

Korea TESOL Journal

Fall/Winter 2001
Volume 4, Number 1



Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

Korea TESOL Journal Volume 5 Call for Papers

Korea TESOL Journal, a refereed journal, welcomes previously unpublished practical and theoretical articles on topics of significance to individuals concerned with the teaching of English as a foreign language.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

1. classroom-centered research
2. second language acquisition
3. teacher training
4. cross-cultural studies
5. teaching and curriculum methods
6. testing and evaluation

Because the Journal is committed to publishing manuscripts that contribute to bridging theory and practice in our profession, it particularly welcomes submissions drawing on relevant research and addressing implications and applications of this research to issues in our profession.

Action Research-based papers, that is, those that arise from genuine issues in the English language teaching classroom, are welcomed. Such pedagogically-oriented investigations and case studies/reports, that display findings with applicability beyond the site of study, rightfully belong in a journal for teaching professionals.

Korea TESOL Journal was recently awarded a 'B' rating by the *Korea Research Foundation*.

Korea TESOL Journal prefers that all submissions be written so that their content is accessible to a broad readership, including those individuals who may not have familiarity with the subject matter addressed. The Journal is an international journal, welcoming submissions from English language learning contexts around the world, particularly those focusing upon learners from northeast Asia.

GENERAL INFORMATION FOR AUTHORS

Submission Categories

The KOTESOL Journal invites submissions in three categories:

I. Full-length articles. Contributors are strongly encouraged to submit manuscripts of no more than 20-25 double-spaced pages or 8,500 words (including references, notes, and tables).

II. Brief Reports and Summaries. The KOTESOL Journal also invites short reports (less than 1,200 words), manuscripts that either present preliminary findings or focus on some aspect of a larger study. Papers written in pursuit of advanced studies are appropriate for summarization.

III. Reviews. The KOTESOL Journal invites succinct, evaluative reviews of scholarly or professional books, or instructional-support resources (such as computer software, video- or audiotaped material, and tests). Reviews should provide a descriptive and evaluative summary and a brief discussion of the significance of the work in the context of current theory and practice. Submissions should generally be no longer than 1,200 words.

To facilitate the blind review process, do not use running heads. Submit via email attachment or on diskette in MSWord or RTF file. Figures and tables should each be in separate files, bitmap files (.bmp) are preferred. Hardcopy versions may be requested at a later time.

Inquiries/Manuscripts to: Park Joo-kyung (Editor-in-Chief) at ktj52002@yahoo.com

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The Korea TESOL Journal

Volume 4, Fall/Winter 2001

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

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Search for abstracts to Korea TESOL Journal at ERIC and other scholarly reference services.

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The 10th Korea TESOL International Conference
Crossroads: Generational Change in ELT in Asia

October 5 - 6, 2002

Seoul, Korea

Call for papers

There has been a shift in theory, methodology, and classroom procedure in ELT classrooms during the past decade. The effects of this shift have been felt all over the world, especially in Asia, and in Korea in particular. Now is a good time to examine the changes that have occurred, to see what has (and has not) worked, and to determine the direction in which ELT should continue.

Therefore, for its tenth International Conference, **The Korea TESOL Conference Committee** invites presentation proposals in the following English Language Teaching (ELT) areas, dealing particularly with change and innovation, in an Asian context:

- Elementary Education
- Secondary Education
- Adult Education
- Learning strategies and learning styles
- Action research/classroom based research
- Music, Art, and Literature in the EFL classroom
- Video in the classroom
- Cross cultural teaching methodologies and approaches
- Global and environmental education
- Trends in second language acquisition/applied linguistics
- Testing and evaluation techniques
- Alternative approaches and methodologies
- Teaching techniques for mono-lingual classrooms
- Course and curriculum development
- Issues in language and literacy
- Teaching in under-resourced environments
- English for specific purposes (ESP)
- Computer Assisted (CALL) or Multimedia Assisted (MALL) Language Learning
- Socio-linguistics in the classroom
- Teacher training and development
- On-going research
- Other relevant areas of EFL and foreign language teaching

The closing date for the receipt of abstracts and biographical data is June 15, 2002. THIS DEADLINE WILL NOT BE EXTENDED. See the following page for the Presentation Proposal form.

PLEASE NOTE: *It is now the policy of Korea TESOL that all non-commercial presenters at the Korea TESOL International Conference be members of Korea TESOL at the time of the Conference.*

Check the KOTESOL web page for updates:

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Editor's Note

KOTESOL

This year, Korea Research Foundation (KRF) rated journals published by language-related academic societies in Korea on one of three levels: A (international), B (national), and C (regional). The *Korea TESOL Journal* was rated B (national). The rating committee noted that although the *Korea TESOL Journal* does manifest many characteristics of an international journal, it falls short of satisfying other requirements, such as the number of issues per year and certain administrative procedures. Regardless of the KRF's rating, we feel that the *Korea TESOL Journal* is an international journal, as both the contributors and the readers of the journal testify.

This year's issue is a beautiful blend of Korean and international colors. All the articles address issues pertaining to Korean learners (and teachers) of English, whether they are within Korea or beyond. The contributors are also a good mixture of Korean nationals and non-Koreans. There are two Korean authors and seven non-Korean authors contributing to this issue of eight articles. One of the papers was coauthored by a Korean and a non-Korean scholar. Five of the seven non-Korean authors are currently teaching in Korea, and one of the remaining two once taught in Korea. The content of the papers shows a broad spectrum, from a longitudinal case study to more theoretically oriented papers.

- The leading article of the issue is Sang Kyeom Hwang's report of a four-year longitudinal case study on a Korean child's (in the US) reading skill development. Hwang reports on how a child progressed from decoding words into sounds to message comprehension over the period of four years. The study is significant in that it is a longitudinal observation of the reading skill development of an ESL child who started ESL learning at the age of ten.
- The second article, by Mark Kupelian, concerns Korean university students' understanding of culturally loaded words, discussing the degree to which their understanding was equivalent to that of native speakers, and the effect of the length of residence in English speaking countries on the understanding

of cultural connotations. As can be expected, the study shows that non-native speakers have different understanding of cultural connotations from native speakers of English, implying the necessity of the teacher's attention focusing on such differences.

- In the third article, Douglas Margolis, using questionnaires, surveyed compensation strategies of Korean university students in their communication. The study demonstrates that Koreans students use the avoidance strategy most and the code modification strategy least. This may reflect part of Koreans' culture; instead of aggressively pursuing a topic with circumlocutions or metaphors, Koreans elect to give up the entire act of communication on the topic.
- He-Rim Kim and Glenn Mathes examined two types of feedback to student errors: explicit and implicit feedback. The result shows that there is basically no difference in the effect of the two types of feedback. Although number of the subjects in the study was only twenty, the study confirms that explicit error correction is not any better than implicit error correction.
- David Kent's survey of Korean university students' dictionary use and their perceptions regarding dictionaries is a descriptive study that has some implications for course designers. An interesting finding of the study is that students would like to have electronic dictionaries equipped with pronunciation functions. This is certainly a reflection of the changing time of modern technology.

The last three papers are oriented more to teaching than learning, and more to theoretical application than hypothesis testing.

- Trevor Gulliver's paper on EAP starts with an argument for the necessity for EAP (English for Academic Purposes) in Korea, collects questionnaire data about the current status of native English speaker teachers in connection with EAP, and then presents some practical suggestions for effective and smooth implementation of EPA.
- Carolyn Samuel's paper was inspired by her experience of teaching a Korean university course where she used e-mail communications to teach and motivate students. Based on her observation that the computer-mediated communication technique was a very strong motivator, she discusses Keller's ARCS model of instructional design to provide guidance for university English course designers.
- Andrew Finch discusses ways to reduce language learner's anxiety in the classroom, especially in the Korean context. He identifies the ways the teacher

might identify and address students' anxiety, the ways the classroom can create environments conducive to learning, and the roles of materials and self assessment in providing nonthreatening language instruction.

In addition to seven academic papers, the current issue carries nine review articles. Six of these review books of various kinds; two review dictionaries, and one reviews a computer software designed to help grammar learning. Special thanks goes to Dr. David E. Shaffer, the review section editor, for a wonderful job of editing this section.

Korea TESOL Journal is making a steady progress in its quality and quantity of submission. For this issue, the Board of Editors did not spare time and efforts to critically read the papers, make necessary comments and suggestions, and further communicate with authors. The authors willingly cooperated with the editorial board and additional referees and tried their best to make suggested changes. I thank the authors and the editorial board members for the cooperation, especially Professor Robert Dickey, our Managing Editor, for his many sleepless nights over the electronic files from and to the authors and referees and myself. Thanks also to Trevor Gulliver for his hours of dedicated effort in page layout. I have a positive belief that this spirit of cooperation and academic enthusiasm will lay a solid ground for a bright future of the journal.

Oryang Kwon
Seoul National University

About KOTESOL

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

Korea TESOL is proud to be an affiliate of TESOL Inc., an international education association of almost 14,000 members with headquarters in Alexandria, Virginia, USA.

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

KOTESOL is an independent national affiliate of a growing international movement of teachers, closely associated with not only TESOL Inc., but also the Japan Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (JALT), Thailand TESOL (ThaiTESOL), ETA-ROC (English Teachers Assn of the Republic of China/Taiwan), International Association of English Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL), TESL Canada, and most recently with the Far East English Language Teachers Association (Russia).

The membership of KOTESOL includes elementary, middle and high school and university level English teachers as well as teachers-in-training, administrators, researchers, materials writers, curriculum developers and other interested persons. Approximately 40% of the members are Korean.

KOTESOL chapters exist in Seoul, Suwon, Cheongju, Daejeon, Daegu, Busan, and Jeolla Province. Members of KOTESOL hail from all points of Korea and the globe, thus providing KOTESOL members the benefits of a multi-cultural membership.

Annual membership in KOTESOL costs 40,000 Won. Interested in joining KOTESOL? Visit www.kotesol.org for membership information.

Reading Skill Development of an ESL Student: A Four-Year Longitudinal Study

Sang Kyeom Hwang

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Abstract

This is a case study of a Korean ESL student (Dasomi) who started learning English as a second language when she was ten. The study investigated how she developed her reading strategies and how she improved reading comprehension skills over four years. During her first year in the study, Dasomi was more concerned about decoding each word into sound when she engaged in reading. As the reading continued, she learned that reading was about constructing meaning and valued comprehension over sounding words out. The study found that her strong motivation to learn English was the key contribution to the sharp increase in her reading skills. It also found that the learning environment positively influenced her literacy growth. Based on the findings, the study suggests the classroom teachers provide literature-rich environment as well as utilize the reader's workshop classroom. The study also recommended teachers use collaborative retrospective miscue analysis for their classrooms by promoting students' interaction in a group or in class. Students will benefit through development of reading comprehension skills from interacting with others.

I. Introduction

The world has become a smaller place. Technology, NAFTA and relatively inexpensive travel have encouraged more international visits and migration. Many international students study in the United States, return to their own countries, and then make frequent long-term visits to the United States to further their education or gain expertise. That means that their children, too, are moving back and forth between cultures, languages and different ways of schooling.

Similarly, the number of ESL students in American schools is steadily increasing. In some states, such as California, it is not unusual for one classroom to have seven or more countries represented! Many of them migrate to America when they are older and their first language is set. Others may have lived in the U.S. as infants, moved back to their native countries for their primary schooling and then returned. In order to successfully merge these ESL populations into the mainstreaming setting, teachers need to understand these learners better, including their linguistic and cultural background information, beliefs in reading, their unique behaviors and reading strategies.

There is some research available about older ESL students. However, most current studies with older ESL readers have been conducted over a relatively short amount of time, for six months or perhaps a year (Quinn, 1994; Y. Goodman & Marek, 1989). There has been little research documenting the language and literacy growth of these children longitudinally.

This study examined the beliefs about reading of an ESL student, Dasomi, using the Burke Reading Interview (Goodman, Watson & Burke, 1987) over four years. It also investigated her reading behaviors and attitudes towards comprehension through reading aloud and retelling sessions. Miscue analysis (Goodman, Watson & Burke, 1987) and retrospective miscue analysis (“RMA”, Goodman & Marek, 1996) were employed to analyze her reading processes and reading strategies. The miscue analysis sessions were conducted twice a semester as the study went along. Only the excerpts that were regarded as important to discuss in her reading skill development were selected in the paper. The Burke Reading Interviews, the retelling sessions, and the RMA sessions in the first year were conducted in Korean in order to assess her reading comprehension ability without being influenced by her language fluency.

Based on the major findings in the study, the classroom implications are discussed. The study focused on how miscue analysis and retrospective miscue analysis (RMA) could help teachers create better classroom reading instructions.

II. Review of the Literature

Watts-Taffe & Truscott (2000) summarized current research about how children become literate, reporting “language learning proceeds best when children use language for meaningful purposes ... language learning proceeds best when children are encouraged to take risks, experiments, and make mistakes” (p. 259). They asserted that a context-rich environment was a critical element of scaffolding ESL students’ literacy development. They also stated an average time for learning a new language as that “it takes an average of five to seven years for students to become proficient in academic language use” (p. 259).

Many studies presented motivation as an essential determinant of student success (Gardner, 1985; Miller & Meece, 1999; Noels, Pelletier, & Vallerand, 2000). Gardner (1985) presented motivational factors in learning English, including motivational intensity (efforts), attitudes towards learning English, and desire to study English, plus integrative orientation and attitudes towards Americans (p. 50). According to Taylor, Harris, Pearson, & Garcia (1995), students become motivated “when they perceive themselves to be engaged in a task for their own reason (intrinsic) rather than engaged in a task to please others (extrinsic)” (p. 68). Miller & Meece (1999) also supported the importance of the motivational aspect and presented several ways of designing tasks to increase such motivation: (1) Academic tasks should require the use of various self-management and self-regulatory learning strategies, (2) Academic tasks should give students opportunities to use prior knowledge to construct their own understandings, (3) Academic tasks that provide opportunities for students to study collaboratively are thought to be more challenging (p. 20). They recommended teachers utilize different types of academic tasks when assessing students’ motivation, provide relevant task difficulty based on learners’ ability, and to employ activities that could promote students’ motivation.

This study involved providing a literature-rich environment, giving a reader an opportunity to select her own choices of reading materials in order to maintain motivation and interest, and offering time to interact with a researcher after reading each text. Miscue analysis and RMA were used to investigate changes in beliefs and the development of the reading strategies over the year.

Miscue analysis is an evaluation procedure that allows teachers and researchers to examine students’ reading processes, reading behaviors, and oral reading strategies. K. Goodman (1975) identified a miscue as an “actual observed response in oral reading which does not match the expected response” (p. 94). He regarded a miscue as a “window” on the reading process and did not consider it to be an “error” because miscues reflect learners’ strengths rather than their weaknesses. These miscues are the genuine sources that reveal readers’ strategies within the reading process.

The use of miscue analysis and RMA is widely supported in the literature. Wilde (2000) identified miscue analysis as a “powerful procedure for understanding the reading process and the strategies of individual readers” (p. 1). Y. Goodman (1989) defined RMA as an instructional tool that “allows readers to become more aware of their own use of reading strategies and to appreciate their knowledge of the linguistic systems they control as they respond to written texts” (p. 2). This study employed the procedures and analysis of miscues, and examined a selected reader’s responses and justification of her reading.

In addition to the standard procedures of miscue analysis, such as interviewing readers and recording their oral reading and retelling, RMA requires two tape recorders

- one for listening to the previous reading and the other for recording the subsequent discussion of miscues. Goodman & Marek (1996) present the following questions for use in this RMA session:

1. Does the miscue make sense?
2. Does the miscue sound like language?
3. Was the miscue corrected?
4. Why do you think you made this miscue?
5. Did that miscue affect your understanding of the text?

(p. 53)

RMA helps readers increase their knowledge of the reading process and awareness of their strengths as readers. Teachers and researchers receive the same benefits as those in miscue analysis, such as understanding their readers' beliefs about reading and extending this knowledge into curriculum planning, and add even more. Therefore, RMA strengthens the benefits from miscue analysis for both readers and teachers/researchers at the same time.

III. Method

1. About the Subject

Dasomi was born in America, but returned to South Korea when she was three years old. She had never received any formal education in English until she came back to America when she was ten. She was placed in a pull-out ESL program during her first year (in the fourth grade) and had a private English tutor at home while staying in the US. Since her mother firmly supported the "whole language" philosophy, she was encouraged to read as many good books in English as possible at home. I began recording her reading when she had been in America for one year (in her fifth grade), because she had no knowledge of English when she had just arrived. This study examined her growth in reading from the time she began learning English as a second language to the period when she was a fluent speaker, reader, and writer in English.

2. Interviewing the Subject

Over a time span of four years, Dasomi was given the Burke Reading Interview (Goodman, Watson, & Burke, 1987) each year. The Burke Reading Interview is usually conducted with the readers before conducting miscue analysis in order to investigate which reading strategies students think they use, how they value themselves as readers, and their general beliefs about reading. The interview in the first year was conducted in Korean, so that she could express her perception and

strategies in reading, regardless of her language proficiency. Table 1 shows her beliefs in reading, the reported strategies that she would use for something she did not know, and the ways she valued herself as a reader over the years.

Table 1
Summary of the Reading Interview

When you are reading and come to something you don't know, what do you do?

I find the meaning in the dictionary (*September, 1996*).
Reread the sentence again or find the word in the dictionary (*April, 1997*).
There's always something called a dictionary. Or I read the rest of the sentences and figure out in my own words what's going on (*October, 1998*).
There's always dictionary, thesaurus, and an encyclopedia. But it wouldn't hurt to skip and understand the whole meaning (*September, 1999*).

What does someone have to do in order to be a good reader?

Find the meaning of each word in the dictionary (*September, 1996*).
Reread the sentence & understand more words (*April, 1997*).
Read thousands of books and enjoy it (*October, 1998*).
Be open-minded. Not stick to a book or a genre (*September, 1999*).

Do you think you are a good reader?

Not yet, because sometimes I don't think I pronounce the word correctly (*September, 1996*).
Not yet, because there are lots of words that I don't know in the book (*April, 1997*).
Yes, I don't think I am an expert at it but I enjoy doing it (*October, 1998*).
Yes, I tell myself that. Hopefully, I'll improve every time I read (*September, 1999*).

In general, how do you feel about reading?

I think it's good thing to do and to study with the book. And some books has information or facts to use (*September, 1996*).
I think I can be a better reader if I read more books (*April, 1997*).
I think it's really important for everyone to be able to read to have a satisfied life (*October, 1998*).
Reading is the key to writing. It is the only way for one to learn/gain knowledge about writing structure, spelling, punctuation and grammar in general (*September, 1999*).

When Dasomi was first interviewed, she responded that she learned to read by sounding words out from letters. She was greatly concerned about her incorrect pronunciation and she was not a confident reader in the first year of the study (in her fifth grade year).

She continuously stated the use of dictionary when coming across unknown words over the years. This use of dictionary is a well-known strategy that ESL students use consistently to learn a new language. Dasomi believed that finding the meaning of each word in the dictionary was necessary to be a good reader in her fifth grade year. In her sixth grade year, Dasomi added more independent strategies, beyond the use of the dictionary. She dared to use alternative strategies, such as rereading the sentence, reading more books, and being more open-minded in selecting books, in the following years.

When the first year interview was conducted, Dasomi did not regard herself as a good reader because her pronunciation was incorrect. In her sixth grade year, she still did not consider herself as a good reader, but with a different reason: “There are lots of words that I don’t know” instead of “I don’t think I pronounce the word correctly.” This indicates an interest in vocabulary development and not just pronunciation. However, from her seventh grade year, she developed self-confidence in reading, evaluating herself as a good reader. She seemed to enjoy reading and to try to improve her reading ability as the experience continued.

Her perception of reading in general was at first to get information from text, but it developed towards reading for personal pleasure and becoming a life-long reader. In her eighth grade year, she stated that “Reading is the key to writing,” connecting reading with writing in the process of learning a language. She understood that the language skills were intertwined closely each other.

In addition to the reading interview, Dasomi was often asked questions that were related with the study, to obtain more information that might have influenced her reading growth. She stated in the interview that she had strong motivation to learn English since she elected to study in America. Her goal to learn English was very clear and strong, to succeed in her life in America. Dasomi also mentioned in the interview that she followed her mother’s suggestion to read many good books as the best way to develop her second language literacy.

3. Conducting Miscue analysis and Retrospective Miscue Analysis

I met Dasomi twice a semester to observe her development in reading skills. During the miscue analysis sessions, she was provided a variety of choices to select from and was asked to read aloud from what she had selected. Among all the selections that Dasomi had read, the excerpts that were considered to be important were selected for the study. The texts that were used in the study were:

- Fifth grade year-*Space Pet* (a miscue analysis selection, often read by third-fourth graders)
- Sixth grade year-*The Wreck of the Zephyr* (Allsburg, 1983, a picture book, often read by third-fifth graders)
- Sixth grade year-*Rascal* (North, 1991, a chapter book, often read by fourth-fifth graders)
- Seventh grade year-*The Giver* (Lowry, 1993, a science fiction chapter book, often read by fifth-seventh graders).

- Eighth grade year-*Where the Red Fern Grows* (Rawls, 1961, often read by fourth-seventh graders)
- Eighth grade year-*They Cage the Animals at Night* (Burch, 1984, often read by sixth-ninth graders)

All of above texts were new to Dasomi. Before letting her read these stories aloud, she was told that no one would help her during the oral reading and that there would be a retelling session after the reading. Each time her reading was recorded and her reading miscues were marked and coded on the typescript. The procedure for analyzing her miscues followed the instruction in *Reading Miscue Inventory* (Goodman, Watson, & Burke, 1987) and *Retrospective Miscue Analysis* (Goodman & Marek, 1996).

Goodman, Watson, and Burke (1987) suggested that reading materials should include complexity with enough difficulty to cause the reader to make at least 25 miscues for “an in-depth, well-rounded description of a reader’s strategies” (p. 38). They also mentioned that the length of the passage should “rarely be shorter than 500 words” (p. 38). A typescript is prepared beforehand for the teacher to read along with and to use for marking and coding miscues after the reading. Goodman, Watson, & Burke (1987) also recommended that teachers stop the reading only “when readers were making very few miscues or when they were unable to continue independently” (p. 43).

When Dasomi read her first story *Space Pet* in her fifth grade year (October 1996), she made only 18 miscues. Some of her miscues were syntactically and semantically unacceptable. For example, she substituted “there was” for “there has” at the beginning of the story and did not go back to confirm her comprehension. She mostly relied on graphic cues when she read aloud in this first reading by sampling letters in the word. She replaced a proper noun “Sven” with “Seven” and did not correct it. The substituted word is written above the text in miscue analysis studies.

was

101 As far as I know there has

102 never been a rule against pets in

Seven

104 ...until Sven Olsen decided he wanted one.

Since she made fewer miscues (18) when considering the 25 minimum miscues as in the instruction by Goodman, Watson, and Burke (1987), one may regard this text as an easy book to her. However, she was unable to recall the story in her own words after reading this story. She seemed to pay more attention to sounding out each word correctly as it appeared in the text than constructing meaning while reading. Or,

in the dictionary and she tried to sound it out as in the dictionary. She stated that she first predicted this word as a boy's boat name because there were commas before and after the word "Zephyr." Even though she verified the reason why she did not correct this miscue since it did not change the meaning, she preferred to pronounce it as it was found in the dictionary.

