively lived in two separate countries in succession; The Soviet Union until 1991, and then Russia since that time. She described the Soviet times as the “Kingdom of Prohibitions”, where everything was governed by what could not be done, and by what was prohibited, and there existed an insularity and isolationism, making relations with countries outside the communist sphere difficult.

With the fall of the erstwhile “enemy” of the USSR, the new Russia became suddenly very popular, as different Western companies, NGOs and universities, sought to quickly build relations with the country, and money started to pour in as people sought to gain market position and influence. Although that created funding pools that had until that point been non-existent, it also ushered in an era of inflation, and meant university lecturer wages were not enough to live on, and obliged many to engage in supplementary private tuition, with academics being underpaid and overworked. This has led to the familiar problem of a brain drain, and economic migration, as Russian academics sought higher paid opportunities abroad. Although there have been market reforms introduced, the state education system remains slow and highly bureaucratic. A presentation by Dr Lubov Kulik of the Faculty of Economics at Moscow State University spoke of the economics of education in a presentation that considered education as both a public good and a commodity.

Recently, Russia has found itself more distanced from the west, as a result of, and resulting in, a context of increased authoritarianism and nationalism, and this has often made international research collaborations more difficult, and has seen cuts in funding from such programs as Erasmus +. For its part, the Russian funding bodies have continued to prioritise STEM subjects over the liberal arts, following a policy that mirrors most other countries. In the non-science areas of study, funding is more often directed towards internationally and internally sensitive issues that are often geared towards encouraging internal cohesion, nation building and so on, and in areas such as geopolitics, minority languages and religions; not surprising given that Russia is at once an old and a young country.

The intellectual life of the country is heavily weighted in Moscow and St Petersburg, although there are attempts to ensure that other parts of the country are well funded, and there are wellrespected state universities elsewhere in the country, such as Novosibirsk and Vladivostok, as well as satellite campuses in the former Soviet republics, where Russia maintains considerable economic, cultural and linguistic influence.

The country also enjoys relations with many of the countries it now borders, and although these are historically weighted both positively and negatively, reflect a continued strong regional and cultural influence, where there are also large minority ethnic Russian populations. China has enjoyed a continued intellectual relationship with Russia, and there are frequent exchanges of students and professors alike, and Russian enjoys continued popularity in China, while Chinese is becoming a more popular language option. Professor Tatiana Dobrosklonskaya of Moscow State University, and a Visiting Professor at Beijing International Studies University gave a presentation which looked at the relationship and an overview of educational and cultural exchange between the two countries.

Professor Ljiljana Markovic, Dean of the Faculty of Philology at the University of Belgrade closed the symposium by speaking of the modernisation paradigms of education, and in a context of political instability, drawing attention to crises of identity, both individual and national. She underlined that we must seek ways to collaborate, to work together, and that this is both a philosophical and practical commitment.

In all, the symposium was a great success, and we look forward to future IAFOR Silk Road Initiative events.

Dr Joseph Haldane
Chairman and CEO, IAFOR

Lead Institutions

- The International Academic Forum (IAFOR), Japan
- Osaka University, Japan
- The IAFOR Research Centre (IRC), Japan
- Belgrade University, Serbia
- École Normale Supérieure (ENS), France
- DAMIN, France
- MONETA, France

If you wish to be informed of the latest news and developments, please subscribe to the mailing list on the IAFOR Silk Road Initiative website: www.silkroad.iafor.org



Hong Kong, 2020

October 19–21, 2020

The IAFOR Conference for Higher Education Research – Hong Kong
(cher-hongkong.iafor.org)

New York, 2020

November 7–9, 2020

The IAFOR Conference on Heritage & the City – New York
(hcnv.iafor.org)

Hawaii, 2021

January 3–5, 2021

The IAFOR International Conference on Education – Hawaii
(iicetahawaii.iafor.org)

Virginia (USA), 2021

May 6–8, 2021

The IAFOR Conference on Educational Research & Innovation
(eri.iafor.org)

Tokyo, 2021

March 25–27, 2021

The Asian Conference on Education & International Development
(acid.iafor.org)

March 29–31, 2021

The Asian Conference on Arts & Humanities
(acah.iafor.org)

May 16–18, 2021

The Asian Conference on Language Learning
(acll.iafor.org)

May 24–26, 2021

The Asian Conference on Asian Studies
(acas.iafor.org)

Brighton (UK), 2021

July 12–13, 2021

The European Conference on Arts & Humanities
(ecah.iafor.org)

The European Conference on Media, Communication & Film
(euromedia.iafor.org)

London, 2021

July 19–20, 2021

The European Conference on Education
(ece.iafor.org)

The European Conference on Language Learning
(ecll.iafor.org)

Proceedings of the Asian Conference on Education (ACE 2020)

**SURVIVING & THRIVING:
EDUCATION IN TIMES OF CHANGE**

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