Dasomi found another miscue of "moonlight" for "moonlit" from this text. This was a good chance to introduce the terms of "high-quality" miscues (miscues that a reader read differently from the text, but still made sense) and the concept of "overcorrection" (miscues that made sense, but self-corrected). She mentioned that this substitution still made sense without any meaning changes in the context. However she corrected it even though she did not have to.

Dasomi's retelling scores with this reading demonstrated sharp increase in recalling characters evidenced by 80% (40/50) in character analysis, 100% (30/30) in the sequence of event, and 100% (20/20) in the theme development. She recorded 90% in the total score from reading *The Wreck of the Zephyr* (Allsburg, 1983).

Once Dasomi gained some confidence with the picture books, she wanted to challenge herself by selecting more complicated chapter books. She read *Rascal* (North, 1991) in April 1997 and made 42 miscues out of 2656 words. It was obvious that Dasomi was concentrating on the meaning construction while reading this text by substituting, omitting, and self-correcting the words. She first substituted a word "lazy" with "crazy," but realized that her substitution did not make sense. Thus, she corrected it as it was.

512 "He won't dig," Oscar predicted. [©] He's too lazy. ^{crazy}

Dasomi omitted the word "just" and replaced "moment" with "point." Omitting a word is indicated by a circle in the miscue analysis.

625 at ^{point} (just) this moment

She read the sentence as "at this point" for "at just this moment," producing a high-quality miscue, that is, Dasomi read the text differently, but still made sense.

Even with a challenging book *Rascal* (North, 1991), she maintained high scores in recalling characters (42/55%), developing events (30/30%), and identifying theme (14/14%) of the story. Dasomi recorded the total score of 86% in the retelling of this reading.

In her seventh grade year, Dasomi read a chapter from the book *The Giver* (Lowry, 1993) in order to check if she thoroughly understood the term “high-quality” miscue from the previous instruction. She made 36 miscues in this reading, and demonstrated her knowledge of the importance of understanding, evidenced by her comments after the reading, “Did I make good mistakes?” She was confident in reading with more comfortable choices by replacing, omitting, and inserting words. She recorded 90% in the retelling of reading *The Giver* (Lowry, 1993).

When she read *Where the Red Fern Grows* (Rawls, 1989) one year later (in her eighth grade year), Dasomi insisted on reading two chapters, instead of reading one chapter, because she wanted to see more complicated events beyond the first chapter. She was confident in this reading, retold completely, and seemed to enjoy reading the piece. She made 76 miscues out of total 4918 words. She produced 12 high-quality miscues from reading this story by substituting, omitting and inserting words (indicated by ^). Some of the miscues that Dasomi made were:

- would've
- 122 ... department would have to pick up a dead dog.
- 931 I went (back) to my father
- poor
- 1123 My ^ sister yelled their fool ...

According to Goodman & Marek (1996), proficient readers often add or delete words to make the text more comfortable to them, but these miscues do not change meaning.

From reading a fairly long version of the first two chapters in *Where the Red Fern Grows* (Rawls, 1989), Dasomi recalled and developed characters (36/40) and understood the theme (20/20) very well. However, she missed more than a half of the sequence of the events (12/30). This could have been because of the use of a “flashback” technique that confused her in the story. She recorded 78% in the total score. This text seemed to be a little challenging to her.

Dasomi also chose *They Cage the Animals at Night* (Burch, 1984) three months after reading *Where the Red Fern Grows* (Rawls, 1989) in her eighth grade year. Even though she read only one chapter of the story, it was fairly long, containing 7734 words. She frequently paused and reread silently to confirm what was going on in the story. She often used the predicting strategy. For example, Dasomi predicted the situation “Why am I here?” when Jenning was in the middle of nowhere and said, “Am I an orphan?” She also predicted the sentence “What are you doing?” for “Where are you going?” in the story.

- Why am I here?
- 1023 Am I an orphan?
- What are you doing?
- 2135 Where are you going?

Although she did not correct them, all of these predictions were syntactically and semantically acceptable in the context.

When Dasomi read *They Cage the Animals at Night* (Burch, 1984), she was able to recall the characters (47/47) and develop the theme (10/10). She also could develop the events (34/38) fairly well. She recorded a total score of 96% in this reading in her last year in the study. Dasomi’s reading profile was summarized as shown in Table 2. It is listed in the order of Title (Date Conducted), Syntactic Acceptability, Semantic Acceptability, Meaning Change, Graphic Similarity, and Retelling Score.

Table 2
Summary of Reading Profile

| | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------|------------------------|
| Space Pet | (Oct. '96) | 89, 86, 77, 89, 49 |
| The Wreck of the Zephyr | (Feb.'97) | 96, 94, 98, 74, 90 |
| Rascal | (Apr.'97) | 94, 92, 92, 76, 86 |
| The Giver | (Oct. '98) | 90, 88, 87, 67, 88 |
| Where the Red Fern Grows | (Sept. '99) | 99.5, 99, 98, 46, 78 |
| They Cage the Animals at Night | (Dec. '99) | 99.9, 99.7, 99, 51, 96 |

Over the years, her miscues were pretty much syntactically and semantically acceptable and had little meaning change. However, as she gained more experiences with books, Dasomi recorded almost perfect scores in syntactic and semantic acceptability and made no meaning change. The reliance on graphic similarity shows a sharp decrease from 89% to 51%. It was obvious that as the time passed, she was reading the texts less depending on how they looked, in terms of the dependency on graphic cues.

Based on the summary in Table 2, Dasomi seemed to have difficulty comprehending the text when she read *Space Pet* in the first year of reading (in her fifth grade year). From the second year in the study, she seemed to be fairly comfortable recalling the stories. There was a big gap between the first year and the following years in the study. For Dasomi, this experience was especially beneficial in increasing her reading comprehension skills.

In the closing interview, she stated that she felt more pressure reading in English four years ago, but now it has become a fun activity. She appreciated the RMA sessions that we participated in together and she felt herself an active reader. She also pointed out that our discussion led her to understand the story better, and mentioned that she would continue to read good books in order to keep her English as a second language fluent.

IV. The Results of the Study

Based on the four years' observation, there was a big difference between her fifth grade year and the following years in the study. Her sixth and seventh grade years were the times when Dasomi increased self-confidence in reading in the target language, revalued herself as a reader, and developed appropriate reading strategies for better comprehension. Considering the report by Watts-Taffe & Truscott (2000) that "it takes an average of five to seven years for students to become proficient in academic language use" (p. 259), Dasomi shortened this period up to three years.

Considering factors that might have influenced her reading skill development, there were noticeable findings in the study. As Dasomi stated in the interview, her strong motivation to learn English contributed to the sharp increase in her reading skills. She was strongly motivated intrinsically as well as extrinsically in learning English as a second language. Her goal to learn English as well as her efforts and attitudes towards learning English accelerated her literacy development.

Beyond her strong motivation to learn English, it was obvious that the learning environment positively influenced her literacy growth, not only in the reading skill improvement, but also towards the language proficiency development in general. Dasomi was encouraged to read books in English and was asked to retell the story to her mother whenever she finished reading. This home literacy extended to the voluntary attitude at school by checking out more books from the library. She was surrounded by many quality books in and out of school and enjoyed reading them on her own time.

The study helped Dasomi value reading as a meaning construction process. During the first year in the study, Dasomi solely depended on a dictionary when she met something she did not know. She also valued herself as not a good reader because of her incorrect pronunciation. However, due to the instruction in the RMA sessions in the study, Dasomi tried to figure out unknown words by rereading the sentence, continuing her reading, reading more books, and skipping the words as her own strategies. She felt that she was a good reader for the last two years in the study. She seemed to learn that reading for meaning was important, rather than reproducing the text as the author expected. When the study concluded, Dasomi did not regard herself as a second language learner any more. She was a confident and prolific reader, proud to be in an English honor's class at school.

V. Classroom Implications

How can we utilize the collected information to assist teachers in facilitating reading skill development? Informal assessment through Retrospective Miscue Analysis (RMA) does not provide a complete picture of the reader's competency. However, it offers teachers an opportunity to reflect on the process of reading and strategies in which their students are engaged in creating meaning. These observations and the analysis help teachers design an appropriate instructional lesson plan to scaffold the student's ability in reading.

Unlike other devices that are more interested in the accuracy of oral language proficiency, such as the running record, the focuses of RMA are on fluency and comprehension by highlighting the purpose of reading as a meaning making process. Some ESL students are fairly fluent in their oral reading, but fail to recall the stories after completing their readings (Rigg, 1976). RMA values the readers' strengths, frequently reminding them how good readers do in constructing meaning. Students are encouraged and praised by the ways that they used and developed their own strategies to comprehend the texts. It also detects their weaknesses in order to help them become better readers using quality literature.

Wilde (2000) pointed out that "once you've truly understood miscue analysis, you'll never listen to a reader in the same way again" (p. 101). As teachers gain experiences with miscue analysis, they will become more attentive to the reader's strengths of what he or she can do well and how he or she is using cueing systems of written language, instead of measuring how poorly a student is performing.

According to Chaleff & Ritter (2001),

Miscue analysis is a time-consuming task that is well worth the time and effort because it provides insightful information about each student's reading process that cannot be obtained from any other assessment tool.

(p. 199)

For today's diverse classroom, Wilde (2000) recommends teachers utilize the reader's workshop classroom. Setting up self-selected reading time and conducting regular conferences with students are parts of the consideration in the workshop classroom. In response to one of the criticisms about miscue analysis, concerning the complicated procedure and time constraints for over 20 students in a classroom, Wilde (2000) suggests teachers "jot down a few lines about the student's miscues, his or her understanding of what she read, and a good next step for him or her" (p. 102) during each conference. The constructive mini-lessons, based on students' performance on their reading will positively help both the readers themselves and the teacher for better learning and teaching.

For practical classroom use, Brown (1996) recommends teachers utilize collaborative retrospective miscue analysis (CRMA). CRMA adds another dimension to retrospective miscue analysis by promoting students' interaction in a group or in a whole class. Many studies (see Smith, 1994; Taylor, Harris, Pearson, & Garcia, 1995) have reported the essence of social interaction in enhancing reading comprehension. Teachers in the classroom will have a great opportunity to develop their insights into the students' reading processes by letting them read aloud to the group or to the class and observing their discussions with others. Students' development of reading skills will benefit from interacting with others.

The Author

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Korean EFL Students' Acquisition of Culturally Loaded Words

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Abstract

The following study on Korean EFL learners was conducted to ascertain the extent to which certain English words have a cultural bias in Korea. Specifically, the study attempted to determine (1) whether Korean EFL students' understanding of culturally loaded words was equivalent to that of Native English Speakers (NES) and (2) to what extent Korean students studying English in an English-speaking country for more than 4 months accounts for such understanding. The study involved 108 Korean university students, all of whom were taking intermediate courses in English at their university. Of this main group, 54 had studied English in an English-speaking country for more than 4 months and 54 were English majors but had never studied abroad. As a control group, 54 native-English speaking Australian university students were surveyed. The three groups were asked to rate the appropriateness of 11 words considered to be culturally loaded and 4 culturally neutral words in sentences that provided adequate contextual information. Inadequate L2 learners' understanding of culturally loaded words suggests that teachers should be more aware of the existence of the differences in cultural connotations of words between cultures. Other pedagogical implications include the necessity for words to be taught in a social and cultural context. The research also brought to light unexpected differences in attitudes to words originally thought to have particular connotations.

Introduction and Review of Literature

According to authors Liu and Zhong (1999), research on the acquisition of culturally loaded words is a neglected area of study. Indeed, their study represents one of a few empirical studies undertaken to examine the above issue directly in an Asian context. Their research showed some, but inadequate, L2 learners'

understanding of culturally loaded words, when compared to the understanding held by native English speakers (NES). Even most of the advanced EFL students did not seem to recognise the cultural connotations of many culturally loaded words presented in the study. Previously, Qi (1992) examined culturally loaded words on four subjects only (3 Chinese ESL learners and 1 Canadian NES) and concluded that despite overlapping conceptual relationships in the central meaning of culturally loaded words, there were striking individual differences in connotation. Qi's study provided the catalyst for Liu and Zhong's more in-depth research and analysis.

Interestingly, a study conducted on a mixed-cultural group of non-native speakers (NNS) of French concluded that many connotations were shared by the NNS and NS group members (Wharton, 1995).

The following study on Korean EFL learners was conducted to ascertain the extent to which certain words have a cultural bias in Korea. Liu and Zhong proposed two questions, namely, whether Chinese EFL students' understanding of selected culturally loaded words "approximates" that of NES, as does their understanding of other words; and, to what extent EFL proficiency "accounts for such approximation" (p.177). This study is an attempt to determine (1) whether Korean EFL students' understanding of culturally loaded words is equivalent to that of NES and (2) to what extent Korean students studying English in an English-speaking country for more than 4 months accounts for such understanding. The second question was chosen because a proportion of students at Korean universities have studied abroad and it would be interesting to know whether they have gained any cultural understanding of certain vocabulary. Additionally, if they did have a better cultural understanding of words and they were included with the rest of the Korean students in the study, their answers would 'skew' the overall results.

Liu and Zhong state: "For ESL/EFL students to miss the cultural connotations of these words could easily cause serious problems in their communication with native speakers" (p. 178). Their supposition can be supported with an example of the kind of miscommunication that can occur between NES and Korean EFL students. Koreans use "younger sister" as a term to describe any Korean female who is younger than they are. However, when describing going out on a date with a girlfriend, they may transfer this term so that they say they "went out on a date with their younger sister." This sounds very inappropriate in English! Although a one-to-one semantic correspondence between English and Korean may not always exist, the difficulty is for students of English to be semantically aware of the English word and its true meaning in a given context. The word "lover" is a case in point. In English, "lover" always implies a sexual relationship. Yet, in Korean, sexual relations are not necessarily a part of the definition of "lover", as in "aein". Thus, the lack of understanding of this semantic difference can lead to a culturally inappropriate use of the word.

Pedagogical implications for this research showing inadequate L2 learners' understanding of culturally loaded words would suggest that L2 proficiency does not necessarily improve L2 students' understanding of culturally loaded words. As teachers we should therefore become more aware of the existence of the differences in cultural connotations of words between cultures. Additionally, words should be taught in a social and cultural context.

Method

Subjects

The study included, as a control group, 54 native-speaker Australian students at a university in Queensland and 108 Korean-speaking university students at a university in Kimhae, South Korea. Of the 108 Korean students, 54 had studied English in an English-speaking country for more than 4 months and 54 are English majors who had never studied abroad. All the Korean students had studied English for at least 6 years before they entered university and all are taking intermediate courses in English at the university. All the students would be classified as either intermediate or advanced English language students.

Instruments

Fifteen vocabulary items were selected, and a sentence was generated for each item to form a survey test (Appendix). The sentences were written in such a way that the words were fully contextualised, and the clarity of the sentences was checked by linguistics faculty at the university in Queensland. Based on the author's knowledge and observations about Korean and English usage, and verification by both English-speaking Korean and NES members of the Department of Foreign Languages at a Korean university, nine of the words were considered inappropriate in English but appropriate in Korean in the way they were used. These nine words included "foreigner", "submissive", "lover", "handicapped", "played", "sick", "wasted", "old" and "sister". The Korean word for "foreigner", for example, "woegugin" or "woeguk saram" are used extensively in Korea, yet the English counterpart may have negative racist connotations. It is likely that the word "submissive" when used to describe a female may have positive connotations in Korea since traditionally submission was valued in Korean wives, yet it has negative connotations in English. The word "lover" is often misused in Korea, implying love between members of the opposite sex but not necessarily involving sex. It was envisaged that the word "handicapped" would be considered appropriate to a Korean, yet it may have negative connotations in English, where we may prefer to use the word "disabled". Although Korean has two words, "jang ae ja", which now has negative connotations, and

“jang ae in”, which does not, this study is concerned with Korean students awareness of the connotations of “handicapped” as it is used in English. The word “play” is often misused by Korean students of English to describe activities done between adults and adolescents, whereas in English it is used to describe activities done between children or to describe sports. As in Chinese culture, Koreans may readily give their opinion about a person’s health. Thus, Koreans readily tell a person that they look “sick.” NES are not accustomed to having people they don’t know well, particularly students, telling them they look sick. It was envisaged that Koreans may offer some attempt at humility as do the Chinese in their culture after having spent some time with an elder (Woo and Stephens, 1991). For example, a student may apologise to his/her professor for having “wasted” their time (after having spent some time with them). Although the Korean expressions may or may not involve a direct translation of the word “wasted”, that is, as in, “sigan eul heobi hage haetta” (cause you to waste time) or “sigan eul bbae assatta” (I took (by force) your time) in this situation, the attitude of the students, that is, feeling guilty for spending time with their professor would be reflected in their consideration of the appropriateness of the word “wasted”. To NES, the word “wasted” may imply the time spent was unprofitable or that students are unnecessarily humble or perhaps even obsequious. It is possible that Koreans may find this appropriate whereas in English this would be considered inappropriate. The word “old” is not in Korean; it is in English. There are numerous words in Korean used to express the different meanings of English “old.” In referring to a person’s age, a Korean word with a positive connotation may be selected or one with a negative connotation may be selected. In English, however, “old” generally has negative connotations when used to describe appearances. Finally, Koreans use “younger sister” to describe females who are younger than they are and with whom that have a close relationship. However, when describing going out on a date with a girlfriend, they may transfer this term so that they say they “went out on a date with their younger sister”. This sounds very inappropriate in English. In this study, two words were included that were regarded as appropriate in English and possibly inappropriate in Korean. The word ‘smoking’ was expected to have a negative connotation when associated with woman. Traditionally in Korea, young women are frowned upon if they smoke in public. The word ‘beard’ has connotations in Korea of laziness and dirtiness.

Lastly, the words ‘pollution’, ‘ugly’, ‘instructions’ and ‘stupid’ were chosen as control items to avoid having items strictly appropriate in either English or Korean. ‘Instruction’ is culturally neutral in both languages; ‘pollution’, ‘ugly’ and ‘stupid’ carry negative connotations in both English and in their Korean counterparts.

The subjects were asked to rate the appropriateness of these words in the sentence using a 1 to 5 scale where 1 meant the word was absolutely appropriate; 2 meant the word was slightly appropriate; 3 meant the rater did not know; 4 meant the

rater thought it was slightly inappropriate; 5 meant the word was absolutely inappropriate.

The two EFL groups were allowed to use English Korean dictionaries.

Procedures

Pilot Study: Verification of the Items' Cultural Connotations

In order to ascertain whether the items did in fact have cultural connotations in the contexts mentioned, a pilot study was undertaken in which the survey questions were given to 7 native speakers of English, 7 Korean university students majoring in English and 7 Korean university students who had studied in an English speaking country for more than 4 months (Appendix). It is presumed that students studying in an English speaking country may have the opportunity to become sensitive to the semantic differences and gain an understanding of the cultural connotation of certain words through their experiences being immersed in the English language

Statistical Analysis of the Pilot Study

To answer the first question, “whether Korean EFL students’ understanding of culturally loaded words is equivalent to that of native speakers of English”, called for a comparison of Korean subjects’ ratings of the words with those of the NESs. Since the Korean students were divided into two levels, students who had studied English overseas for more than four months and those who had not, an ANOVA was conducted, followed by a Tukey’s test to determine if there were significant differences between the ratings of the words by the three groups, namely the native English speakers (NES), the nonnative speakers who have studied overseas for more than four months (NNOS), and those nonnative speakers who have never studied overseas (NNS).

It should be noted that because two of the vocabulary items in the study, “smoked” and “beard”, were thought to be appropriate in English and not in Korean, whereas the remaining words were thought to be appropriate in Korean and not in English, or culturally neutral, it was decided that a separate ANOVA should be conducted on the two items. However, the Tukey’s test was rendered on each of the 15 vocabulary items. This test should help answer the second research question: “to what extent Korean students studying English in an English speaking country for more than 4 months accounts for their understanding of culturally loaded words?” In addition to ascertaining whether there were significant differences between the students who had been overseas, the students who had never been overseas, and the native speakers, the Tukey’s test would also pinpoint where the differences were. To further and more directly answer this second research question, the

coefficients of determination generated from the ANOVA would be checked to determine how much the “depth” of English vocabulary knowledge (Read, in Lui and Zhong, 1999) might account for the variance between the three groups’ ratings on the test items.

The ANOVA applied to vocabulary items that were considered either appropriate in Korean and inappropriate in English (that is, “foreigners”, “sister”, “submissive”, “played”, “lover”, “sick”, “handicapped”, “old” and “wasted”) and those which were culturally neutral (that is, “polluted”, “ugly”, “stupid” and “instructions”) showed a significant difference among the three groups’ overall ratings. The results are shown in Table 1. The ANOVA applied to the two vocabulary items that were considered appropriate in English but inappropriate in Korean showed no significant difference among the three groups’ overall ratings. A Tukey’s test was then conducted on all the vocabulary items (Table 2 and Figure 1).

The results of the Tukey’s test appear to distinguish four culturally neutral words, “handicapped”, “polluted”, “wasted” and “instructions”, (two of which, “handicapped” and “wasted” were originally thought to be culturally loaded), from the remaining culturally loaded words.

The items “instructions” and “polluted” were both regarded as culturally neutral by each of the three groups. “Instructions” was regarded as appropriate to somewhat appropriate, that is, the average mean score for NES was 1.43, for NNOS was 2.14 and for NNS was 2.14. “Polluted” scored similarly with the NES average mean of 1.71, NNOS 2.43 and NNS 2.00.

The item “wasted” was considered somewhat inappropriate across all three groups, who each gave it a mean score of 3.57. This result was entirely unexpected: it was supposed that Korean students, especially those who had never been abroad, to rate “wasted” in this context as entirely appropriate. This is in keeping with the Confucian principles of respecting your teacher. Further, Korean society is regarded as even less egalitarian than Chinese society. At this stage it was supposed that the sample size ($n=7$) was too small to show a true representation of Korean students’ thinking. (However, the larger study also confirmed these results, indicating that “wasted” is in fact culturally neutral word).

The item “handicapped” scored between appropriate and somewhat appropriate for all three groups. It was expected that NES would find the word inappropriate due to the influence of the political correctness movement in Western countries. Nevertheless, it was felt that a large sample size may reveal a different trend. The first item “smoked” showed a significant difference between NES, with a group mean of 1.29 and NNS with a mean of 2.71. The NNOS scored 1.86, which was closer to the NES and significantly different from the NNS. This indicates that NES and NNOS found the word appropriate to somewhat appropriate, in contrast to the

Table 1

ANOVA Summary Table of Total Scores Across Three Groups for Questions 2 to 4, 6 to 15

| Source | df | sums of squares | mean squares | F ratio | p |
|----------------|-----------|-----------------|--------------|---------|--------|
| Between groups | 2 | 6.66 | 3.33 | 3.7 | < 0.05 |
| Within groups | 36 | 32.31 | .90 | | |
| Total | 38 | 38.97 | | | |

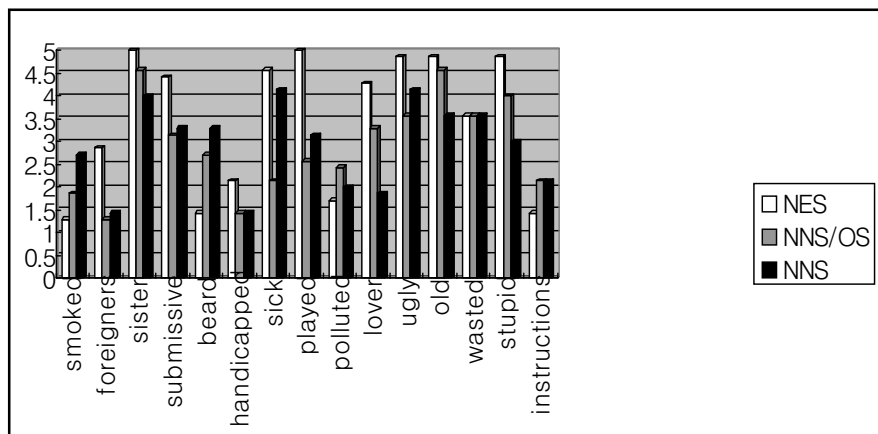
Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Tukey Test Results of Comparison between the Three Groups' Ratings

| Item | NES (N=7) | | NNS/OS (N=7) | | NNS (N=7) | |
|--------------|--------------|------|-----------------|------|--------------|------|
| | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD |
| Smoked | 1.29a | 0.70 | 1.86a | 1.36 | 2.71b | 1.48 |
| Foreigners | 2.86a | 1.64 | 1.29b | 0.45 | 1.43b | 1.05 |
| Sister | 5.00a | 0.00 | 4.57ab | 0.49 | 4.00b | 1.31 |
| Submissive | 4.42a | 0.50 | 3.14b | 0.99 | 3.29b | 1.48 |
| Beard | 1.43a | 0.73 | 2.71b | 1.28 | 3.29c | 1.16 |
| Handicapped | 2.14a | 1.07 | 1.43a | 0.73 | 1.43a | 0.73 |
| Sick | 4.57a | 0.73 | 2.14b | 0.95 | 4.14a | 1.36 |
| Played | 5.00a | 0.00 | 2.57b | 1.29 | 3.14b | 1.64 |
| Polluted | 1.71a | 0.88 | 2.43a | 1.50 | 2.00a | 0.93 |
| Lover | 4.29a | 0.70 | 3.29a | 1.25 | 1.86b | 0.99 |
| Ugly | 4.86a | 0.35 | 3.57b | 0.73 | 4.14ab | 1.36 |
| Old | 4.86a | 0.35 | 4.57a | 0.73 | 3.57b | 0.90 |
| Wasted | 3.57a | 1.50 | 3.57a | 1.40 | 3.57a | 1.18 |
| Stupid | 4.86a | 0.86 | 4.00a | 1.07 | 3.00b | 1.20 |
| Instructions | 1.43a | 0.73 | 2.14a | 1.24 | 2.14a | 0.83 |

Figure 1

Item Group Mean



NNS who found it somewhat appropriate. It was expected that “smoked” would generate a greater significant difference between the NNS and the NES. It is possible that the gender of the students had a bearing on the result. In Korea, males disapprove of female smokers, but females do not necessarily condemn other females who smoke.

The item “beard” was considered appropriate by NES (at 1.43) and differed significantly from NNOS who rated the word at 2.71. The NNS differed significantly from both the NES and NNOS by rating the word at 3.29, indicating they were unsure as to the appropriateness of the word. In Korea, though traditionally regarded as a status symbol, beards are considered dirty and a sign of laziness; thus, the use of the word “beard” in association with “smart-looking” would seem incongruous. Again, it is possible that the NNS sample size for the pilot study was too small and that it was expected that in a larger sample size for the main study the results would give a clearer picture.

The mean ratings for the item “foreigners” showed a significant difference between NES and all NNS, regardless of whether they had been overseas. The NES mean score of 2.86 indicated they thought it was somewhat appropriate. The NNOS mean score of 1.29 was not significantly different from the NNS mean score of 1.43 indicating both groups thought the word to be appropriate. It was anticipated that the NES would find the word “foreigner” inappropriate. However, it was thought that, since the NES surveyed have been living in Korea for a few years they may have become desensitised to this often-used word and may even use it themselves. This had significant implications for a main study in that it was decided that NES chosen for the main study survey should not have been exposed to Korean culture.

The mean scores for “sister” indicate a significant difference between the NES and the NNS. The NES mean score was 5.00 indicating a distinct inappropriate, whereas the NNS scored 4.00, indicating somewhat inappropriate. The NNOS mean score (4.57) fell between these two scores. It was felt that most NNS would find sister appropriate, however, there may have been some confusion as to the meaning of the sentence. That is, “He really likes *his* younger sister”, could be taken to mean that he likes someone else’s younger sister. The main study needed a clarification of this sentence. The NES group’s mean score of 4.42 on “submissive” indicates that they found the word inappropriate. There was a significant difference between NES mean score and NNOS mean score (3.14). There was also a statistically significant difference between the NNOS and the NNS (3.29). This could be explained by the fact that in Korea women do take a recessive role in a relationship and, traditionally, submission is seen as a positive aspect in Korean society. The reason why NNS scored closer to the NES on this question could be due to the differences in gender of the scorers. A female student could rate the word as more inappropriate than a male student. Additionally, while, traditionally, submission is seen as positive, recent changes with regard to a growing women’s movement may affect women’s outlook on relationships.

The mean score for the word “sick” was rather surprising. The NES mean score of 4.57 indicated that they thought it was inappropriate and was not significantly different from the NNS, whose mean score of 4.14 also indicated they rated “sick” as inappropriate. However, NNOS mean rating of 2.14 indicated they thought the word somewhat appropriate. This result is difficult to interpret though was thought possible that the NNOS are perhaps more familiar with their English professors since their proficiency in English enables them to talk more freely. The psychological barrier may be lifted in the NNOS, due to their experience in the NES’s country, thus giving them a false sense of familiarity. In Korea, it is quite acceptable for one to ask about another’s health even if they are in a position of seniority. On the other hand, NNS perhaps feel a distance from their English professors and retain a distance normally reserved for those in senior positions that one does not know well. It seems that when NES are involved there seems to be a different rule system in place about what is appropriate or inappropriate. These results indicate that for the main study perhaps the question should state: “A student commenting on her professor’s appearance, ‘Dr Kim, you look sick.’”

The item “played” showed a significant difference between NES, whose mean score of 5.00 indicated a definite inappropriate, and NNOS, whose mean score of 2.57 indicated somewhat appropriate. The NNS mean score of 3.14 while significantly different from the NES indicated they were unsure as to its appropriate/inappropriateness. However, the standard deviation for NNS was high at 1.64 and indicates a high variability in the results. Perhaps some students are in fact aware of the inappropriateness of “played” and have been explicitly taught this in the past. However, since “played” is often misused by students, its misuse should be confirmed in a larger study.

The item “lover” showed a significant difference between the NES group with a mean score of 4.29 indicating inappropriate and NNS with a mean score of 1.86 indicating appropriate/somewhat appropriate. The NNOS in this case seemed to confirm the notion that exposure overseas does in fact improve semantic and/or knowledge of culturally loaded words. The group’s mean score of 3.29 indicated some students thought the word inappropriate. It was thought that the name Nam-mi should be changed to something readily understood by NES in Australia. An English name such as Sharon is well-known in Korea since it is a movie star’s name.

The mean scores of the item “ugly” indicated that all groups found the word inappropriate or somewhat inappropriate, confirming in part its cultural neutrality. However, there was a significant difference between NNOS who scored 3.57 and NES who scored 4.86. There is the notion that NNOS who have experienced a liberty of expression unlike their counterparts who have never left Korea may apply this to any situation and are, in effect, unaware of the “rules” that define a certain word’s use.

The results of the item “old” were rather illuminating in that it was expected that the Korean students would have a similar semantic understanding of the word as Chinese students. In fact the results mirrored, in part, those of the Chinese study: The NES mean score of 4.86 did not differ significantly from that of NNOS at 4.57, but did differ significantly from the NNS who scored 3.57. According to the Chinese study, “old” is a more frequently used word and therefore EFL students are more likely to encounter it in their studies.

The item “stupid” showed a significant difference between the NES who scored a mean of 4.86, the NNOS a mean of 4.00, and the NNS whose mean was 3.00. In other words, the NES and the NNOS found “stupid” inappropriate or somewhat inappropriate, whereas the NNS were unsure. However, the standard deviation for NNS was high at 1.20 indicating a large variability in the results - clearly a bigger sample size is needed to gain a clearer picture of the understanding of the word. These results also mirrored those of the Chinese study, which found that advanced EFL students understanding of the word closely approximated that of the NES group.

The Main Study

After the pilot study a new survey test was created based on pilot study results, to remove ambiguity or distracters, clarifying the contextual meanings of all the items (Appendix). The instructions were also simplified for the benefit of the NNS students. The survey was given to 54 native-English-speaker Australian university students, 54 intermediate/advanced EFL university students in Korea and 65 intermediate/advanced EFL Korean university students who had studied English abroad. Of the 65 students who had studied abroad, those surveys which had been completed by students who had studied for less than 4 months were eliminated, leaving 54 completed surveys. Of this group, the time ranged from 4 months to 1 year.

Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis process of the main study mirrored that of the pilot study.

Results and Discussion

The ANOVA applied to vocabulary items that were considered appropriate in Korean and inappropriate in English and those which were culturally neutral showed a significant difference among the three groups' overall ratings. The results are shown in Table 3a. The ANOVA applied to the two vocabulary items that were considered appropriate in English but inappropriate in Korean also showed a significant difference among the three groups' overall ratings (Table 3b). A Tukey's test was then conducted on all the vocabulary items (Table 4 and Figure 2).

TABLE 3a
ANOVA Summary Table of Total Scores Across Three Groups
for Questions 2, 3, 4, 6-15

| Source | df | sums of squares | mean squares | F ratio | p |
|----------------|-----|-----------------|--------------|---------|-------|
| Between Groups | 1 | 7.19 | 7.19 | 34.24 | <0.01 |
| Within Groups | 159 | 32.62 | 0.21 | | |
| Total | 161 | 39.81 | | | |

R= 0.18

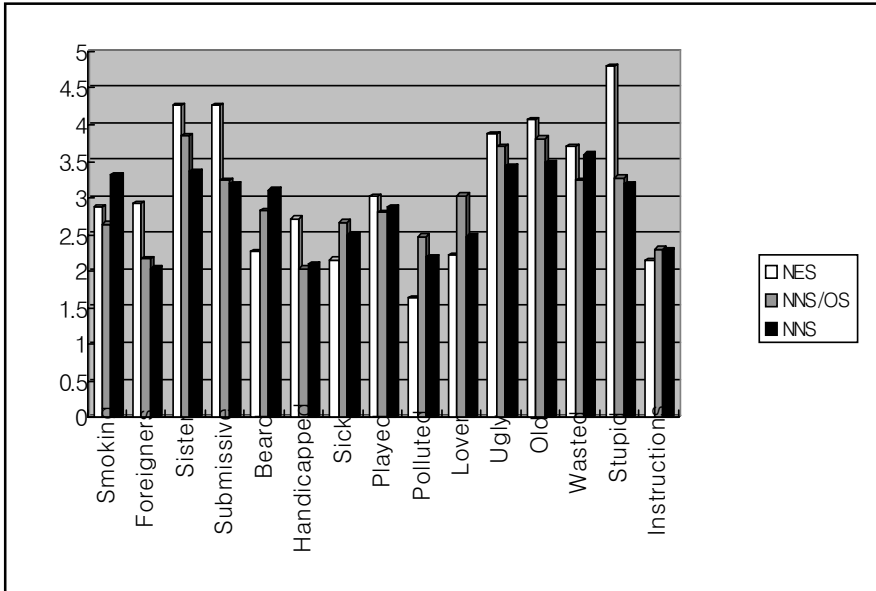
TABLE 3b
ANOVA Summary Table of Total Scores Across Three Groups
for Questions 1 and 5

| Source | df | sums of squares | mean squares | F ratio | p |
|----------------|-----|-----------------|--------------|---------|-------|
| Between Groups | 1 | 7.34 | 7.34 | 8.25 | <0.01 |
| Within Groups | 159 | 141.31 | 0.89 | | |
| Total | 161 | 148.65 | | | |

Table 4
 Means, Standard Deviations, and Tukey Test Results of Comparison
 between the Three Groups' Ratings

| Item | NES (N=54) | | NNS/OS (N=54) | | NNS (N=54) | |
|--------------|---------------|------|------------------|------|---------------|------|
| | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD |
| Smoking | 2.87a | 1.26 | 2.65a | 1.44 | 3.31a | 1.50 |
| Foreigners | 2.93a | 1.16 | 2.17b | 1.31 | 2.04b | 1.30 |
| Sister | 4.27a | 1.22 | 3.85b | 1.52 | 3.37c | 1.77 |
| Submissive | 4.27a | 1.02 | 3.24b | 1.09 | 3.20b | 1.25 |
| Beard | 2.27b | 1.26 | 2.83ab | 1.51 | 3.11a | 1.37 |
| Handicapped | 2.72a | 1.55 | 2.04b | 1.43 | 2.10b | 1.31 |
| Sick | 2.16a | 0.95 | 2.67b | 1.39 | 2.50ab | 1.59 |
| Played | 3.02a | 1.24 | 2.81a | 1.63 | 2.87a | 1.55 |
| Polluted | 1.63a | 0.94 | 2.48b | 1.51 | 2.19ab | 1.27 |
| Lover | 2.22a | 1.06 | 3.04b | 1.52 | 2.48a | 1.34 |
| Ugly | 3.87a | 1.16 | 3.70ab | 1.35 | 3.44b | 1.56 |
| Old | 4.07a | 1.04 | 3.81ab | 1.07 | 3.48b | 1.09 |
| Wasted | 3.70a | 1.13 | 3.24b | 1.34 | 3.59ab | 1.27 |
| Stupid | 4.80a | 0.53 | 3.28b | 1.59 | 3.19b | 1.29 |
| Instructions | 2.15a | 1.43 | 2.31a | 1.41 | 2.28a | 1.17 |

Figure 2
Item Group Mean



Culturally Neutral Words

The results of the Tukey’s test show that of the words originally supposed to be culturally neutral (“ugly”, “stupid”, “polluted” and “instructions”), only “instructions” was rated on average as slightly appropriate by all three groups. Thus, there was no significant difference for the word between all three groups.

“Polluted” was regarded as appropriate by NES, but only slightly appropriate, and significantly so, by the NNOS. Oddly, the NNS rated the word on average as slightly appropriate but there was no significant difference between their rating and either the NES or the NNOS. Perhaps, NNOS feel a heightened sense of patriotism and, interpreting the question as a reflection on the environmental condition of their country, become defensive when associating “pollution” with their rivers.

The word “smoking” was given an average rating between slightly appropriate by NES to slightly inappropriate by NNS. However, the difference was not statistically significant at $p < .01$ (but was significant at $p < .05$). It was expected that “smoking” would generate a greater significant difference between the NNS and the NES. It is possible that the gender of the students had a bearing on the result. In Korea males disapprove of female smokers but females do not necessarily condemn other females

who smoke. Additionally, NES may be considering the health aspect of smoking and are therefore unsure about the appropriateness of the concept.

The word “played” generated very strange and unexpected results. On average, all three groups rated the word between “I don’t know” and “Slightly appropriate”. There was no statistically significant difference between the three groups. It was anticipated that NES would view “played” as absolutely inappropriate, since the word has connotations of either a sexual or childish nature. It appears that Australian university students do not view the word this way.

Connotatively Different Words Due To Cultural Differences

The remaining items generated means that were significantly different between groups. The most surprising result was for the item “stupid” which, as in the Chinese study, was originally thought to be neutral but in fact generated the largest mean differences between groups. The NES mean score of 4.80 differed significantly from both NNS and NNOS, which scored 3.19 and 3.28 respectively. Thus, NES regarded “stupid” as absolutely inappropriate but all NNS rated it between “I don’t know” and “slightly inappropriate”.

The word “submissive” also generated significantly different mean scores between NES, who scored an average of 4.27, and the two groups of NNS, whose mean scores were 3.20 (NNS) and 3.24 (NNOS). This indicates that NES regard the word submissive to be absolutely inappropriate whereas NNS in general are unsure. It also appears that spending some time in an English-speaking country does not necessarily promote cultural awareness of the use of this word.

The item “foreigners” produced a significant difference between NES and the groups of NNS. The NES mean score of 2.93, indicating “I don’t know” seems surprising. Presumably some of the students thought it was appropriate and others inappropriate. The NNOS mean score of 2.17 and the NNS mean score of 2.04 indicate they think the word is slightly appropriate. It appears therefore that their understanding, while not differing significantly between themselves, differs from that of the NES group.

The item “sister” generated mean scores that were significantly different between all groups. NES gave the item a mean score of 4.27, indicating the word slightly inappropriate to absolutely inappropriate. The NNOS mean score of 3.85, indicates they rated the word slightly inappropriate, whereas the NNS mean score of 3.37 indicates they were not sure. This result seems to indicate that some time spent overseas may improve their semantic understanding of some words.

The means for the item “beard” differed significantly between the NES (2.27) and the NNS (3.11). This indicates that the NES thought the word slightly appropriate

whereas the NNS indicated that they didn't know. The NNOS mean of 2.83 was in between these two scores also indicating that some time overseas may affect the semantic understanding of some words.

The means for the groups for "handicapped" yielded significant differences between the NES, whose mean score of 2.72 edges towards "I don't know", and both the NNS groups, whose mean scores of 2.04 (NNOS) and 2.10 (NNS) indicated they thought the word slightly appropriate. Thus, the two NNS groups rated the item as being more appropriate than the NES.

The mean scores for "sick" were rather odd: The NES rated the word as slightly appropriate, with a score of 2.16; the NNOS rated the word towards "I don't know", with a score of 2.67; and the NNS rated the word between "slightly appropriate" and "I don't know". It seems here that the NES rated the word as being more appropriate than the NNS group, which contradicts both earlier suppositions about the item and the pilot study. It was supposed that NES students would not consider commenting on a professor's appearance, perhaps students at this particular university in Queensland have a friendlier relationship with their professors.

These results were also mirrored by responses for the item "lover". Although it was anticipated that NES would rate the item as inappropriate, as they did in the pilot study, they nevertheless rated the word as slightly appropriate (2.22) which, although differing significantly from the NNOS, whose mean rating for the word was 3.04, did not differ significantly from the NNS, who rated the word with an average of 2.48. Perhaps this is due to a more open attitude toward sex by NESs from the speech community surveyed.

The word "ugly" was given a mean rating of 3.87 by the NES and differed significantly from the NNS, who rated the word at 3.44. Although both these scores are in the "I don't know" to the "slightly inappropriate" range, the degrees of inappropriateness differ significantly between the two groups. The NNOS rated the word at 3.70, which did not differ significantly from the other two groups.

The word "old" generated some significant differences which followed similar patterns to the above. The NES mean score of 4.07 indicates they rate it as slightly inappropriate, whereas the NNS mean score of 3.48 indicates they rate it between "I don't know" and "slightly inappropriate." The differences were significant in this case. The NNOS mean score of 3.81 falls in between these scores and did not differ significantly with either score.

Finally, the item "wasted" generated a mean score of 3.70 for NES, indicating they thought the word slightly inappropriate. This differed significantly for the NNOS who rated the word 3.24, indicating that they didn't know. The score for the NNS fell between these two scores and was not significantly different from either of them.

Conclusions

The fact that the NNOS average ratings were not consistently closer to those of the NES group than the average ratings of the NNS indicates that spending at least 4 months studying overseas does not necessarily improve an EFL student's understanding of cultural connotations of these words. The r-square generated value 0.18 (Table 3a) from the ANOVA test appears to support this notion. That is, spending at least 4 months overseas accounts for around 18% of the variance in the subject's ratings.

The study, in general, shows that between L2 learners and NES there exists a much closer understanding of culturally loaded words than previously thought. Despite the fact that overall there was a significant difference between the three groups' comprehension of the words, with the exception of the word "stupid", the differences were marginal. Yet, because the differences were significant one can still draw some implications, similarly drawn by Liu and Zhong (1999), for EFL/ESL educators.

1. We should be more aware of culturally loaded words and possible connotations in different NES speech communities. While educators may instruct EFL/ESL students in TESOL speech community English, it may be ideal, yet impractical, to familiarise students with all the cultural connotations of words across different speech communities. A case in point is how Australian university students' understanding of the semantic meanings of the word 'played' seems to differ from that originally considered as 'correct' by the author, a member of the TESOL speech community. However, it would be unnecessary, even confusing for EFL/ESL students to begin to instruct them on this semantic variation.

2. Vocabulary should be taught in context so as to facilitate communicative competence; the connotative meanings of culturally loaded words such as "submissive", "foreigner", "sister" and "handicapped" should be explained as well as the results of their misuse. EFL texts should include cultural notes or explanations of culturally loaded words.

3. It appears necessary to examine words which are by intuition considered either connotatively similar or connotatively different due to cultural differences. That is, the words 'ugly' and 'stupid' were originally thought to be connotatively similar (as in Liu and Zhong's study) but were later discovered to be significantly different in their degrees of inappropriateness. In case of the word 'polluted', also originally thought to be connotatively similar, the results differed significantly in the degree of inappropriateness. Conversely, words such as 'smoking' and 'played' were originally thought to be connotatively different due to cultural differences but did not generate significant differences between groups. Therefore, as indicated in these findings, firstly, L2 students are more likely than NES students to use the

words 'ugly' and 'stupid,' which may be less inappropriate in their L1 than in their L2. Secondly, the converse may also be true, that is, L2 students are less likely than NES to use the word 'polluted,' which may carry connotations that are present in the L1 and not in the L2. Thus, as concluded by Liu and Zhong, research should be conducted to determine which words might create difficulties for L2 students.

4. The discovery that certain words previously thought to be connotatively similar, yet carry cultural connotations implies that other words difficult to pinpoint by intuition may also present problems for L2 learners. Further studies should be conducted to identify such words.

The Author

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Appendix 1 (Pilot Study)

Survey

Do not write your name on the sheet. Please indicate how many months you have studied/travelled English overseas _____.

Read the following sentences and indicate your opinion of the social and/or semantic appropriateness (사회적 적절성/적절함의미) of the underlined words by circling one of the numbers (1 = “Appropriate and you would use the word”, 2 = “Somewhat appropriate and you probably would use the word”, 3 = “Not sure”, 4 = “Somewhat inappropriate and you probably would not use the word”, 5 = “Inappropriate and you would not use the word.”

1. The girl smoked while she sat with the boys.

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

2. There are many foreigners living in our city.

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

3. Two boys are talking to each other. One boy says: “I really like my younger sister. One day we’ll get married.”

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

4. She is a good wife; kind and submissive.

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

5. He was a smart looking gentleman. He wore an expensive suit and hat, and had a long beard.

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

6. The handicapped boy sat in his wheel chair.

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

7. A student commenting on her professor’s appearance says, “Dr Kim, you look sick.”

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

8. A and B are university students. A says to B: “What did you do on the weekend?” B responds “I played with my friends.”

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

9. The river was badly polluted with rubbish.

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

10. A group of boys and girls at university are talking about their sweet-hearts. One boy says, "Sharon is my lover."

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

11. A and B are classmates. After A shows B a picture of his or her sister, B says, "Oh, your sister looks ugly."

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

12. A school invites a group of retired officials to its performance show. The principal introduces these officials to the audience by saying, "Today we are honored to have these old officials join us at our assembly."

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

13. After a student finishes visiting his professor concerning a course assignment, the student says to the professor, "I'm sorry to have wasted so much of your time."

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

14. A teacher is talking to Mr. Smith about his son's problems at school. The teacher says, "Mr. Smith, I've explained the math problems to your son many times, but he still does not understand them all. It seems that he is a little stupid."

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

15. The coach gave his team some important instructions before the game.

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

Appendix 1 continued (*Main Study*)

Survey

Read the following sentences and indicate your opinion of the appropriateness of the underlined words by circling one of the numbers:

- 1 = **Absolutely appropriate**
- 2 = **Slightly appropriate**
- 3 = **I don't know**
- 4 = **Slightly inappropriate**
- 5 = **Absolutely inappropriate**

1. The girl is a popular student at university. She is well liked by all her professors and friends. She often sits smoking with the boys.

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

2. Two old men are talking about the old days. One man says to the other: "Now, there are many foreigners living in our city."

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

3. Two boys are talking to each other. One boy says: "I really like my younger sister. One day we'll get married."

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

4. One man is talking to his mother-in-law about his wife: "She is a good wife; kind and submissive."

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

5. A smart-looking gentleman was on his way to a job interview. He wore an expensive suit and tie, and had a beard.

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

6. The handicapped boy sat in his wheel chair.

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

7. A student commenting on her professor's appearance says, "Dr Kim, you look sick."

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

8. A and B are university students. A says to B: "What did you do on the weekend?" B responds "I played with my friends."

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

9. The family went on a picnic by the river, but they didn't go swimming because it was so badly polluted.

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

10. A group of boys and girls at university are talking about their sweethearts. One boy says, "Sharon is my lover."

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

11. A and B are classmates. After A shows B a picture of his or her sister, B says, "Oh, your sister looks ugly."

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

12. A school invites a group of retired officials to its performance show. The principal introduces these officials to the audience by saying, "Today we are honored to have these old officials join us at our assembly."

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

13. After a student finishes visiting his professor concerning a course assignment, the student says to the professor, "I'm sorry to have wasted so much of your time."

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

14. A teacher is talking to Mr. Smith about his son's problems at school. The teacher says, "Mr. Smith, I've explained the math problems to your son many times, but he still does not understand them all. It seems that he is a little stupid."

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

15. Just before the final of the basketball game the coach gave his team some important instructions.

Appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Inappropriate

Compensation Strategies of Korean College Students

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Abstract

Margolis (2001) reported compensation strategies used by Korean students observed during interview exams. Due to the fact that many compensation strategies are internal decisions and not observable, the findings from that study were used to help develop a questionnaire that lists 37 compensation strategies, this to obtain further evidence regarding Korean student strategies to compensate for missing knowledge when trying to communicate in English. The questionnaire was administered to 61 students to gather information about the frequency and type of their compensation strategies usage. This paper reports the results. Disengagement tactics, such as avoiding difficult grammar and topics, were found to be the most utilized. Code modification tactics, such as circumlocutions and resorting to metaphors, were least employed. In addition, day students tended to use more strategies more often than night students. The day students' mean score of overall compensation strategies use, speaking compensation strategies use, disengagement, code switching, and physical compensation strategies use were all found to be significantly higher than night students. Further studies are necessary to ascertain the generalizability of results, but the findings add empirical foundation to the growing literature on compensation strategies and help identify specific areas where weak learners might be trained for more effective language acquisition.

Introduction

One experience of most language learners is facing a long text of foreign language and being overwhelmed. Whether this text is a reading or listening exercise, the strategies a student utilizes to overcome gaps in knowledge and negotiate the meaning can make the difference between successful practice or discouragement

and failure. In addition, when students must produce written or oral work, facing gaps in the target language knowledge also requires the use of strategies to compensate. Oxford (1990, p. 47) defines compensation strategies as those that

“enable learners to use the new language for either comprehension or production despite limitations in knowledge. Compensation strategies are intended to make up for an inadequate repertoire of grammar and, especially, of vocabulary.”

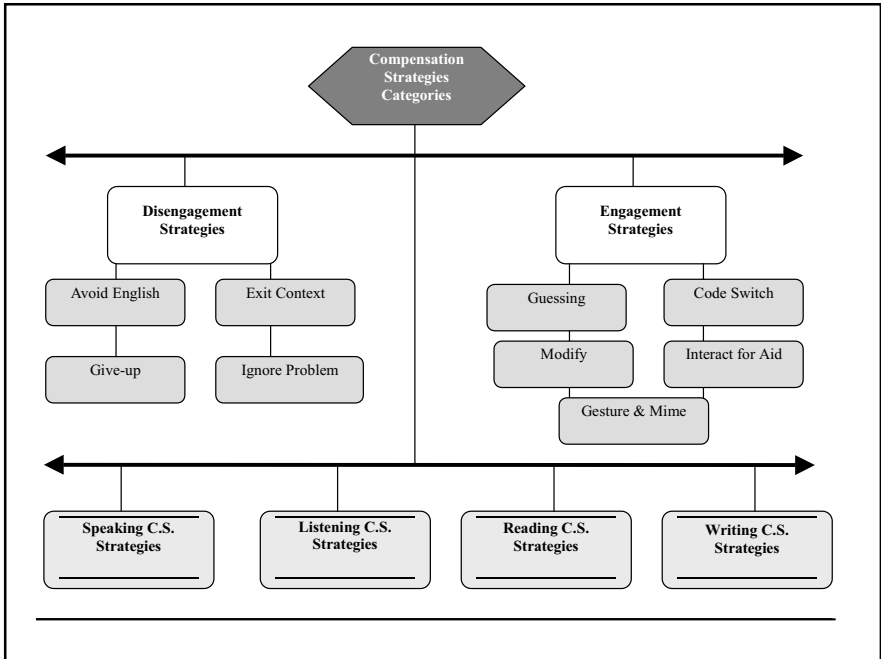
Oxford identifies 10 specific compensation strategies: (1) guessing by linguistic clues, (2) guessing by other clues, (3) switching to mother tongue, (4) getting help, (5) using gesture, (6) avoiding communication partially or totally, (7) selecting the topic, (8) adjusting or approximating the message, (9) coining words, and (10) using circumlocution or synonyms.

Oxford’s term “compensation strategies” refers to similar phenomenon as what other researchers call “communication strategies” (for example, see Brown, 1994; Khanji, 1996; and Tarone & Yule, 1989; amongst others), but although the literature on communication strategies carries relevant methodological and empirical information to aid the compensation strategy line of inquiry, it is not the same thing. Khanji (1996), for example, reports that the seminal work on communication strategies was based on error analysis research, focusing on identifying mistakes students made in communications. These studies focused on how communication problems are encountered and what these problems can teach us about interlanguage systems. Rather than the learning process, they examined the communication problem. Further, Khanji (1996) reports that some researchers in this area posit that communication strategies can be unconscious choices made by students. Compensation strategies, on the other hand, refers to conscious choices that students make to bridge the gap in lexical knowledge or ability. Moreover, most researchers focusing on communication strategies tend to limit the definition to productive skills-speaking and writing. Compensation strategies, on the other hand, are applicable to both productive and receptive tasks. Thus, the two terms should not be confused.

Margolis (2001) employed Oxford’s terminology, “compensation strategies,” to emphasize that they are active, conscious techniques that students can adopt and teachers can teach. In addition, strategies were divided into two camps — disengagement and engagement — to identify the consequences of strategy deployment for the interaction and quality of communications.

In the present study, thirty-seven specific compensation strategies organized by macro skills were included on a questionnaire. There were six strategies related to reading, five strategies for writing, twelve for listening and fourteen for speaking. These categories were chosen to facilitate student responses to the questionnaire items. Some of the strategies could be used in more than one category, but were

Figure 1
Categories of Compensation Strategies



believed to be primarily deployed within the identified macro-skill category. Moreover, for purposes of analysis, individual strategies were coded for aggregation into the following categories derived from the literature (in particular, see Khanji, 1996; Margolis, 2001; Oxford, 1990; and Yarmohammadi & Seif, 1992): Disengagement, Code Switching, Guessing, Physical, Interactive, and Code Modification. Figure 1 presents a graphic layout of these compensation strategy categories.

Disengagement Strategies are similar to Faerch and Kasper’s (1983) “reduction strategies,” but rather than suggest that goals are reduced, disengagement emphasizes disengaging from the second language communication context. In other words, instead of solving the problem from within the second language context, students exit L2 and try to bridge the gap in knowledge and ability from the outside language perspective or not at all. Avoiding particular topics or grammar structures and consulting a bilingual dictionary for word translations are two examples because in both cases the target language communication is disrupted.

The remaining aggregated strategy categories comprise techniques for solving the problem from within the communication context of the target language. The first, *code switching*, is terminology from Khanji (1996) and Oxford (1990) and refers to strategies where students switch to their mother tongue to maintain communications in the second language. For example, when faced with an unknown word while writing, a student might simply write the Korean word so as to continue in English without breaking out of the context to look up the proper word in the dictionary. The important feature is that students resort to the mother tongue only as a means to maintain communications in the target language. Otherwise, it would be a disengagement strategy. The second engagement strategy, *guessing strategies* are identified by Oxford (1990) as techniques to utilize context or other clues to make intelligent guesses about the meaning. The third, *physical strategies* pertain to the use of gesture, facial expressions, and other physical movement to help convey meaning. The fourth, *interactive strategies* refer to what Yarmohammadi and Seif (1992) label “cooperative strategies”— appeals for verification and direct assistance. The term “interactive,” however, better conveys that the strategy involves an interaction, either with text or human. Some examples would be asking for clarification, confirmation, or explanation. Finally, *code modification* refers to a collection of strategies where the gap in knowledge is bridged by some form of target language modification. Oxford’s circumlocution, synonyms, and word coinage, as well as Yarmohammadi and Seif’s foreignizing, literal translating, approximation, and generalization, all fall into this category. One may conclude that collecting these final items under the code modification category may seem to stretch the boundaries too much, but as these items turn out to be the least consciously utilized by students, combining them for analysis doesn’t lose much information. In studies focused specifically on developing these compensation strategies, however, it would be necessary to examine them separately.

Yarmohammadi and Seif (1992, p. 231) conclude that

“due to the restrictions placed on the foreign language learner’s knowledge of the target language, there is a constant need for [compensation strategies] to bridge the gaps in the course of communication.”

Shehadeh (1999, p. 628), citing Swain’s output theory, goes even farther, suggesting that language learning actually occurs when students stretch their current interlanguage capacity to fill gaps in knowledge. From Shehadeh’s position, advancement in language learning is not possible without the experience of knowledge gaps and the struggle to bridge them. This study, therefore, focused on compensation strategies to provide new empirical data regarding their use by Korean students, in the hopes that information gathered could aid the development of effective strategy training programs.

Study Objectives

This study has three aims: (1) to identify compensation strategies used by students, (2) to identify strategies typically not utilized by students, and (3) to identify Korean student compensation strategy training needs.

The following hypotheses were put forth with the alpha level set at .05:

H1—Interactive strategies, found to be most utilized in Margolis (2001) would also be found to be the most utilized amongst questionnaire respondents.

H2—Code modification and physical strategies, similar to findings reported in Margolis (2001) would also be found to be the least utilized amongst study participants.

H3—There would be no differences found between gender, age, and student type (day versus night students) in regards to strategy use.

Method

To ascertain what compensation strategies Korean students most utilized, least utilized, and relationships among strategies, ability, student type, gender, and age, a questionnaire of anticipated strategies was developed. The questionnaire was based on Oxford's (1990) SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning), but designed to assess only compensation strategies. In addition to the ten strategies mentioned by Oxford, 27 other compensation strategies observed by Margolis (2001) or published in the literature were included in the questionnaire. These items were written with Likert scales for students to report the frequencies of their use of the strategy (1=Never, 2= Not usually, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Usually, and 5 = Always). Furthermore, students were asked to rate their overall English ability, and individual macro-skills ability, according to a different 5 point Likert Scale (1=beginner, 3=intermediate, and 5=advanced). See appendix A for a copy of the English version of the questionnaire.

To increase the validity of the questionnaire, open-ended questions were inserted after each section to permit students to identify additional strategies pertaining to that section's macro skill. Then the questionnaire was translated into Korean. Two referees proofread and verified the accuracy of the translation. Then the Korean version of the questionnaire was pilot tested with a class of 24 freshman tourism major students at a college in Seoul. The pilot test required approximately 15 minutes to administer. Several concerns arose that required revision of the

questionnaire. One, some students claimed to have “0” hours of study time outside of classes. Therefore, a “0” was added to the response choices. Two, the pilot test revealed another strategy to include under the reading section. Finally, the pilot test suggested that careful and explicit directions be given to students regarding use of the scales for answering the questions.

The questionnaire was then administered during two regular Hotel English Conversation classes, one an evening class for working students, the other a day class for regular students. First, the purpose of the questionnaire was introduced. Then students were informed that their participation was not mandatory and that their responses would not affect their grades. Then the questionnaire was distributed and carefully explained. No students refused to respond to the questionnaire. Most finished within 10 minutes. To assess the reliability of the questionnaire, it was given twice with a two week period between administrations to a class of 22 first year students. According to the SPSS reliability analysis, the Cronbach alpha = .88, and the standardized item alpha = .90.

Data were entered into SPSS for Windows, version 5.11, and subjected to a variety of analyses to obtain frequencies, means, standard deviations, F ratios, and correlation coefficients.

Participant Composition

Sixty-one college 2nd year Tourism Information Management students from two sections of a required Hotel English Conversation course participated in this study. J College is a two year school, located in a suburb of Seoul that primarily serves students with vocational goals. Table one presents participant characteristics of age, gender, and student type. Thirty-four participants were regular day students and twenty-seven were night students. Night students typically work full-time in the day and study full-time in the evening. There were 55 females and 6 males (no male day students). Ages ranged from 19 to 41, with 70% of the participants below age 25. Day students were 23 years old or younger. Night students were 22 or older.

Table 1
Questionnaire Respondent's Student Type, Gender, & Age

| Student Type | | Gender | | Age ^a | | | |
|--------------|-------|-------------------|--------|------------------|-----------------|-------|----------|
| Day | Night | Male ^b | Female | Below 20 | 20-24 | 25-29 | Above 29 |
| 34 | 27 | 6 | 55 | 5 | 38 ^c | 14 | 2 |
| 56% | 44% | 10% | 90% | 8% | 62% | 23% | 3% |

Note: Percentages equal the proportion of students out of the total number of participants (n=61).

^aTwo students did not report their ages. Hence the age percentages do not total 100%.

^bAll the male respondents were night students.

^cFour night students were age 22 and five night students were 24, the rest comprise the 25 and above ages. No day students were older than 23.

Results

Years of Study

Participants also differed in the length of years that they had been studying English. Table 2 shows the number of years of English study per respondents. Fifty-seven percent of the students have been studying seven to eight years, eighteen percent have been studying for more than eight years, sixteen percent have been studying for five to six years, and seven percent have been studying English for less than five years. The mean of the years of study was 7.2 (standard deviation = 1.8).

Table 2
Number of Years of English Study

| Student Type | Years of Study | | | |
|---------------------------------|----------------|----------|----------|---------------|
| | Below 5 years | 5-6 | 7-8 | Above 8 years |
| Day Students | 3 | 4 | 21 | 6 |
| Night Students | 1 | 6 | 14 | 5 |
| Total Percentages (n=61) | 4 (7%) | 10 (16%) | 35 (57%) | 11 (18%) |

Note: The percentages do not equal 100% due to one missing response.

Self-Reported Ability Level

Table 3
Respondents' Self-Rated Ability Means and Standard Deviations

| Student Type | Overall | Reading | Writing | Listening | Speaking |
|------------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Day Students (n=34) | 1.65 (.69) | 2.09 (.90) | 1.56 (.65) | 1.79 (.81) | 1.59 (.66) |
| Night Students (n=27) | 1.33 (.62) | 1.56 (.89) | 1.41 (.64) | 1.44 (.85) | 1.37 (.74) |
| Combined Means (n=61) | 1.51 (.67) | 1.85 (.93) | 1.49 (.65) | 1.64 (.84) | 1.49 (.70) |

Note: The top row values are mean scores. The values in parenthesis are standard deviations.

The self-reported ability levels of subjects ranged from beginner to intermediate. Table 3 presents the mean responses (and standard deviations) of student self-rated ability per the questionnaire scale. These means show that students consider themselves little more than beginners in speaking, writing, and overall English ability, even after more than 5 years of English study. Their reading and listening self-assessment is not much higher. A comparison of the means presented in table 3 found no differences at the .05 probability level. Nevertheless, a quick scan of these means shows that the night students consistently rated their abilities from .1 to .5 points less than the day students.

Most Used Compensation Strategies

To identify which strategies were most used by students, the mean responses for questionnaire items 5-41 were examined. Strategy means that exceeded 3.5 when rounded were considered high use strategies. Six strategies emerged from this process and are listed in Table 4, ranked by order of highest usage to lowest. The most used strategy was avoiding difficult grammar. Only 7% of the 61 students responding to the item claimed to never or not usually resort to this strategy. The mean response for this item was 4.0 (standard deviation = 1.06). The second most utilized strategy was to avoid difficult topics. Then requesting the speaker to speak slower, followed by code switching, followed by making guesses based on the speaker's gestures, followed by using gestures to convey meaning respectively.

The order of strategy usage by the combined total of students was different, however, from the order of usage for day and night students considered separately. Table 4, columns 3 and 4, present the means and standard deviations for day and night students respectively. For day students, the order remains nearly the same except that code switching moves up one rank to number three, while requesting the speaker to speak slower moves down to number 4. For night students, the ranking changes more dramatically. Night students reported requesting the speaker to speak slower as their number one strategy. Making guesses moved up to number 4, and then item 12 (asking the speaker to repeat what was said), not included on this table, moved into the fifth rank. For day students, asking the speaker to repeat ranked twelfth. Moreover, code switching, ranked fourth in the combined list and third in the day student list, dropped to the ninth rank for night students.

Table 4
Most Utilized Strategies Ranked by Means, Highest to Lowest

| Strategy | Combined | Day Students | Night Students | F Ratio (P-value) |
|--|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|
| | Mean n=61 (Std. Dev.) | Mean n=34 (Std. Dev.) | Mean n=27 (Std. Dev.) | |
| Q38, Avoid difficult grammar | 4.03 (1.06) | 4.38 (.74) | 3.59 (1.25) | 9.46 (.003) |
| Q37, Avoid difficult topics | 3.90 (1.08) | 4.15 (.82) | 3.59 (1.28) | 4.21 (.04) |
| Q22, Request the speaker to speak slower | 3.78 (1.06) | 3.91 (.99) | 3.62 (1.13) | 1.16 (.29) |
| Q40, Code switch (i.e. speak Korean) | 3.54 (.98) | 3.93 (.74) | 3.04 (1.04) | 14.97 (.0003) |
| Q15, Make guesses based on speaker's gestures & expressions | 3.53 (1.06) | 3.68 (1.01) | 3.33 (1.11) | 1.60 (.21) |
| Q29, Use gestures to convey meaning | 3.47 (1.02) | 3.68 (.95) | 3.20 (1.08) | 3.33 (.07) |

Table 4, column 5, presents the F ratio results from an analysis of variance (ANOVA) between the day and night student responses. Day students' reported compensation strategy mean scores were higher than night students' for all strategies listed in the questionnaire, except for item 7 (immediately consult a dictionary for unknown words) and item 13 (ask the speaker to express their point in a different way). Further, the F ratio values reached levels of significance for several strategies, suggesting that the differences between the night and day students were not the results of random sampling fluctuations. In other words, day students tended to report higher usage of strategies and resorted to a greater diversity of these strategies more often than night students.

Least Used Compensation Strategies

To identify which strategies were least used by students, the mean responses for questionnaire items 5-41 were examined. Strategy means below 2.5 were considered low use strategies. Seven strategies were identified by this process and are listed in Table 5, ranked least to most utilized. Brainstorming words and ideas to fill knowledge gaps when writing emerged as the least utilized strategy by questionnaire respondents. Seventy-seven percent responded that they never or usually did not resort to this strategy. Only eight percent responded that they always or usually employed brainstorming. The use of an antonym to help express an unknown word was the next least used strategy. These were followed by using metaphors and images to convey meaning, asking for examples to help understand an unknown word, writing out unknown words to try to catch the meaning, using intonation and rhythm to guess the meaning, and finally, but not much more utilized, asking the speaker to express the idea in a different way.

Table 5
Least Utilized Strategies Ranked by Means, Lowest to Highest

| Strategy | Combined Mean n=61 (Std. Dev.) | Day Students Mean n=34 (Std. Dev.) | Night Students Mean n=27 (Std. Dev.) | F Ratio (P-value) |
|---|---------------------------------------|---|---|--------------------------|
| Q23, Brainstorming | 1.98 (.96) | 2.03 (1.03) | 1.93 (.87) | .17 (.68) |
| Q33, Use antonym to help convey an unknown word | 2.21 (1.04) | 2.29 (.97) | 2.11 (1.12) | .50 (.50) |
| Q26, Use metaphor & images to convey meaning | 2.25 (1.03) | 2.53 (1.02) | 1.89 (.93) | 6.38 (.01) |
| Q14, Ask for examples to help understand unknown items | 2.27 (1.11) | 2.35 (1.01) | 2.16 (1.25) | .43 (.51) |
| Q19, To catch the meaning, try to write out unknown words when listening | 2.31 (1.07) | 2.41 (1.02) | 2.19 (1.15) | .67 (.42) |
| Q16, Use intonation & rhythm to guess the meaning | 2.36 (1.07) | 2.53 (1.11) | 2.15 (.99) | 1.96 (.17) |
| Q13, Ask the speaker to express the idea in a different way | 2.44 (1.12) | 2.35 (.95) | 2.56 (1.31) | .49 (.49) |

Aggregated Strategy Categories

The questionnaire was designed to collect compensation strategy use regarding 6 aggregated categories: *Interactive Strategies* (items 5, 6, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 18, 21, 22, 31, 32, and 33), *Code Modification* (items 26, 28, 34, 35, and 36), *Code Switching* (items 25 and 40), *Guessing* (items 8, 9, 15, and 16), *Physical Compensation* (items 17, 19, 20, 29, 30), and *Disengagement Strategies* (items 7, 41, 37, 38, and 27). To discover which of these strategies were most and least utilized, means and standard deviations were calculated. Table 6 presents the results of this process.

Table 6
Aggregated Compensation Strategy Use Differences Between Day and Night Students: Ranked Most to Least Utilized.

| Aggregated Compensation Strategies | Combined Mean n=61 (Std. Dev.) | Day Students Mean n=34 (Std. Dev.) | Night Students Mean n=27 (Std. Dev.) | F Ratio (P-value) |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------|
| Disengagement | 3.35 (.70) | 3.51 (.57) | 3.15 (.82) | 4.07 (.05) |
| Code Switching | 3.30 (.85) | 3.52 (.73) | 3.00 (.91) | 6.08 (.02) |
| Physical Compensation | 3.03 (.763) | 3.22 (.68) | 2.77 (.80) | 5.53 (.02) |
| Guessing | 2.89 (.83) | 3.03 (.81) | 2.71 (.83) | 2.27 (.14) |
| Interactive | 2.78 (.72) | 2.89 (.66) | 2.62 (.78) | 2.09 (.15) |
| Code Modification | 2.66 (.87) | 2.84 (.82) | 2.42 (.89) | 3.70 (.06) |

Disengagement strategies were found to be the most utilized by the Korean students in this study. Ten percent of participants had an aggregated response value below 2.5, meaning that less than 7 people did not or only rarely resorted to this strategy type. Forty-nine percent of the students, however usually or always utilized these strategies. Code Switching strategies were the second most utilized of the aggregated categories, followed by physical compensation strategies, guessing strategies, interactive strategies, and code modification strategies, respectively.

The rank order of these aggregated strategies changed very little when examining the differences between day and night students. For night students, the order remained the same. For day students, code switching switched places with disengagement strategies, but the other rankings remained the same. However, in every instance, the day student mean scores are above the combined mean and the night student mean scores fall below the combined mean. The difference between day and night student scores reach significance in the top three strategy categories, and nearly reach significance (.06) for code modification, suggesting again that compensation strategy usage is more predominant among day students.

Student responses were also aggregated by macro-skills as grouped on the questionnaire. To discover which of these aggregated strategies were most and least

utilized, means and standard deviations were calculated. Table 7 presents the results of this process. Students report utilizing speaking compensation strategies most, followed by listening, then reading, and finally writing. This order is the same for both day and night students. The differences between day and night students do not reach significance except for speaking compensation strategies, where the difference registered an F ratio of 9.3, with a p-value less than .01. In addition, the mean scores for overall compensation strategy usage further demonstrated a higher utilization of compensation strategies by day students ($F = 4.48$, $p\text{-value} = .04$). These differences suggest day students use speaking strategies more, and resort to compensation strategies more often, than night students, suggesting that speaking strategies are the key to the difference between the two groups in their overall compensation strategy use.

Table 7
Aggregated Macro-skill Compensation Strategy Use Differences Between Day and Night Students

| Aggregated Macro Skill Compensation Strategies | Combined Mean n=61 (Std. Dev.) | Day Students Mean n=34 (Std. Dev.) | Night Students Mean n=27 (Std. Dev.) | F Ratio (P-value) |
|---|---------------------------------------|---|---|--------------------------|
| Reading Strategies | 2.84 (.79) | 2.93 (.77) | 2.73 (.82) | .93 (.34) |
| Writing Strategies | 2.63 (.69) | 2.75 (.65) | 2.47 (.72) | 2.46 (.12) |
| Listening Strategies | 2.87 (.72) | 2.96 (.65) | 2.74 (.81) | 1.38 (.25) |
| Speaking Strategies | 3.13 (.70) | 3.35 (.52) | 2.82 (.80) | 9.33 (.003) |
| Overall Usage of Compensation Strategies | 2.86 (.64) | 3.00 (.54) | 2.63 (.73) | 4.48 (.04) |

Note: Macro-skill strategies are presented in the order they appear on the questionnaire.

Relationships of Strategy Use to Age, Years of Study, & Ability

Due to the fact that few males (less than 10%) participated in this administration of the questionnaire, meaningful comparisons between male and female strategy use could not be made. However, relationships between aggregated strategy use and age, years of study, and ability level were subjected to Spearman Correlation analysis. Table 8 presents the correlation coefficients observed. Several correlations reach levels of significance. Correlations between age and strategy use were quite weak. Interestingly, however, negative correlations were observed. That is, the older the student the greater the tendency to not utilize compensation strategies. Two aggregated strategies and age reached significance at the .05 level: code switching ($r=-.27$) and code modification ($r=-.33$). These results may reflect that older students were night students with little time for English study and little contiguity in their years of study. Note, for example, that there is also a negative correlation between

age and ability ($r = -.26, p < .05$) and a slight negative correlation between age and years of study ($r = -.13$), though not reaching a level of significance. That is, the older the student, the less years of study they reported and the less confidence they had in their ability.

Table 8
Spearman Correlation Coefficients For Aggregated Strategies,
Age, Self-Rated Ability, and Years of English Study^a

| | | | | | | | | |
|----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Code Switch | .37** | | | | | | | |
| Physical | .46** | .39** | | | | | | |
| Guessing | .41** | .24 | .61** | | | | | |
| Interactive | .38** | .38** | .57** | .63** | | | | |
| Code Mod | .40** | .52** | .66** | .63** | .66** | | | |
| Age | -.11 | -.27* | -.25 | -.17 | -.21 | -.33* | | |
| Ability | .09 | -.04 | .18 | .32* | .25 | .38** | -.26* | |
| Years of Study | .18 | -.04 | .26* | .41** | .32* | .28* | -.13 | .61** |
| | Dis-engage | Code Switch | Physical | Guessing | Interact | Code Mod | Age | Ability |

^aYears of Study were adjusted as follows: the hours of English classes and home study per week were summed and then multiplied by years. This formula was devised to account for differences among students in hours of study.

* = Significance Level .05

** = Significance Level .01

(2-tailed)

The correlations between years of study and strategy use were also not very strong. Nevertheless, four reached levels of significance: years of study and guessing strategies ($r = .41$), years of study and interactive strategies ($r = .32$), years of study and code modification ($r = .28$), and years of study with physical strategies ($r = .26$). These correlations suggest that students who study second languages for a longer time may be slightly more likely to utilize these strategies than those who have been studying fewer years. Moreover, years of study and self-reported ability were also correlated at a significant level ($r = .61, p < .05$), which adds evidence to the case that strategy use and ability are linked.

The correlations between student self-reports of overall English ability and compensation strategy use were also not very strong, but two reached levels of significance, suggesting slight relationships between overall ability and employment of guessing strategies ($r = .32$) and code modification ($r = .38$). The latter correlation is especially interesting given that code modification strategies were most utilized by day students, were the most strongly negatively correlated with age, and out of the six aggregated strategy categories, code modification strategies were the least employed. In other words, student use of code modification strategy stands out as a major difference between students who report high ability versus those who report low ability.

Table 8 also presents the correlations between each of the aggregated strategies. The relationships among the strategies have stronger coefficients than age, ability, or years of study. They all show positive relationships. All but one reaches levels of significance. These findings suggest that students who use strategies tend to use a wide variety.

Discussion

This study advances the exploration of student use of compensation strategies in Korea. The questionnaire, newly developed for this study, provides a useful tool for teaching students new strategies as well as a new instrument for collecting data on student compensation strategy use. While more study is needed to establish the reliability of the questionnaire, its validity for Korean students at J College is believed to be good. This belief stems from the fact that items were translated into Korean, refereed by two proficient bilinguals, and pilot tested on 24 first year students prior to the use reported in this study. Furthermore, student comments during both the pilot test and actual implementation suggested that response validity was good.

The number of respondents in this study is too small, however, to permit generalizations beyond J College, but this administration of the questionnaire has helped to identify areas for future comparison. Regarding the hypotheses set out at the beginning of this study, H1, that interactive strategies would be found to be the most utilized amongst respondents, must be rejected. Disengagement strategies were found to be the most utilized and interactive strategies were found to be in fifth place out of six. H2, that code modification and physical strategies would be amongst the least utilized is consistent with the results of this study regarding code modification, but must be rejected for physical strategies, which were found to be the 3rd most utilized. H3, that gender, age, and student type would play little difference in regards to strategy use, is partially rejected. Too few male participants in this study precluded analysis of the relationship between gender and strategy use. Two negative relationships that reached a probability level of .05 were found between age and strategy use, requiring the rejection of H3 in this regard. Further, regarding student type, a difference was also observed between day and night students. Day students reported higher and more diverse use of compensation strategies.

The differences found between day and night students may stem from this variable being compounded with age, years of study, and ability. The groups did not share common characteristics. Night students tended to be older, had less years of English study, and reported lower ability than day students. Furthermore, day students may have been more actively engaged in learning, with less life pressures, and more continuity in their education.

At any rate, this study set out to identify compensation strategies that Korean students most and least utilized. Participants in this study were found to most employ disengagement compensation strategies and to least employ code modification strategies. Oxford (1990, p. 96) considers disengagement strategies, such as avoiding topics or quitting in mid-utterance, as sometimes necessary to “emotionally protect” learners. Windle (2000) argued that Korean students sometimes resort to disengagement strategies due to cultural factors related to saving face and preserving relations. Indeed, use of disengagement tactics, when part of an arsenal of compensation strategies, is not necessarily detrimental to students. The results of this study, in fact, suggest that the students who use disengagement strategies tend to also employ other strategies as well, and thus, this should not be cause for worry. Resorting to such strategies, however, may inhibit learning. Swain’s output hypothesis (cited in Shehadeh, 1999), for example, suggests that language learning occurs when students face gaps in knowledge and must stretch their linguistic ability to compensate. Thus, if the output hypothesis is valid, student reliance on disengagement tactics may be preventing them from struggling to bridge their knowledge gaps, which may, in part, explain their low ability after so many years of language study. Tarone & Yule (1989), moreover, reported that native speakers tend to most utilize code modification strategies, such as circumlocution and analogies, when facing communication problems. They recommend that students need to be trained to do the same.

Regarding the relationships between strategy use and age, this study found that they were not very strong, but were all negative, suggesting that amongst the subjects in this study, as one gets older there is a tendency to resort to compensation strategies less. These results may be partially explained by the fact that older students tended to report less years of English study and less confidence in their English ability. Thus, the negative correlation between strategy use and age may actually be a reflection of ability level and low number of years of English study. If so, this finding supports the notion that ability and compensation strategy use are linked.

Relationships between strategy use and self-rated ability were also weak, but guessing and code modification strategies were found to correlate with ability. This finding, in light of Tarone and Yule’s (1989) report that native speakers resort to code modification the most, may suggest that teaching students these strategies does help facilitate their communication ability and confidence. It may also indicate that code modification and guessing are important strategies for language acquisition, consistent with the output hypothesis, although more study is needed to support such a claim.

Finally, while correlations between years of English study and strategy use were not strong, four reached levels of significance: guessing, interactive, code modification and physical, suggesting that as the length of one’s study of a foreign language increases these strategies may be utilized more often.

Khanji (1996), in his study of 36 Jordanian EFL students found message abandonment strategies – equivalent to disengagement strategies – to be the second most commonly utilized by low level students. In this study of primarily low level students, the most utilized strategies were found to be disengagement tactics. Interestingly, Khanji also found Jordanian EFL learners to be least inclined to employ the strategy of appealing for assistance. This present study found interactive strategies to be fifth in the list of six aggregated strategies. Thus, on these points the findings of both studies seem fairly consistent.

The high tendency of students to resort to disengagement rather than interactive strategies, despite the benefits mentioned above, represents an obstacle to communications, practice, and possibly, language learning. One cause for Korean student utilization of disengagement strategies might be anxiety about accuracy. Many low level students mistakenly believe that there is always a one-to-one correspondence between first and second language. This mistaken idea causes panic when the exact correct word is unavailable. In addition, preoccupation with accuracy of grammar or pronunciation might lead to frustration and breakdown. Due to the fact that disengagement strategies are likely to negatively impact student oral exam scores and conversational experiences, compensation strategy training should aim to provide students with skills for alternative strategy utilization.

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Appendix A. Compensation Strategies Questionnaire (English Version)

Dear Student,

J College is conducting a survey in an effort to improve English education instruction. Please help us by answering the following questions as truthfully as possible. Your answers will be strictly confidential and only used for statistical analyses. The survey should only take about 10 minutes to complete. If any items are difficult to understand, please ask your teacher for help. Thank you for your cooperation.

For number 1-3, circle the number that best describes you.

("+" = more than 10.)

1. How many years in total have you been studying English? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 +
2. How many hours of English classes per week
(average) have you had? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 +
3. Outside of classes, how many hours per week (average)
do you practice English? 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 +

Please read the following scale and use it to answer question #4a-4e.

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| 1= Beginner: | You know some expressions, words, and grammar structures, but don't have the ability to use them to communicate in English. |
| 2= | You can communicate to some degree in English, but <i>often</i> experience frustration and confusion. |
| 3= Intermediate: | You have the ability to communicate basic needs in English. You might make a lot of mistakes in communication, but the exchange of ideas is possible. |
| 4= | You can communicate more than basic needs. While you sometimes make mistakes, you have ability to communicate in English. You know and can use a large vocabulary in many contexts. |
| 5= Advanced: | You have confidence in your ability to communicate in English to meet any situation. Usually you communicate in English accurately and comfortably. |

In your honest opinion, please rate your English ability according to the above scale. Circle the number that corresponds with your rating.

| | Beginner | -2- | Intermediate | -4- | Advanced |
|---------------------|----------|-----|--------------|-----|----------|
| 4a. Overall Ability | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4b. Reading | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4c. Writing | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4d. Listening | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4e. Speaking | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

For the following, please circle the number that best matches how frequently you use the strategy to fill gaps in your English communication.

1 = Never 2 = Not Usually 3 = Sometimes 4 = Usually 5 = Always
0% 25% 50% 75% 100%

When Reading:

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5. Use charts, pictures, and graphics to help understand meaning. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Look in other parts of the text for clues to meaning. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Immediately consult an English-Korean dictionary for unknown words. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Use the context to help guess the meaning of unknown items. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Use background knowledge and experience to guess meaning. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Repeat reading several times when faced with difficult passage. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Please write any additional strategies that you use to understand difficult parts when reading:

When Listening:

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11. Ask the speaker to confirm your understanding. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Ask the speaker to repeat what was said. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Ask the speaker to express the idea in a different way. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Ask the speaker for examples. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Use physical cues (like gestures) to guess the meaning. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Use intonation, rhythm, and sound cues to guess the meaning. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Use gestures or facial expressions to inform the speaker that you do or don't understand. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Tell the speaker that you don't understand. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. Write words that you hear to help you catch the meaning. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. Silently repeat a word or expression to understand it better. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. Ask the speaker how to spell confusing words. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. Ask the speaker to slow down. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Please write any additional strategies that you use to understand difficult parts when listening:

For the following, please circle the number that best matches how frequently you use the strategy to fill gaps in your English communication.

1 = Never 2 = Not Usually 3 = Sometimes 4 = Usually 5 = Always
0% 25% 50% 75% 100%

When Writing:

- | | |
|--|-----------|
| 23. Brainstorm a list of words about the topic. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 24. Use a general word when you can't remember the specific word. (For example, using "toy" instead of "doll.") | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 25. Use a literal translation from Korean to fill a gap in the English expression. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 26. Use a metaphor or image to express your idea. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 27. Limit your writing to avoid making mistakes. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

Please write any additional strategies you use to cope with difficult parts when writing:

When Speaking:

- | | |
|--|-----------|
| 28. When you can't pronounce a sound well, such as /v/ or /f/, use a similar sound, like /b/ or /p/. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 29. Use gesture to help convey your meaning. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 30. Use facial expressions to help convey your meaning. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 31. Ask the listener how to pronounce a difficult word. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 32. Ask the listener how to say the correct grammar. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 33. Use an opposite word and ask the listener for the correct one. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 34. When you don't know a word, try to describe the idea or situation. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 35. Make up a word when you can't remember the correct one. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 36. Use a similar word for one you can't remember. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 37. Try to avoid difficult topics. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 38. Avoid grammar expressions that you don't know well. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 39. Gain time to fill the gap by using expressions such as: well, hmm, umm, you know, I'm not sure, and other fillers. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 40. Switch to Korean for words & expressions unknown in English. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 41. To express an idea that you don't know in English, consult the Korean-English dictionary. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

Please write any additional strategies you use to cope with difficult parts when speaking:

42. For the following, please circle the proper response or write the answer.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| a. Gender: Male / Female | b. Birth Year: 19__ |
| c. Major: | d. Student Type: Day / Night |
| e. Student Number: | |

Thank you for your time and cooperation. We greatly appreciate your assistance on this project. If you have questions about this study, we would be happy to answer them. Also, if you would like to receive a copy of the results when they are completed, please write your email address below, and we will send them to you.

Explicit vs. Implicit Corrective Feedback

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Abstract

This project investigated two types of negative feedback on 20 Korean speakers' use of dative alternation in English. The objective was to empirically determine whether explicit or implicit feedback benefits learners more. Learners were trained in dative alternation in the form of one structural change. Learners were divided into two groups according to the type of feedback they received. Group A received feedback in the form of explicit metalinguistic information when they made a mistake in dative alternation. Group B received implicit error correction in the form of a sentence recast in the correct form when they made a dative alternation error. Posttests revealed no significant differences between the groups. As a result, the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

Introduction

One of the most highly valued and desired classroom activities in an adult language classroom setting is error correction by the teacher (Willing, 1988). Selinker (1972, 1992) remarks that mistakes are important components of learning a language and must be corrected in order to assist students in producing the target language more accurately. Students have a preference of not only receiving feedback from their teachers but also a preference towards a certain feedback style they personally find more effective.

The study of effective corrective feedback in second language acquisition has influenced many ESL instructors. The objective of giving feedback is to help the learners recognize a problem with their production, resulting in the correct form being used following feedback. According to Lightbown and Spada (1995), students

can improve particular grammatical features through corrective feedback within communicative second language programs. Several studies in French/English acquisition in Canada by White (1991), Harley (1989), and Day & Shapson (1991) have shown that groups of learners who received feedback initially performed better than groups of learners who received no feedback.

However, the form of feedback that should be used has been a point of contention in ESL teaching in recent years. In an ESL classroom setting where students receive feedback, students can usually expect to receive explicit feedback in the form of metalinguistic correction, or they can receive implicit feedback, often given in the form of recasts. Carroll and Swain (1993) point out that while it may seem that explicit feedback may be more beneficial than implicit feedback, drawbacks may exist. Since explicit feedback relies on metalinguistic information to perpetuate correction of the error, students must understand the language used in the metalinguistic explanation. Therefore, students who do not have the specialized vocabulary and knowledge of grammar may not be able to benefit from this feedback (Carroll & Swain, 1993). On the other hand, implicit feedback may not target the source of the error and thus, will not help eliminate it (Pinker, 1989).

Our study is a replication of the “Explicit and Implicit Negative Feedback” study by Carroll and Swain (1993). In the original study, Carroll and Swain tested various types of feedback and investigated the effect of each feedback type on the ability of students to learn the dative alternation rule in English. The objective of this present study was the same as the original study. However, the number of feedback styles and participants was reduced. In particular, two feedback types; explicit feedback with explanation and modeling/implicit negative feedback, turned out to be significantly better than the other groups in Carroll and Swain’s study. We chose these as the object of investigation for the present study. *Explicit feedback* refers to the explicit provision of the correct form (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). It includes specific grammatical information that students can refer to when an answer is incorrect. For example, if a student erred by stating “He go to the store”, explicit feedback would be used to explain to the learner that in English, third person singular regular verbs require an -s or in the case of a verb ending in a vowel, an -es ending. *Recasts* are probably the most frequently used form of error correction in ESL classroom settings, as is shown in Lyster & Ranta’s study. Recasts are a form of implicit feedback that includes corrections and confirmation checks without indicating the source of error. For example, if a learner said “He go to the store”, a recast could come in the form, “Oh, he GOES to the store?”.

Research Question

This study was conducted and analyzed in order to answer the question “which form of feedback is more effective for error correction of second language learners,

explicit feedback in the form of metalinguistic information or implicit feedback in the form of recasts?"

Predictions

The null hypothesis is that there will be no significant difference between the two groups. However, if learners learn dative alternation based on negative feedback, there will be a significantly better performance in dative alternation production by Group A, receiving explicit feedback than by Group B, receiving implicit feedback.

The Study

The Participants

For this experiment, we enlisted twenty English-as-a-second-language (ESL) students from classes at Michigan State University's English Language Center. All of the participants were native speakers of Korean enrolled in the Intensive English Program at the high beginning and low intermediate levels. All participants volunteered and received no monetary payment for their contributions. Since we were the participants' instructors, and had previously tested their proficiency level for placement purposes, we did not administer an experimental pre-test. Although it was our desire to replicate Carroll and Swain's original study as closely as possible, we chose to eliminate several of their comparison groups. Their original groups that received (a) zero feedback, (b), feedback in the form of being told that they were wrong, and (c) an implicit correction in the form of a question that inquired whether they were sure of their answers, were not replicated in our study. Carroll and Swain's results suggested that any form of negative feedback enabled learners to acquire grammatical structures more efficiently. However, we were interested in determining the relationship of the two groups; 1) the explicit negative feedback group with explanation and 2) the modeling plus implicit negative feedback group. As mentioned earlier, these two groups were found to perform significantly better than the others. We also felt that these two feedback types represent the most common types of negative feedback that ESL students would receive in the classroom or in daily interactions with native speakers. Thus, we wanted to focus our research specifically on these two types of feedback.

Design and Methodology

The experiment was conducted with each participant on an individual basis on two separate occasions. The first recall session¹ consisted of three parts: a short training session followed by a feedback session and a production session to assess

recall. The second recall session was conducted one week later and consisted of two parts: a feedback session followed by a production session to assess recall. Each session was administered and tape recorded by one of the two researchers.

The Learning Problem

Carroll & Swain's (1993) original study on Spanish speakers learning ESL in Toronto was based on the grammatical structure of dative alternation (or the double object construction). In order to replicate their experiment and thus determine if their results are generalizable to other ESL students, we also used dative alternation as our experimental form. Dative alternation relates to different syntactic constructions of a "dative" verb and its arguments. For example, *send* can appear in two different syntactic contexts; NP V NP *to/for* NP and NP V NP NP (e.g., *John sent Ann a package* and *John sent a package to Ann*). It would seem that any given verb could alternate based on Erteschik-Shir's (1979) dominance principle which allows for alternation when a speaker wants to emphasize the first noun phrase following the verb rather than the second. However, this is not always the case in English due to semantic and phonological constraints that do not allow all verbs to alternate. Pinker (1989) stated that verbs that alternate must involve some transfer of possession (as well as the process of a theme moving towards a goal). Grimshaw (1985) also added that alternating verbs correspond to a metrical foot. In order to avoid awkwardness, verbs longer than a metrical foot cannot alternate (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

The rules that govern the alternation of datives would make it difficult for ESL learners to simply memorize dative verbs. Therefore, it is plausible to assume that they would require feedback in order to learn the appropriate alternation constraints. Furthermore, based on our knowledge of their curriculum, we could also assume that most of our participants had little, if any recent formal exposure to this grammatical structure.

The Procedures

Prior to the training, participants were divided into two groups. The first group's participants (Group A), were given explicit error correction with metalinguistic information during the feedback sessions. The second group's participants (Group B), were given implicit correction in the form of recasts when they erred. Groups were formed by randomly placing participants in one of the two groups. Consideration was only given to ensuring that high beginning students were evenly distributed along with the low intermediate students in each group.

Design of the Experiment

Table 1

| | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Recall 1 (Week 1) | |
| Training Session | (6 items) (twice if necessary) |
| Feedback Session 1 | (10 items) |
| Production Session 1 | (10 items) |
| Recall 2 (Week 2) | |
| Feedback Session 2 | (10 items) |
| Production Session 2 | (10 items) |

The participants of both groups began with training consisting of six of the original training items Carroll and Swain had used in their experiment (examples A-F, Appendix A)². To begin the training, participants were given a card (1) and were also given a verbal description of the experiment (2) (See below).

Table 2

| |
|---|
| (1) (Card) |
| Peter wrote a letter to Terry. Peter wrote Terry a letter. |
| (2) (Verbal instructions) |
| We are doing a study concerned with English as a second language. I will give you a sentence and I would like you to think of different ways of saying the same thing. For example, in English you can say Peter wrote a letter to Terry. Once again, Peter wrote a letter to Terry. But you can also say Peter wrote Terry a letter. I repeat: Peter wrote Terry a letter. These two sentences, Peter wrote a letter to Terry and Peter wrote Terry a letter, have the same meaning; they "alternate." (<i>Carroll & Swain, 1993</i>) |

Participants then looked at another card with only one sentence written on it and were asked to form an alternating sentence in the same style as the first card they had seen. After they successfully said the alternating sentence, the participants were shown the next card. If the participant gave any incorrect forms or could not give an alternating form, the training was administered a second time from the beginning.

Once the training was complete, participants were instructed on the procedure of the feedback session (see Appendix B). Both groups were told that they would be

shown sentences in English, some of which alternated, some of which did not. Participants would have to decide if the sentence alternated and to give the alternate form. If the sentence did not alternate, participants were instructed to repeat the sentence on the card. Taking a cue from Carroll and Swain's (1993) limitations of the original study, our study controlled for time on task. Regardless of the response, participants were given fifteen seconds to respond. Participants in Group A were also told that they would receive a grammatical explanation of alternation if they responded incorrectly. When they gave an incorrect response, they were given a syntactic or phonological explanation, specifically that the verb must involve some transfer of possession or be limited in length in order to alternate. Participants in Group B were told that they would be given the correct sentence if they responded incorrectly.

After the feedback session had been completed, participants were given similar instructions regarding the procedure for the production session. However, for the production session, both groups were told that they would be given no feedback at all.

Each participant saw twenty sentence cards. The twenty cards were shuffled and administered randomly as either feedback items or production items. Therefore, although each participant saw the same twenty cards, he/she did not receive feedback on the same items as another participant nor did he/she receive feedback on the same items in either recall session.

One week later, recall was tested for both groups. Participants returned and were again instructed on the procedure of the first recall session in order to promote initial recall of the grammatical structure. Then, participants were requested to participate in a second production session in which both groups gave responses without receiving any feedback. In the second recall session, the initial training was not administered again. The cards used were the same as in the first session but were again shuffled and given in a random order. The researchers also switched roles in terms of which group each administered to in order to control for different types of feedback given.

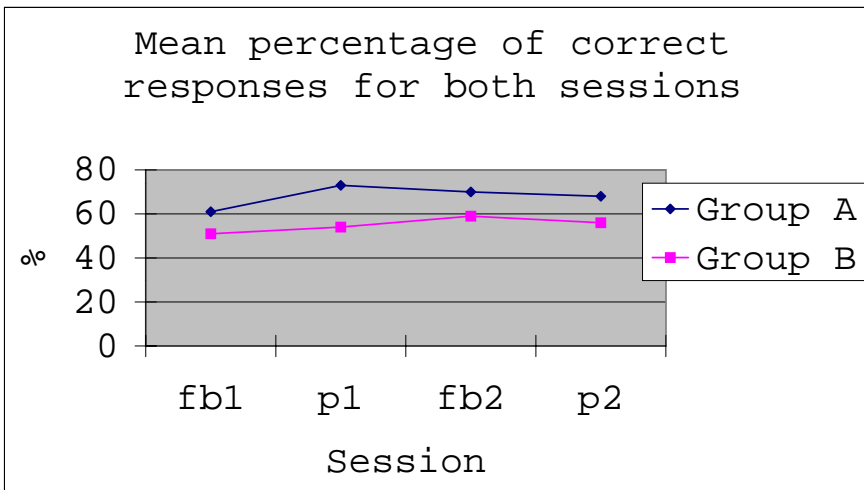
Finally, a voluntary survey was administered to the participants that asked them (a) how they would like to be corrected by an instructor/native speaker, and (b) what they thought was the best way for an instructor/native speaker to make corrections (see Appendix C).

Results and Data Analysis

Figure 1 shows the mean percentage of correct responses for both recall sessions. According to the graph, both explicit (A) and implicit (B) groups' mean

scores started out low, showed improvement at a certain stage, and dropped by the end of the second production session in recall session 2. However, it differed from the original study where both groups showed a sharp improvement in the first recall (production) session and a drop in the second recall session. Even though the mean score dropped at this point, it was still higher than the initial pre-test. In our research, Group A, which received explicit feedback, had a higher mean in the 1st production session and decreased in the second. However, Group B had a higher score in the second production session than the first production session.

Figure 1



Mean percentage of correct responses for both recall sessions

Note : fb = feedback session; p = production session; numbers refer to recall sessions 1 and 2

Table 3 shows the means and the standard deviations by group and session for the feedback items. From Figure 1 and Table 3, we can see that Group A's mean percentage of correct responses for both sessions was higher than Group B's.

Table 3
Means and standard deviation for each group and session

| | Group | N | Mean (%) | Standard Deviation |
|--|-------|----|----------|--------------------|
| Session #1 - Feedback | A | 10 | 63 | 10.59 |
| | B | 10 | 51 | 11.97 |
| | Total | 20 | 57 | 12.61 |
| Session #1 - Production | A | 10 | 71 | 9.94 |
| | B | 10 | 54 | 13.50 |
| | Total | 20 | 62.5 | 14.46 |
| Session #2 - Feedback | A | 10 | 70 | 14.91 |
| | B | 10 | 59 | 16.63 |
| | Total | 20 | 64.5 | 16.38 |
| Session #2 - Production | A | 10 | 68 | 16.19 |
| | B | 10 | 56 | 18.38 |
| | Total | 20 | 62 | 17.95 |

Note: A = explicit error correction; B = implicit error correction.

The Carroll and Swain study used ANOVA to find out the relationships and to calculate the significance among the recall sessions of different feedback groups. This study had only two groups to compare, so a paired samples t-test was run on these data.

Table 4 shows the output of the t-test between the two production sessions for both group A and group B. The t-score for df 9 should be $t < -2.262$ or $t > 2.262$ to be significant, but the score for pair 1 was .537 and -.294 for pair 2. With an alpha level of .05, these results were nonsignificant. Along with this, the test did not show any significance ($p < 0.5$) — .604 and .775. Therefore, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Table 4
Paired Samples Test for Production Sessions

| | t | df | Sig.(2-tailed) |
|--|-------|----|----------------|
| Group A (session 1-2) | .537 | 9 | .604 |
| Group B (session 1-2) | -.294 | 9 | .775 |

In Table 5, the paired samples t-test was run for the gains in both production sessions for Group A and Group B. This test shows no significance (0.38) in terms of gains made from the first production session to the second production session between the 2 groups.

Table 5
Paired Samples Test for Gains between Productions

| | t | df | Sig.(2-tailed) |
|--------------------------|-------|----|----------------|
| Group differences | -.921 | 9 | .381 |

The students filled out a post-test questionnaire after the second production session. The questions concerned the participants' preference of feedback style, and the overall effective feedback style. From the results, we can see that the students preferred receiving explicit feedback with metalinguistic explanation rather than implicit feedback in the form of recast.

Table 6
Number of responses from voluntary questionnaire (post-study).

| Answer | Group A responses | Group B responses |
|---|-------------------|-------------------|
| 1a. I want the teacher/native speaker to tell me that I made a mistake and to give me an explanation of how to say the word/expression/etc. correctly. | 5 | 9 |
| 1b. I want the teacher/native speaker to tell me that I made a mistake and to just say the correct word/expression/etc. for me. | 1 | 0 |
| 1c. I don't want the teacher/native speaker to correct me. | 0 | 0 |
| 2a. The teacher/native speaker should tell me that I made a mistake and should give me an explanation of how to say the word/expression/etc. correctly. | 5 | 8 |
| 2b. The teacher/native speaker should tell me that I made a mistake and should just say the correct word/expression/etc. for me. | 1 | 1 |
| 2c. The teacher/native speaker should not correct me. | 0 | 0 |

Note: 3 participants from Group A and 1 participant from Group B declined to participate in the post-study survey.

Discussion

Although these results do not support Carroll and Swain's original results that would allow us to generalize the effects of negative feedback on learners across L1s, they do provide us with some insights as to how this could be studied further and as to what pedagogical implications our results could have.

In Carroll and Swain's original study, both the group that received explicit negative feedback and the group that received implicit negative feedback performed significantly better than groups receiving other forms of feedback. Our goal was to determine which, if either, of the aforementioned groups would outperform the other. Our hypothesis was that the students' performance in the explicit feedback group would show significantly higher results than the group from the implicit feedback session. Though the results did not have any statistical significance, they are not without value. Carroll and Swain's original study used 100 students divided into 5 groups. Our participant pool consisted of only 20. To achieve any significant results, more participants may have been necessary in our experiment. We attempted to replicate actual feedback encounters by limiting our feedback to the two forms Carroll and Swain found different and which we believe to be most common in learners' daily interactions. In addition, Carroll and Swain used many more items in their study than we did in ours. By the time participants in their study had completed their turns, they would have seen at least 152 items in contrast to our study in which a participant would have seen a minimum of 46 items.

Most importantly, however, our results seem to emphasize the need for continued feedback rather than limited feedback. In Carroll and Swain's (1993) original study, they remarked on the same conclusion stating that while learning theorists may accept their results, those who wished to put the results into practice may want to observe long-term retention (pp. 372). As Lightbown and Spada (1995) pointed out, feedback needs to be repeated continuously and consistently especially if an error is based on a developmental pattern. In earlier French immersion studies conducted by White (1991), Harley (1989), and Day & Shapson (1991), there was no significant difference between groups that received feedback and groups that did not when studied again after several months. While our research found an increase in production, albeit slight, in the group receiving implicit feedback, it is questionable whether or not that group would continue to perform well or would backslide. Conversely, the group receiving explicit feedback decreased overall in their productive ability, in contrast to Carroll and Swain's original results. These conflicting results suggest that an examination of the long-term effects of both kinds of feedback is in order. Both the explicit feedback group as well as the implicit feedback group tapered off in our second session.

Perhaps a quasi-experimental study using an entire class of students may yield different results and allow us to generalize Carroll and Swain's findings. Both

Carroll and Swain's research, as well as our own, were done in experimental settings, which raises issues regarding the generalizability of findings to an actual learning situation. If the training session of this study was replicated in a classroom situation, the number of participants and amount of items would be much greater. The data from the production sessions could then be collected on an individual basis from the participants in an experimental setting afterward. Feedback, as well as retention, could be measured over time, which would perhaps allow us greater insight into the effects of negative feedback in general on learners. A situation such as this would produce more samples and could have more pedagogical applications than our experimental study using random sentences in isolated settings³. In addition, neither Carroll and Swain's study, nor our own took into account learners' prior experiences of learning the dative alternation rule in an EFL or ESL setting. Prior knowledge of the dative alternation rule could have an impact on the results, regardless of the type of feedback given. Further studies could determine, in the form of a survey such as the one we implemented, if learners had received prior formal instruction in the targeted grammar point and to what extent they understood the grammatical rule prior to participation. Furthermore, production in both studies was only assessed verbally. To determine how well explicit and implicit feedback benefits learners in their attempts at written production, an alternate set of groups could receive feedback on their written responses. A similar study with written responses would not only provide data on how differently students monitor their responses in writing, but could also provide researchers and instructors with information on which type of feedback assists in effectively correcting learners' written errors.

Our results reflected some of the limitations of the study, namely the number of participants and amount of items used in data collection. Despite these limitations, we believe that further research on explicit vs. implicit negative error correction would benefit researchers and instructors in determining which form of feedback is generally most beneficial in producing increased retainable production of grammatical structures.

Endnotes

1. *Carroll and Swain originally separated the first recall session into a training session, an experimental session, and a recall session. We chose to call the first meeting the first recall session.*
2. *Items used in the training/feedback/production sections of the experiment were identical to items Carroll and Swain used in their original research with the exception of some of the names used. The original items had many Spanish names, which we adapted to American versions for our participants (e.g., Paulo became Paul and Theresa became Therese).*
3. *We would like to acknowledge the dilemma of providing only one type of feedback in a classroom situation, but would like to emphasize the pedagogical advantages of further research conducted in a quasi-experimental setting.*

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Appendix A

Training Session

- A. Mary found a job for Andy.
- B. Will you catch a butterfly for me?
- C. John showed a photograph of his family to Susan.
- D. The bird builds a nest for its chicks.
- E. Joe sent a package to Sophie.
- F. Margaret baked cookies for the visitors.

Feedback/Production Sessions

- 1. Ken made a bookcase for his son.
- 2. The artist created a sculpture for the city.
- 3. The happy couple announced their engagement to the family.
- 4. Can you answer this question for the teacher?
- 5. We ordered pizza for all the students.
- 6. Could you start the washing machine for Sarah?
- 7. Ellen, will you pass the salt to Jane?
- 8. The salesman sold a pair of shoes to Ed.
- 9. The advisor transferred the student to another teacher.
- 10. The teacher reported Chris to the principal.
- 11. Linda offered some beer to her husband.
- 12. Terry Fox ran thousands of kilometers for cancer research.
- 13. Open the door for Nancy.
- 14. The students pronounce a new word for their teacher.
- 15. You always say the same thing to everybody.
- 16. He bought a ring for his fiancée.
- 17. He fixed the lawnmower for his neighbor.
- 18. She introduced her new friend to her mother.
- 19. Phone the good news to Paul!
- 20. The student paid the fee to the secretary.

Appendix B

Training Session Script (Group A-Explicit)

1. Read the instruction card and show participant the example. (*Peter wrote a letter to Theresa*)

2. Complete training cards (6) — if there are any incorrect answers, go through entire training again. Do not explain why answers are incorrect. (After 2 times, move on.)

3. Explain how feedback session will work:

“I will now show you cards with sentences in English written on them. Some of these sentences alternate in English and some do not. After I show you the card, you have fifteen seconds to tell me a new sentence you can make if the sentence alternates. If it does not alternate, please read the sentence on the card again. If your answer is incorrect, I will give you a grammatical explanation of how alternating works. Do you understand?”

4. Show feedback cards (10). Explicit metalinguistic explanation as necessary.

To “alternate” in English,

NP V NP to/for NP + the transfer of possession

=NP V NP NP

5. Explain “guessing” session:

“I will now show you cards with sentences in English written on them. Some of these sentences alternate in English and some do not. After I show you the card, you have fifteen seconds to tell me a new sentence you can make if the sentence alternates. If it does not alternate, please read the sentence on the card again. I will not say anything whether you are correct or not. Do you understand?”

6. Show “guessing” cards (10). Do not say anything.

Appendix B (continued)

Training Session Script (Group B-recasts)

1. Read the instruction card and show participant the example. (*Peter wrote a letter to Theresa*)

2. Complete training cards (6) — if there are any incorrect answers, go through entire training again. Do not explain why answers are incorrect. (After 2 times, move on.)

3. Explain how the feedback session will work:

“I will now show you cards with sentences in English written on them. Some of these sentences alternate in English and some do not. After I show you the card, you have fifteen seconds to tell me a new sentence you can make if the sentence alternates. If it does not alternate, please read the sentence on the card again. If your answer is incorrect, I will say the correct sentence for you. Do you understand?”

4. Show feedback cards (10). Recast as necessary. Do not give any metalinguistic feedback.

5. Explain “guessing” session:

“I will now show you cards with sentences in English written on them. Some of these sentences alternate in English and some do not. After I show you the card, you have fifteen seconds to tell me a new sentence you can make if the sentence alternates. If it does not alternate, please read the sentence on the card again. I will not say anything whether you are correct or not. Do you understand?”

6. Show “guessing” cards (10). Do not say anything.

Appendix C

Post-Study Questionnaire

Thank you very much for your help with our research on how people learn a second language. Please answer the following questions before you leave.

In general, when you make a mistake in your use of English, how would you like to be corrected by a teacher or other native speaker?

(choose one)

- a. I want the teacher/native speaker to tell me that I made a mistake and to give me an explanation of how to say the word/expression/etc. correctly.
- b. I want the teacher/native speaker to tell me that I made a mistake and to just say the correct word/expression/etc. for me.
- c. I don't want the teacher/native speaker to correct me.

In general, when you make a mistake in your use of English, what do you think is the best way a teacher or other native speaker can correct you?

(choose one)

- a. The teacher/native speaker should tell me that I made a mistake and should give me an explanation of how to say the word/expression/etc. correctly.
- b. The teacher/native speaker should tell me that I made a mistake and should just say the correct word/expression/etc. for me.
- c. The teacher/native speaker should not correct me.

Comments:

Thank you very much for your help.

Korean University Freshmens' Dictionary Use and Perceptions Regarding Dictionaries

David Kent
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Abstract

This survey examines factors relating to student dictionary ownership, as well as perceptions concerning dictionary use, and the quality of current dictionaries in light of likeable, dislikable, and desirable features as determined by the survey population. Data collection through the survey-method allowed for a distribution of 270 questionnaires to eight freshman classes, resulting in a return of 244 useable surveys for the study. The focus of this study's questionnaire is three-fold, and gathers data concerning the background of the student's dictionary(s), student's use of their dictionary(s), and dictionary characteristics and features of relevance to the Korean EFL student. Analysis of the data allows us to see what kind of dictionary students possess, where and how they most often put their dictionary to use, and what they would like to see in an ideal dictionary. Further, the results suggest that students are active dictionary users who are aware of the shortcomings and virtues of their current dictionaries and, having consciously evaluated these aspects, will take them into consideration when acquiring a future dictionary. A discussion of survey findings culminates with recommendations on dictionary selection for University English Program (UEP) students within Korea.

Introduction

The dictionary has been a long time companion of many a foreign language student. It is an essential source for data concerning vocabulary items, and it is not simply a classroom tool but an object of life-long use. Yet in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms of Korea students often come without dictionaries, some even come without the text, paper, or pens. There is, however, always one student who asks: 'Teacher, what dictionary is best for me?' Although a seemingly simple question, the answer can be very complex. Initially then, consideration should be given to the role of the dictionary in the study and use of English, as well as to some of the advantages and disadvantages of each type of dictionary available to the Korean EFL learner.

Literature Review

Varying Perceptions of Dictionary Purpose

If the role of the teacher is as a ‘facilitator’ for foreign language learning in the classroom, or a conduit from which the target language passes on to the Korean student, then what is the role of the dictionary? For students, the bilingual dictionary is a preference to its counterpart (Baxter, 1980), and this choice indicates the bilingual dictionary’s role as a translator. For the English language teacher the advocacy of a monolingual dictionary is the trend (Hartmann, as cited by Gu, n.d.), where the monolingual dictionary is seen as a tool that provides students meaning from contextualization and in their use of the target language. Here we see the perception of the role of dictionaries to be very different for the EFL teacher and EFL student.

Many analysts have spoken on the use of various types of dictionaries in the context of EFL. (Cowie, 2000; Gu, n.d.; Koren, 1997; Thompson, 1987; Tono, 1989). Unfortunately, the current fact is that no single dictionary meets 100% of a student’s needs. Although learner dictionaries have put emphasis on the user’s perspective, they may be confusing as learner dictionaries present a great deal more information than standard monolingual dictionaries (McCarthy, 1999). The advantage of a learner dictionary, in Stein’s (1989) view (in Koren, 1997, p.5) is that it provides learner centred explanations of vocabulary, and the syntactic use of terms in actual use examples.

Bilingual dictionaries, on the other hand, as Aust, Kelly, and Roby (1993) illustrate, “are counterproductive because they cultivate the erroneous assumption that there is a one-to-one correspondence between the words of two languages” (cited in Koren, 1997, p. 1), and “encourage translation” (Gu, n.d.). In addition, the use of monolingual English dictionaries by EFL students can also be seen as counterproductive as these dictionaries provide circular definitions (Thompson, 1987). The monolingual dictionary also requires that students know the word, and at times exact spelling, that they need to look up. After the learner finds the term in the dictionary problems may then arise in understanding the definition, as Nesi and Meara (1994) indicate (in Koren, 1997, p.2).

A benefit of utilizing the bilingual dictionary is that it allows learners to search for terms they wish to express in the target language. However, this is truly only a benefit if the dictionary provides a series of definitions, with examples, that allow the learner to scan for the appropriate meaning or term they wish to convey. The monolingual dictionary also offers advantages for the EFL student. Namely, the process of immersion within the target language when searching for and seeking to understand unknown vocabulary items, and in this manner the dictionary proves to be a useful tool in terms of providing both a means for practical use of acquired language skills and the development of lexical knowledge.

Types of Dictionaries

The mono-bilingual dictionary (a monolingual English-English dictionary combined with an English-Korean dictionary), while experiencing some of the disadvantages previously mentioned, can also prove advantageous to the learner. This kind of dictionary allows students to access a translation from English to Korean, and therefore provides general understanding and a basic interpretation of the term. The English word can then be cross-referenced in the English-English section of the dictionary, and as a result provide an appropriate point of meaning for the student.

Print dictionaries, either bilingual or monolingual, require the user to flip pages and scan text in search of vocabulary, all of which becomes a very time-consuming task. Although this can be considered a disadvantage, there may be a hidden advantage to the physical search requirements of print dictionaries. The processes of skimming, scanning, and reading are considerably advantageous for EFL students, as these abilities are essential for developing faster reading skills and the ability to more quickly process information newspaper and magazine articles contain. Print dictionaries may then assist in the development of language acquisition skills as well as improve retention, as students need to think about the term for a longer period as opposed to electronic dictionaries. Print dictionaries also provide a series of examples per headword, numerous example sentences, and allow users to view word families, and therefore exposes the learner to a larger variety of lexical components in any given search process than electronic dictionaries.

Disadvantages of print dictionaries, aside from being time consuming to search through, include such things as small font size, thinness of pages (a quality issue), and differences in phonetic symbols between dictionaries (McCarthy, 1999). It is also well recognized in the EFL field that the inclusion after each headword of phonetic symbols, to illustrate the pronunciation of the word, is a poor substitute for actually hearing the term vocalized.

Electronic dictionaries serve as much more than just mere word translators. Aside from being extremely portable, they are a convenience in terms of providing multi-search paths and speeding up the search process. (Perry, 1997, p.1; Yonally & Gilfert, 1995). Furthermore, they can provide antonyms, idioms, synonyms, irregular verbs, as well as store dictionaries for several languages. The convenience and speed of electronic dictionaries may also provide an immediate feeling of control over the learning environment by the student.

However, there are disadvantages in using electronic dictionaries. Generally, electronic dictionaries provide access to narrow learning through presentation of the entry, and one or two translations, and therefore less information than print dictionaries. Electronic dictionaries with a small amount of memory provide serious restrictions; specific words that students need may not be contained in the dictionary

vocabulary list, insufficient translations and examples may also lead to miscomprehension, or null understanding. Compact units make for tedious operation, and small screens make words and examples hard to review. In addition, anything electronic requires power and batteries will need replacing or recharging. A further disadvantage is that electronic dictionaries with voice capability sound very robotic, and static. This, however, may be more advantageous for students than print dictionaries, which provide clues to pronunciation via representation of headwords in phonetic script before definitions.

In recent years CD, Internet and PC-based dictionaries have come onto the market as alternatives to electronic dictionaries. The largest disadvantage of CD, Internet and PC-based dictionaries is that learners need access to a computer, as well as a good command of computer skills. These types of dictionary are not very portable, and in fact may be inconvenient for a large majority of students to access. In addition, many new Internet bilingual dictionaries contain very limited amounts of data, similar to current electronic dictionaries.

However, multimedia CD, Internet, and PC-based dictionaries allow students the experience of listening to a real native speaker, providing an appropriate language learning audio cue from which students may practice drill pronunciation. Most CD, Internet, and PC-Based dictionaries are easy to use, similar to that of an electronic dictionary but are able to store a much higher amount of data. As a result, many English-English dictionary publishers, such as Macquarie and Oxford, are producing CD and Internet versions of their print dictionaries. This in turn provides a powerful means of accessing all the data contained in the print version of the dictionary, with the speed of an electronic search. Further benefits include development of student computing skills, as all CD, Internet or PC-Based dictionaries require at least the ability of students to type, not only in their native language but also in English.

Of all the above types of dictionaries, regardless of the advantages or disadvantages, the original student question still remains: "What dictionary is best for me?" First, let us determine which dictionaries our South Korean English language learners possess. Then by determining where, when, and how they use the dictionaries they have, and considering what students like, don't like, and want from their dictionary, we will be better equipped to answer the student.

Method

Subjects

Survey participants age in range from 17 to 20, and all are studying their freshman year for the first time at a middle-ranked University in Incheon, South Korea. All survey participants are at an intermediate level of English, as determined

by University English language placement tests, and all are non-English language majors that have undertaken six years of formal English education through middle school and high school. The following table provides a breakdown of total survey participants by major. As the focus of the survey is very broad, and relates to generally determining dictionary ownership, and the perceptions of student dictionary use, and dictionary quality, there was no analysis undertaken on which kind of dictionary various major students use in comparison to students of other majors, nor the frequency of dictionary use between students of different majors in comparison to the type of dictionary they possess. So too the level of dictionary training, or lack thereof, in terms of use and skills for each student and major was not considered. Perhaps these factors can become the focus of further research on this topic, and one which would reward interesting results.

Table 1
Breakdown of Survey Participants by Major

| Major | Number of Students |
|--|---------------------------|
| Electrical and Computer Engineering | 38 |
| Mechanical Engineering | 38 |
| Humanities | 30 |
| Management | 25 |
| Law | 23 |
| Natural Science | 19 |
| Material Engineering | 17 |
| Nursing | 15 |
| Social Science | 13 |
| Information and Communication Technology | 10 |
| Chemical Engineering | 9 |
| International Trade | 7 |
| Math and Statistics | 7 |
| Others | 6 |
| Physical Education | 4 |
| Construction Engineering | 3 |
| Fine Arts Education | 3 |
| Life Sciences | 3 |
| TOTAL | 270 |

It should also be kept in mind that the role of the teacher in the Confucian mind-set is, as Hofstede (1986) states, that of “an authoritative figure” or an all-knowing granter of knowledge where “effectiveness of learning is related to the excellence of the teacher” seeing “students expect[ing] teachers to have all of the answers” (Cited in Joo, 1997). To have a meaning explained by a teacher, in the Confucian role, should see students come to understand the definition, and therefore of what use is a dictionary in class when the teacher is there to provide all of the answers? Students who then start actively searching for meanings of terms in dictionaries may then be placed in an undesirable position of making the teacher lose

face. As this would indicate that, the teacher's explanation was insufficient for students to achieve understanding. As Joo (1997) shows "In Korean classrooms, there is a strong value that neither the teacher nor students should ever be made to lose face. The teacher is never contradicted nor publicly criticized." So too, "students do not insult the teacher's effort by saying, 'I don't understand,' and will nod politely even when they do not understand and attribute the difficulty to their own lack of diligence. Students will remain silent rather than exhibit poor understanding."

Data Collection

A distribution of 270 questionnaires to eight classes of university freshman brought forth a return of 26 unusable and 244 useable questionnaires. The 26 unusable questionnaires were either incomplete or undertaken by international students from Mongolia or Taiwan; as this research focuses solely upon Korean students, this left a remainder of 244 surveys from which to determine the freshmen University English Program (UEP) students attitudes concerning English dictionaries and their usage.

The administration of surveys occurred during class time, of the first semester, of the 2001 academic year, and collection was immediate. The language of the 12-question questionnaire is English, and it consists of three sections. The first section, questions one through four, deals primarily with the background of the students' dictionary(s). The second section, questions five through eight, concerns student use of their dictionary(s). While the focus of the final section, questions nine through 12, is upon dictionary characteristics and features of relevance to students. Students were able to understand the language of the survey, and did not encounter any language difficulties in completing the survey.

The Results

Dictionary Background

This section of analysis determines four factors dictionary ownership, type of dictionary in possession of each student, how often students use various types of dictionaries, and where student dictionaries originate.

Dictionary Ownership.

This question of the survey asked students to indicate what kinds of dictionary they own. Student responses clearly indicate that all students own at least one type of English dictionary, and as will be shown later (in Table 3) some students own from two to four different styles of dictionary. The breakdown of dictionary ownership by type is shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Percentage of Student Dictionary Ownership by Type of Dictionary

| Dictionary Type | Number of Students | Percent of Student Dictionary Ownership |
|------------------------|--------------------|---|
| Bilingual Dictionaries | 236 | 96% |
| English-English | 4 | 2% |
| English-English-Korean | 4 | 2% |
| TOTALS | 244 | 100% |

Dictionary Types.

The data illustrated in Table 3 overwhelmingly tells us that most students have access to print dictionaries, as 91% of all students surveyed own one, with 37 students possessing other forms of dictionary (either electronic or pc-based) in addition to a print dictionary. This clearly indicates that it is well within the means for almost every student to bring their dictionary to class, as 96% of students own dictionaries they can carry (either electronic or print forms). The remaining minority (4%) exclusively rely on the use of PC-Based dictionaries, which require computers, and as a result are not easily transported into the EFL classroom.

Table 3
Percentage of Student Dictionary Ownership by Style of Dictionary

| Dictionary Style | Number of Students | Percent of Student Ownership |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|------------------------------|
| Print Only | 186 | 76% |
| Print, as well as Other types | 37 | 15% |
| Electronic Only | 12 | 5% |
| PC-Based Only | 9 | 4% |
| TOTALS | 244 | 100% |

Types of Dictionary in Use.

Of all the survey subjects, who have possession of more than one dictionary (electronic, PC-Based, or print), these students still utilize print dictionaries with more regularity. This data is represented within Table 4. Actually, this may be because only a very small minority of students surveyed rely solely on the use of electronic or PC-Based dictionaries, as well as due to the previously described disadvantages of such dictionaries.

Table 4
Student Perception of the Percent of Dictionary Use by those who own more than one Type of Dictionary

| Dictionary Type | Number of Students Regularly using Dictionary Type | Student Perception of the Amount of Time they use each Dictionary |
|-----------------------|--|---|
| Print Dictionary | 22 | 60% |
| Electronic Dictionary | 9 | 25% |
| CD/PC Dictionary | 6 | 15% |
| TOTALS | 37 | 100% |

Dictionary Choice.

The importance of the data detailed by Table 5 is that it indicates that more than half of those surveyed (58%) could weigh up the various types of dictionaries available and select one(s) that they felt could meet their study needs. Although the remaining students all have a dictionary, they did not choose the type of dictionary they own.

Table 5
Student Dictionary Choice and Payment

| Choice/Payment | Number of Students | Percent of Students |
|--|--------------------|---------------------|
| A family member chose my dictionary(s), and gave it/them to me as a gift | 103 | 42% |
| I chose my dictionary(s), and paid for it/them with my own money | 83 | 34% |
| I chose my dictionary(s), but someone else paid for it/them | 58 | 24% |
| TOTALS | 244 | 100% |

Dictionary Use

This area of investigation ascertains frequency with which students search for words, where students use their dictionary, for what purpose students use their dictionary, and the translation method students employ with their dictionary.

Frequency of Use.

Since this data indicates that a large number of students actively use their dictionary on a daily basis it can be reasonably assumed that a dictionary is a learning companion and translator, and an essential source from which students seek to gather data concerning unknown vocabulary items. This frequency of use also ties into the purpose of use and place of use for a student's dictionary.

Table 6
Frequency of Dictionary Use

| Frequency of Use | Number of Students | Percent of Students |
|---------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| 20+ Times per day | 15 | 6% |
| 10-20 Times per day | 21 | 9% |
| 1-10 Times per day | 103 | 42% |
| 1-10 Times per week | 66 | 27% |
| >1 Time per week | 39 | 16% |
| TOTALS | 244 | 100% |

Place of Use.

Students were asked to estimate the percent of time they spent using their dictionary in several places. As can be seen, in Table 7, students indicate that they spend the most amount of time using their English dictionaries at home. In English class, dictionaries are perceived to be put to work twice as often as in other classes, while the library is nearly on par with English class usage. As may be expected only a very limited number of students estimate that they utilize their dictionaries on the move, and even fewer students indicate their use of dictionaries in places other than class, home, or the library.

Table 7
Place of Dictionary Use

| Place of Use | Number of Students who Indicate Regular use of Dictionaries in Each Place | Overall Percent of Time Students Perceive Using Dictionaries in Each Place |
|-----------------------------|---|--|
| Home | 154 | 63% |
| English Classes | 34 | 14% |
| Library | 32 | 13% |
| Other Classes | 17 | 7% |
| Travelling (to home/school) | 5 | 2% |
| Other Places | 2 | 1% |
| TOTALS | 244 | 100% |

Purpose of Use.

Students were asked to estimate the percent of time they spent using their dictionary for listening, reading, speaking and writing tasks. As Table 8 signifies, students indicate a higher reliance on their dictionaries when attempting to communicate in the target language in written form than in spoken form. Additionally, listening is ranked for higher use than speaking.

Table 8
Dictionary Purpose of Use

| Purpose of Use | Average Number of Students using Dictionaries for Each Activity | Average Percent of Student Perception of Time Engaged in Each Activity |
|-----------------------|--|---|
| Reading | 168 | 69% |
| Writing | 44 | 18% |
| Listening | 20 | 8% |
| Speaking | 12 | 5% |
| TOTALS | 244 | 100% |

Translation Use.

Each participant in the survey was asked to estimate the percent of time they spent using their dictionary for translation from English to Korean and Korean to English. As a result, students indicate that the vast majority of translation occurs from target language to native language, English to Korean. (Refer to Table 9).

Table 9
Dictionary Translation Use

| Translation Method | Average Number of Students Regularly using Translation Method | Average Percent of Student Perception of Time Translation Employed |
|---------------------------|--|---|
| English-Korean | 185 | 76% |
| Korean-English | 59 | 24% |
| TOTALS | 244 | 100% |

Dictionary Characteristics, and Features

The final segment of the survey establishes importance of electronic dictionaries being able to speak or pronounce words for students, most likeable features of student dictionaries, most disliked features of student dictionaries, and student suggestions for improving existing dictionaries.

Importance of Electronic Dictionary Speaking Functions.

Subject responses to the importance of electronic dictionaries being able to speak or pronounce words is measurable by the Likert-type scale found in Question 9 of the survey. By far this data indicates that students who use electronic dictionaries, or students who wish to purchase one, consider the speaking component of such dictionaries as a valuable tool.

Table 10
Importance of the Speaking Component of Electronic Dictionaries

| Importance Rating | Number of Students | Percent of Students |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| Really important | 20 | 8% |
| Important | 137 | 56% |
| Not important | 83 | 34% |
| Depends on cost | 4 | 2% |
| TOTALS | 244 | 100% |

Likeable Dictionary Attributes.

The open-ended style of Question 10 shows that almost one-third of all students like the fact that their dictionaries contain a large number of headwords. Students also like the layout of their current dictionary along with the example sentences that it provides. A number of students also like the ease of use and user-friendliness of their dictionary, readability, and the paper and print quality of their dictionary. A very small minority of students like the portability of their dictionary, and the dictionary's ability to pronounce the words. A very small proportion of students don't know what they like about their dictionary, and an even smaller number of students like the fact that their dictionary was cheap.

Table 11
Likeable Features of Dictionaries

| Likeable Features | Number of Students | Percent of Students |
|---|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| Amount of vocabulary | 76 | 31% |
| Layout, and example sentences | 46 | 19% |
| Easy to search | 32 | 13% |
| Colored terms, paper, and print quality | 27 | 11% |
| Easy to use | 27 | 11% |
| Don't know | 20 | 8% |
| Portability | 9 | 4% |
| Can speak | 5 | 2% |
| Cheap | 2 | 1% |
| TOTALS | 244 | 100% |

Dislikable Dictionary Attributes.

Almost half of all students surveyed dislike the bulkiness of their current print dictionary. Alternatively, almost no student dislikes their electronic dictionary, although keep in mind only a limited number of students surveyed actually possess one of these dictionaries. The data also indicates that students are either satisfied with their dictionary, don't know what features they dislike, find that their dictionary is difficult to use, or that it does not contain enough vocabulary to meet their needs. While a larger number of students dislike the poor paper quality of their dictionary, in some cases indicating that it often tore while they were searching for terms; other students found that provided explanations for terminology are outdated, or inadequate, for them to gain an understanding of the term in use. A more limited portion of students state that the font size of their dictionary is too small for them to read without strain. An even smaller grouping of students thought that the cost of their dictionary is too high for what it provides.

Table 12
Dislikable Features of Dictionaries

| Dislikable Features | Number of Students | Percent of Students |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| Weight/thickness | 118 | 48% |
| Outdated/unclear explanations | 22 | 9% |
| Poor paper quality | 20 | 8% |
| Difficult to use | 14 | 6% |
| Don't know | 14 | 6% |
| Low amount of vocabulary | 14 | 6% |
| Nothing | 14 | 6% |
| Small font size | 13 | 5% |
| Expensive | 10 | 4% |
| Electronic | 5 | 2% |
| TOTALS | 244 | 100% |

Desirable Dictionary Attributes.

Asking students what they want to see in a dictionary, although an open-ended question that allows for various responses, brought forth data that shows students evaluating differing aspects of their dictionaries and perhaps contemplating what to look for in a future dictionary. Of concern to a high percentage of students was the physical portability of dictionaries. On the same level as portability was another student concern, the illustration of text-based examples. Other concerns for students involve having a dictionary that is easier to search. Students also consider a larger number of explanations per term as valuable. So too students desire a

dictionary that possesses a larger number of headwords, although it is not clear from the survey if this relates to specialized technical vocabulary or common terminology. Students also seek a dictionary with improved layout, including better print and paper quality. Although a limited number of students are unsure of what features they would like to see in dictionaries, other students, although also a limited number, are certain that dictionaries should be able to speak, or that they be cheaper. A very small number of students also consider a PC-Based dictionary as viable. A few students also indicate that they would like to see a ‘Konglish’ section incorporated within current dictionaries.

Table 13
Desirable Features in a Dictionary

| Desirable Features | Number of Students | Percent of Students |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| Illustrations/pictures for examples | 51 | 21% |
| Increased portability | 51 | 21% |
| Larger number of examples | 34 | 14% |
| Don't know | 28 | 11% |
| Larger number of headwords | 24 | 10% |
| Improved layout, and quality | 24 | 10% |
| Can speak | 13 | 5% |
| Easier to search | 13 | 5% |
| CD/PC-Based Dictionary | 2 | 1% |
| Cheaper price | 2 | 1% |
| Incorporated Konglish section | 2 | 1% |
| TOTALS | 244 | 100% |

Discussion

An important point of note is that all students surveyed own at least one English dictionary, and indicate that they tend to use it on a daily basis, although looking around classrooms of students who participated in the survey it's clear that not every student brings their dictionary to English class. So why is it that we as teachers aren't seeing all our students with dictionaries in class? Portability may be a factor, as students dislike the bulkiness of their current dictionary (refer to Table 12) and would like a more portable one (see Table 13). So too trends of dictionary use may be a factor with most students utilising their dictionary at home, and less commonly in class and the library (indicated by Table 7). A further possibility may be that of frustration where low proficiency students, unable to find suitable definitions, refrain from using a dictionary (Gu, n.d.). It should also be remembered that almost half of the students did not choose the type of dictionary that they own. As a result the dictionary these students possess may be inappropriate for their study needs, or one which the student doesn't like and therefore doesn't want to bring to class or actively use for study purposes.

Since the majority of students surveyed access their dictionaries in the domicile, it is assumed that this is for the completion of homework tasks, such as reading major texts, which are in English, or for the completion of written reports and various assignments. This clearly illustrates that the perception, and actual use, of the dictionary by students is not that of a classroom tool but that of a learning aide. As the high use of dictionaries for the English to Korean stream of translation supports the notion that survey subjects use dictionaries for internalizing the language, as for less than a quarter of dictionary use for translation students are active in search of terms they wish to communicate. As McCarthy (1999) states “we use the dictionary as a metacognitive tool – it is part of a strategy for problem solving”. Although as students indicate a higher reliance on dictionaries when writing and reading, and therefore as a tool to inform them of the meaning of terms that are unfamiliar, students could use either bilingual or monolingual dictionaries for this purpose. Yet, almost all students possess bilingual dictionaries and as a result use their dictionary in order to ascertain a one-to-one correspondence between English and Korean words, which is, as Aust, et. al. (cited by Koren, 1997, p. 1) considers, one of the disadvantages for using a bilingual dictionary. Although it should be noted that Critchley (1998) indicates, in reference to research by Luppescu and Day (1993), among students who employ learning and look-up strategies, “it has been shown that students who use a bilingual dictionary learn more vocabulary than students who read without a dictionary”. Research conducted by Tono (1989) also “support[s] the idea that a significant difference in performance [for the better] exists between reading comprehension with dictionaries and that without”.

What is interesting is that the average percent of time students indicate for the use of dictionaries in English class is almost the same as that for the use of dictionaries in the library; these figures are also similar to the percentage of students who possess both print and electronic dictionaries. Although not verifiable from the survey, this may indicate that students often leave their dictionaries at home, and the same number of students that bring dictionaries to school (for use during self-study periods in the library) also tend to bring dictionaries for use in class, which then highlights the notion of ease of portability as being an issue for the use of student dictionaries on the move between classes and around campus. Although the amount of time spent using English dictionaries in classes other than English is perceived to be lower, this may be the result of Korean lecturers explaining the written material in the native language, as well as the common practice of providing students with translations or glossaries of important terms and definitions found in the courses English language textbooks.

Students indicate that they most like the fact that their current dictionary contains numerous headwords although students do wish that their current dictionary contained more terminology, although it isn't clear if this is in terms of common terminology or specialized vocabulary. Students also indicate liking the layout of the

dictionary they possess along with the example sentences that it provides. A number of students also like the user-friendliness of their dictionary in terms of searching, this also extends to other respondents who find their dictionary easy to use and still others who like the readability provided from colored terminology and the paper and print quality of their dictionary. A small minority of students indicate liking the portability of their dictionary, as well as the fact their dictionary can pronounce headwords. This, however, relates more to the fact that only a minority of students possess solely electronic as opposed to print dictionaries, and as a result, this preference may in fact be higher than indicated by the survey. A consistently low number of students also indicate throughout the survey that cost is a factor concerning dictionaries. What is important to understand from this is that it shows that most students rank quality and convenience much more highly than cost. As a very small minority of students consider price to be a factor in selecting a dictionary, evidence then indicates that this would not impinge upon the selection of dictionaries such as electronic ones with the speaking feature. Indeed, the speaking component of electronic dictionaries may weigh heavier as an asset for non-English speaking majors, as most of these students may have difficulty in reading and pronouncing the phonetic script that follows headword entries in print dictionaries. Hearing the word aloud also allows for a physical auditory connection with a term, and for EFL students this provides a method from which they can then drill the pronunciation of previously unknown vocabulary.

The weight and bulkiness of current print dictionaries is a major concern to students, and clearly ranks as the most disliked feature of their current dictionary, and this explains why students indicate a desire for a more portable one. On the same level as the aforementioned concern was the desire for illustration of text-based examples. Interestingly though a text version of a dictionary with illustrations will naturally be larger, and therefore a weightier product, than current print dictionaries, unless, of course, the number of headwords is lowered. This may also show electronic dictionary publishers that what students also want to see represented on the screens of such dictionaries are graphic representations of the meanings, and examples of terms. This is something that software for a portable digital assistant (PDA) can handle more easily than the current electronic dictionaries available to students. While almost no student who owns an electronic dictionary dislikes it, aside from the ongoing cost of replacing batteries and the robotic sound of spoken terminology produced by the product, it must be remembered that only a limited amount of students surveyed actually possess one of these dictionaries. Ease of searching is another desirable feature that students say a dictionary needs to possess, and again the electronic version of dictionaries are easier to search than print versions and this response may be due to the fact that most students surveyed own only print versions of dictionaries. Students also value seeing a higher degree of explanations per term, which indicates that students wish to gain access to a series of various uses of the terms they search for as well as the meaning. The quality of their current dictionary

was another concern for students, in terms of thin pages tearing, font size causing eye-strain, and outdated or inadequate explanations of headwords leading to null understanding. These points may signify why students wish to have a larger amount of headwords, more examples provided for each headword, and a dictionary with a clearer layout that is easier to search and use. This also points toward further reasons, along with weight and bulkiness, for why students don't use their dictionary more often, and tend to leave it for use only within the home.

Other desirable features that students would like to see in a dictionary include speaking features as well as the ability to use a PC-Based dictionary. This is interesting as it goes against the concept of portability, although it is in line with the concepts of providing a greater degree of headwords, increased examples of term usage, ease and speed of use, and illustrations for terms. Incorporation of a 'Konglish' section into current dictionaries was also desirable for a few students. This last point is also fascinating as most students are not even aware that they are using Konglish terms, "even students who know the English sometimes don't use it, and other students continue to use Konglish even after they know the English term" (Kent, 2001, p. 13).

Conclusion

The response then, to the students' question "What dictionary is best for me?" should be answered in reflection of current desires and actual dictionary use, as well as in regard to the advantages and disadvantages of the types of dictionary available. As such, comparing differing types of dictionary allows for the most viable use of more than one dictionary as a better option for students. In this manner, the use of two dictionaries can see one cover the disadvantages of the other.

As students overwhelmingly use their dictionary while reading, or for translation, a bilingual (English-Korean Korean-English) dictionary would suit this purpose best. Such a dictionary can then be augmented with a monolingual (English-English) learner or standard dictionary to provide students with a well-rounded understanding of definitions. As the bilingual dictionary will allow them to gain a general understanding of the term in the native language, while the monolingual dictionary explanation will put the term into context through illustration of a higher amount of example sentences (something students desire) as well as immersing the student in the target language.

In addition to the style of dictionary, the type of dictionary (electronic, print, or PC-Based) needs consideration. It must be remembered that, currently, print dictionaries assist students in learning terms, whereas electronic dictionaries assist students in finding words. As such, the most adequate dictionary combination for students may be an electronic bilingual (English-Korean Korean-English) dictionary, and a print monolingual (English-English) dictionary. This sees the print dictionary

fit with student desires for a high degree of examples listed per headword; while the electronic dictionary fits with student desires for portability, ease of searching, and perhaps also an increased amount of headwords.

Ultimately however, the choice of dictionary should be one that students like and enjoy using, one that provides them with the things they think they want from a dictionary, and also one that provides functionality and is adequate to meet their life-long study needs. It must be remembered that no current dictionary will fill the 100% needs of a student. This is clear from student responses which show the features they would like to see in an idealized dictionary; those features being electronic, so portable, with both English-Korean translations and English definitions and examples, with more headwords, with an option to see word families as well as individual words, along with auditory pronunciation with less robotic delivery, and so on. It is therefore the authors recommendation that a combination of dictionaries be used by students; both a print English-English monolingual dictionary for target language immersion and increased amounts of examples and headwords, combined with an electronic English-Korean Korean-English dictionary for general understanding of terms, increased portability, quick searches, and auditory cues for pronunciation.

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7. When do you use an English dictionary?

- (%) Listening (university lectures, TV, radio, conversations ...)
- (%) Reading (books, Internet, newspapers ...).
- (%) Speaking (searching for words you want to say).
- (%) Writing (searching for words you want to write).

100% TOTAL

8. How do you use English dictionaries for translation?

- (%) From English to Korean.
- (%) From Korean to English.

100% TOTAL

9. Some electronic dictionaries can speak, or pronounce, words. How important is this feature to you?

- () Really important.
- () Important.
- () Not important, just cool.
- () Depends on the cost.

10. What features do you like about English dictionaries?

11. What features don't you like about English dictionaries?

12. What features would you like to see in a dictionary?

EAP in Korea: Working Together to Meet Changing Needs.

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Abstract

Arguing that recent initiatives by officials from the Korean Ministry of Education and individual universities will lead to an increase in the amount of content instruction conducted through English in Korea, the author suggests that the development of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses culturally appropriate for the Korean context needs to be considered. As EAP instruction generally requires co-operation between subject-area professors and EAP instructors, the author presents data from a survey of native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) on the level of difficulty they associate with such co-operation. The survey data indicates that increased knowledge about the field of EAP in Korea and improvements in relationships between Korean faculty and NESTs may facilitate development of EAP in Korea. He concludes by arguing that a strategic approach to innovation management may increase knowledge about the field of EAP and engage stakeholders in cooperative decision-making processes which might even result in improved relations.

Introduction

As Korean universities in general and graduate schools in particular attempt to 'globalize' and 'internationalize' the education their students receive, there is a rapid growth in the number of students studying academic courses through English. Whether the instruction takes place within Korea in a classroom made up entirely of Korean speakers or abroad on a short-term exchange program, Korean students and professors are increasingly encountering a need for English during the normal course of their academic careers (Gulliver 2000, 2001).

English for Academic Purposes, an approach to English teaching which is usually considered a branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), attempts to

develop students' ability to use English as a language of academic study. Many good overviews of the fields of ESP and EAP are available (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997).

One distinguishing characteristic of the field of EAP is the high level of co-operation it often requires between English language teachers and subject-area professors. In order to contextualize EAP in the Korean higher education system, a survey has been conducted of native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) in Korea. The survey aimed to gather information on the level of co-operation NESTs envisioned being possible between themselves and Korean professors.

The difficulties of expanding the amount of EAP instruction available in Korea will be considered and an argument will be made for how a managed approach to innovation could be employed to minimise these difficulties. An approach to innovation management which encourages collaborative relationships between all stakeholders (students, foreign and Korean professors, and university administrators) and stimulates the participation of opinion leaders will be proposed as a means to promote deep and lasting change.

The Need for EAP in Korean Higher Education

Although generally Koreans value their language and historically have struggled to ensure that it is the language through which students learn, it is increasingly not the only language through which Koreans study. Hundreds of millions of dollars are spent on overseas studies and millions more may soon be spent on bringing foreign professors to Korea to teach, not as English teachers, but as subject-area specialists. Academic classes conducted in English are being promoted as a means to improve students' foreign language ability, attract students from other countries (especially nearby Asian countries), and reduce the education deficit.

This being the case, it is surprising the extent to which English courses specifically designed for students with real academic needs for English are absent from the curriculum. Surveys of university course descriptions (Gulliver 2000) have indicated that few courses designed to meet specific or even general academic needs are being offered. In this section, I will briefly explore the growing use of English as a language through which academic instruction occurs within Korea and by Korean students overseas, and suggest EAP courses could be provided to meet the specific academic needs of students.

The Increasing Use of English in Academic Study

In Gulliver (2001) I argued that the number of Korean students studying overseas has doubled or tripled in each of the last three decades; over 70% of

students studying overseas are studying in English speaking countries; academic courses are being taught through English in Korea to attract foreign students; a growing number of foreign professors are being hired to teach academic courses within Korean universities; and several Korean universities are developing agreements for joint programs taught through English (by both foreign and Korean professors) in Korea in order to 'globalize' the education that students receive.

Some facts of interest:

- Korea ranks 3rd in the world for number of outbound students;
- Korea ranks 44th in the world for the number of inbound students;
- In 1971, 7,632 Korean students were studying abroad;
- In 1980, 13,302 Korean students were studying abroad;
- In 1999, 154,219 Korean students were studying abroad;
- In 1999, the ratio of outbound students to inbound students was 25:1;
- At least 70% of the Korean students who were studying abroad in 1999 were studying in English speaking countries.

(Bak 2000)

- The deficit resulting from the disparity of outbound to inbound students was US\$756.2 million in 1999;
- In both 1996 and 1997, the educational deficit exceeded US\$1 billion.

(Kim, H.D. 2000)

The trends noted above indicate that the English language plays and will probably continue to play a major role in the education of Korean university students. Education in English-speaking countries represents a large share of the US\$756.2 million deficit that Korea was burdened by in 1999.

Several university reform related-initiatives will result in an increase in the amount of content instruction through English within Korean universities. The 1.4 trillion won 'Brain Korea 21' project (Ministry of Education, n.d., 2000) will result in increased uses of English within Korean academia (Gulliver, 2000, 2001).

Korean universities are also taking it upon themselves to increase the amount of content instruction through English (Frouser, 1999; J.S. Kim, 2000; C.S. Kim, 2000, 52; Korea Herald, 1998, July 30). Some universities are establishing cooperative programs with foreign universities through which the majority of instruction will take place in English (Sejong University, n.d.; Shin, 2000, 47). Content instruction through English is also being seen as a way of attracting foreign students and improving Korean students language proficiency (Auh, 2000, 68; Jeong, 2000; J.W. Kim, 2000, 104; K.C. Lee, 2000, 23).

While undoubtedly the majority of students will continue to complete their tertiary education through their native language, an increasing number will, at least

for a portion of their academic career, be required to study through English. It would be irresponsible of universities participating in this trend not to re-evaluate the extent of students' proficiency in academic English. The consequences of not providing students with adequate opportunities to develop their academic English proficiency would include unequal access to education, unsatisfactory academic achievement, increased or wasted expenditure on content instruction through English, and failure of university reform initiatives.

The Need for EAP

It has been argued by proponents of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and its branches, including English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), that when a group of students have an identifiable and shared reason for studying a language, a real-life need, that courses can be designed to help students satisfy their needs or achieve their goals. The advantages of providing courses which take into account students real-life need for learning English include increased motivation, cost effectiveness, improved learning, and increased sense of relevance (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997; Johns and Dudley-Evans, 1991; Kroll, 1979). The danger of not providing such courses are that students may become frustrated with general English courses which teach them to use language in ways which are not immediately relevant while a genuine need exists for them to use the language in their lives outside the language classroom.

English for Academic Purposes, usually thought of as a branch of English for Specific Purposes, could be defined as "English language teaching which is aware of the students' specific, shared, real-world, academic needs and makes those needs an organising principle of the course" (Gulliver, 2000). Beyond that, EAP would be difficult to pinpoint with any accuracy. EAP, being informed by the field of English language teaching, is subject to the same trends, shifts, innovations, and revolutions.

An EAP course and, for that matter an ESP course, attempts to have a high degree of what I have called 'task authenticity' and 'text authenticity'. "Task authenticity is the extent to which tasks in the language classroom are comparable to tasks the students need to undertake in their content courses" (Gulliver, 2001, 398). A course which teaches students to read short passages and answer multiple choice questions may not be appropriate preparation for students who are being prepared to study in a lecture-based course, in which students are evaluated through essay writing.

It may not be enough to take into account the *way* students will be using the language when designing an EAP course; it might also be desirable to consider *what* language students will be using. "Text authenticity is a measure of the extent to which the language used in the language classroom is comparable to the language

students are likely to encounter in 'the real world' (Gulliver, 2001, 398). Degree of formality, level of semantic difficulty, accent(s), subject-specific vocabulary, rhetorical devices, and even grammatical structures found to occur more frequently within specific disciplines are possible areas of concern when pursuing text authenticity.

Without a high degree of task and text authenticity, an EAP course runs the risk of losing the advantages of cost-effectiveness, higher motivation and sense of relevance, and improved learning (or at least more directed learning) that justify its existence. In order to maintain a high degree of task and text authenticity close co-operation with subject-area professors is called for. In other countries, it has on occasion been difficult for language proficiency instructors to achieve close working relationships with subject-area professors (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, p. 47; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 164). This article is concerned most directly with the possibility of close co-operation within Korea.

Developing EAP Programs in Korea: One Concern

The following section attempts an analysis of one difficulty which implementers of EAP might find within Korea. The need for co-operation between subject-area professors (SAPs) and EAP instructors may present challenges within Korea and receives special attention here. This need for co-operation has been a problematic aspect of EAP program development in other contexts and it is expected that it would also be a challenge within Korea.

Subject-Area Professor/EAP Instructor Co-operation

One aspect of EAP that is rather unique and challenging is the desirability of co-operation between subject-area professors and EAP instructors. A close relationship between these two groups allows the EAP instructor to gain adequate knowledge about the subject from the subject-area professor and allows the subject-area professor to steer the EAP class in directions beneficial to the subject curriculum.

The subject-area professor is a 'stakeholder' in the students' EAP development and it is possible for them to play a positive role in guiding the class. The benefit for them will be in the students' increased ability to follow the subject class. Students will be able to participate more fully if they are less hindered by problems with language.

The contribution of the subject-area professor may also benefit EAP instructors if, through co-operation, they are better able to: gather information; gain knowledge and enthusiasm about the subject content; focus on the meaning of the students' contribution; and understand students' language needs. Below are lists of roles subject-area professors may play and roles that EAP instructors may play. The lists

are by no means exhaustive. Which roles are played will depend on the level of co-operation within the classroom.

Subject-area professors' roles:

- provider of resources – the resources could include the subject teacher's lectures, secondary source material, essays, exams from previous years;
- consultant - the EAP instructor would benefit from having a colleague who can provide expert knowledge of the subject area;
- evaluator - the subject teacher could be asked to evaluate students' work for subject-area knowledge;¹
- co-writer of materials with the language teacher - materials which are co-written may include exam questions, lectures and mini-lectures, reading material, listening exercises, etc.;
- lecturer - the subject-area professor may present lectures which are attended by the EAP students or which are recorded by the language teacher for study in the EAP course;
- team-teacher - some classes may be team-taught with the subject teacher providing expert commentary on the students' contributions to the class.

(based on Dudley Evans and St. John, 1998, 42-48; Jordan 1997)

EAP instructors' roles:

- gatherer of information about the subject course;
- co-investigator with students and subject teachers;
- co-writer of materials with the subject teacher;
- organiser of tutorials - tutorials could be set up to help students with difficulties they have with the subject course;
- team-teacher - the language teacher could initiate conversations, draw out student participation, and comment on the language form of students' contributions to the class.

(based on Dudley Evans and St. John, 1998, 42-48; Jordan 1997)

As the co-operative relationship between language teacher and subject-area professors is an aspect of EAP not so common in English language teaching generally, it is worth investigating whether problems between language teachers and subject-area professors are likely to place limits on the development of EAP courses. Different models of EAP courses may require different levels of co-operation. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) identify three levels of co-operation: co-operation, collaboration and team-teaching. They note, however, that:

It is not uncommon for language and subject teachers to be rather suspicious of each other, sometimes even highly critical. Clearly where there is suspicion or hostility, collaboration or team-teaching is unlikely to be successful.

(Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, 47)

To determine the level of co-operation perceived to be achievable within Korea between native English-speaking Teachers (NESTs) and Korean subject-area professors (SAPs), I have conducted a survey of NESTs. The purpose for and results of this survey are discussed below.

Co-operation

Co-operation, the first level, involves the least effort on the part of the SAP (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, 42-43). At this level of co-operation, the EAP instructor consults with the SAP in order to gain a fuller understanding of the subject, the students' need for English, and how the course fits into the larger curriculum. The EAP instructor takes the initiative in seeking out the information while the SAP acts as a consultant. This role requires a minimum of effort on the part of the subject-area professor and is, therefore, probably the most workable when close relationships between subject teachers and language teachers is difficult to obtain. It is not necessarily the most desirable, however. Without providing examples, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, 43) write: 'there are clear dangers in ESP teachers operating without much consultation with the departments that students are studying in'. These dangers could possibly include: language teachers focusing on skills which are not helpful to the students, using reading material which is out of date or otherwise undesirable, too much overlapping or too little connection with subject courses, and using completely unrelated professional languages or working within different paradigms.

Obviously, if a minimum of co-operation is not possible, then only models of EAP in which the language teachers' course is entirely distinct and independent from subject teachers' courses could be considered. The survey items that were intended to measure the extent to which EAP courses based on a minimum level of co-operation might be possible are listed below.

How difficult would it be for you to...

- 1.1 ... consult with subject teachers about departmental goals?
- 1.2 ... develop a working knowledge of the subject?
- 1.3 ... consult with subject teachers about their students' need for English?

Collaboration

The second level of co-operation suggested by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, 44-45) is collaboration. At this level, the relationship is no longer one-sided. The EAP instructor and the SAP work together in planning courses and in selecting or creating materials (possibly by modifying or rewriting existing materials). The EAP instructor may attend lectures and conduct seminars based upon topics explored in the lecture. The EAP instructor need not become an expert on the subject (the SAP is available for consultation) but the EAP instructor will probably become, at least, a co-learner of the subject with the students. The EAP instructor may prepare the students for the subject class or help students with difficulties that arose during their class. Although the work that the EAP instructor and the SAP do occurs mostly outside of the classroom, the students will begin to realise that the subject teacher feels the EAP class is worthwhile (Jordan 1997, 121). Through collaborating, the course gains in authenticity, credibility, and ability to meet students' needs.

If collaboration is possible, then a wider range of approaches to EAP becomes available. Subject specific courses become possible and the potential of EAP - the ability to provide courses that meet with very specific academic needs - becomes apparent. The survey items that were intended to measure the possibility of collaboration are listed below.

How difficult would it be for you to ...

- 2.1 ... work closely with a subject teacher in planning a course?
- 2.2 ... co-create materials which support a subject teacher's courses?
- 2.3 ... conduct seminars (in English) based around a subject teacher's lectures?

Team-Teaching

The third level of co-operation, the most intimate of the three levels, is that of team-teaching (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, 45-47). If, in collaboration, the subject teacher and the language teacher work closely outside of the classroom, in team-teaching they work together inside and outside of the classroom. In team-teaching, both the subject teacher and the language teacher may appear together in the tutorial, one providing subject specific commentary, and the other providing commentary on language form. They could take on other roles in this tutorial as well, hopefully drawing each other out and supporting each other's efforts. This is the level of co-operation that is most difficult to arrive at, the most likely to be plagued by hostility or jealousy, and requires the most time spent in planning.

The benefits may outweigh the disadvantages. For example, Jordan (1997, 121) notes that the subject teachers 'act as informants on what goes on in the subject discipline' and provide authentic language. The language teacher benefits from the greater status that may be accorded to subject lecturers. As Jordan (1997, 121) writes: 'There is an additional benefit: the students see that their subject tutors take the EAP/ESAP classes seriously. This can only be advantageous.' Students benefit from having access to subject-area knowledge and assistance with language at the same time. SAPs may benefit from having an interlocutor in the classroom or they may benefit from having someone to work with who is more attuned to the students' language problems.

Team-teaching allows the widest range of approaches to EAP but it may also be the least likely and most difficult to implement. Forcing team-teaching upon unwilling participants is not only likely to fail but likely to cause long-term damage to professional relationships. The survey items that were intended to measure the possibility of team-teaching are listed below.

How difficult would it be for you to ...

- 3.1 ... work with a subject teacher in the classroom?
- 3.2 ... team-teach tutorials with a subject teacher?
- 3.3 ... maintain a close professional working relationship with a subject teacher for at least one semester?

Survey of NESTs on Levels of Difficulty Associated with Co-operation with Subject-Area Professors

In July 2000, 130 NESTs were sent a request via email to complete a questionnaire posted on the internet. The survey was conducted over the Internet out of a desire to obtain a higher return rate than was felt to be achievable through a mail-out survey. It was also felt that, as many NESTs enjoy a long summer vacation, it would be more likely for a survey to be completed during the survey period if administered electronically.

One obvious disadvantage of conducting a survey by e-mail is that respondents might recognise that the survey is not entirely anonymous as their e-mail addresses could be recognised by the researcher. While there may be a greater sense of anonymity than would be present if face-to-face interviews were used to conduct the research, there is likely to be less of a sense of anonymity than would be associated with questionnaires sent through the post. The researcher gave assurances of confidentiality but it is possible that the respondents might have been less honest than they would have been on a questionnaire sent through the post.

Of the initial 130 requests sent by e-mail, 12 were returned 'recipient not found' indicating that the e-mail addresses were either incorrect or out-dated. 17 respondents reported that their web browser would not allow them to submit the HTML form. These respondents were sent the questionnaires within the body of an e-mail message, 10 responding.

In total, 53 responses were received, a response rate of 45% (of the 118 requests believed to have been received). 6 respondents indicated they did not or were no longer working at a university (graduate or undergraduate) or at a university language institute (ULI) and were eliminated from the study. Of the 47 respondents remaining in the study 2 worked in graduate schools (1 female, 1 male), 38 worked in universities (17 female, 21 male), and 7 worked in a ULI (3 females, 4 males). The survey questions can be found in the Appendix.

The respondents ranking of the items intended to measure perceived difficulty involved in co-operating with SAPs reveals fairly normal distribution (table 1).

Table 1
47 respondents ranking of items 1.1 through 3.3 on perceived level of difficulty.

| | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.3 |
|----------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| Very Easy | 3 | 8 | 6 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 4 |
| Easy | 9 | 11 | 11 | 6 | 7 | 11 | 8 | 6 | 7 |
| Not Difficult | 14 | 18 | 16 | 12 | 13 | 13 | 13 | 11 | 12 |
| Difficult | 14 | 5 | 11 | 18 | 17 | 18 | 18 | 22 | 19 |
| Very Difficult | 7 | 5 | 3 | 9 | 6 | 3 | 7 | 6 | 5 |

In order to calculate the perceived level of difficulty, the answers were assigned scores on a scale of 1 through 5 (Very Easy = 1, Easy = 2, Not Difficult = 3, Difficult = 4, Very Difficult = 5). The items, ranked by their overall mean level of difficulty, are listed in table 2 on an ordinal scale from perceived least difficult to perceived most difficult.

Respondants found it easiest to develop a working knowledge of the subject, consult with subject-area professors, and conduct seminars based on a SAP's lectures. Planning a course with a SAP, team-teaching, and working together in the classroom were perceived as most difficult.

Table 2

Items ranked from least to most difficult as perceived by NESTs.

| | mean | item |
|-----|------|---|
| 1.2 | 2.74 | develop a working knowledge of the subject |
| 1.3 | 2.87 | consult with subject teachers about their students' need for English |
| 2.3 | 3.19 | conduct seminars (in English) based on a subject teacher's lectures |
| 1.1 | 3.28 | consult with subject teachers about departmental goals |
| 2.2 | 3.30 | co-create materials which support a subject teacher's course |
| 3.3 | 3.30 | maintain a close professional working relationship with a subject teacher for at least one semester |
| 3.1 | 3.47 | work with a subject teacher in the classroom |
| 3.2 | 3.51 | team-teach tutorials with a subject teacher |
| 2.1 | 3.55 | work closely with a subject teacher in planning a course |

The results indicate that, as suspected, a lower level of co-operation is perceived to be easier by NESTs. Those items that required a higher level of co-operation (collaboration or team-teaching) were generally rated more difficult.

Categorising the comments attached to these items (three text boxes were made available in this section of the HTML form) reveals that status difference was the most commented upon area of difficulty (16 comments), followed by lack of availability of SAPs due to geographic distance or time (13 comments). Language barriers were commented upon 8 times, equally divided between comments on the SAP's lack of English as the NEST's lack of Korean. Lack of knowledge upon the part of NESTs about the course they were interested in was commented upon twice. Lack of interest on the part of SAPs in the improvement of students' English ability was commented upon 4 times. Only 3 comments indicated that mutual respect and consultation currently existed between the Subject NEST and SAPs. Note that several people commented more than once, while others did not comment.

The perception of a status difference between SAPs and NESTs is not unique to the Korean context. It has been found to create difficulties in other contexts as well. T.F. Johns (1981) writes of: 'low priority in timetabling; lack of personal/professional contact with subject teachers; lower status/grade than subject teachers; isolation from other teachers of English doing similar work; lack of respect from students' (T.F. Johns 1981², cited in Hutchinson and Waters 1987, 164). Hutchinson and Waters point out that this is not true of ESP teachers in all situations. I would suspect that in Korea a NEST making a move from teaching English conversation to EAP would gain status. Nonetheless, the isolation, lack of contact, and lack of status/respect given to NESTs may make it difficult to shift towards EAP teaching and to maintain existing EAP courses.

Variables

In an attempt to find independent variables which correlate with greater and lesser degrees of difficulty, the biographical factors of gender, type of institution, relationships with Korean faculty, knowledge of the field of ESP, and experience teaching other courses have been taken into account.

Gender

In table 3 we find that female respondents perceived a greater level of difficulty than the mean in consulting with SAPs about their students' need for English (1.3), working closely with a SAP in planning a course (2.1), co-creating materials which support a SAP's course (2.2), and working with a SAP in the classroom (3.1). Male respondents perceived a slightly greater difficulty than the mean in developing a working knowledge of the subject (1.2).

Table 3
Gender as a variable in perceived level of difficulty

| | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.3 |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Female | 3.29 | 2.71 | 3.05 | 3.71 | 3.38 | 3.19 | 3.57 | 3.52 | 3.29 |
| Male | 3.27 | 2.77 | 2.73 | 3.42 | 3.23 | 3.19 | 3.38 | 3.50 | 3.31 |
| mean | 3.28 | 2.74 | 2.87 | 3.55 | 3.30 | 3.19 | 3.47 | 3.51 | 3.30 |

Institution Type

With the exception of item 2.3 (conduct seminars in English based around a subject teacher's lectures), respondents working in universities perceived it would be easier to co-operate with SAPs than the mean (table 4). Respondants working in university language institutes perceived a higher level of difficulty than the mean for all items except 2.3. It may be more difficult to stimulate participation in EAP teaching amongst instructors working within ULIs.

Table 4
Institution type and variation from the mean for each item

| | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.3 |
|------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Graduate | -0.28 | -0.74 | 1.13 | 0.95 | 0.70 | -1.69 | 0.53 | 0.99 | -0.30 |
| University | -0.09 | -0.03 | -0.14 | -0.13 | -0.09 | 0.10 | -0.13 | -0.09 | -0.14 |
| ULI | 0.58 | 0.40 | 0.41 | 0.45 | 0.27 | -0.05 | 0.53 | 0.20 | 0.84 |

Gender and Institution Type

Males working in ULIs perceived higher (or equal) levels of difficulties in all areas than females in ULIs, males working in universities, and females working in universities.

Table 5
Perceived level of difficulty by gender and institution type.

| | | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.3 |
|---|------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| F | Graduate | 2.00 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 2.00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 3.00 |
| M | Graduate | 4.00 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 4.00 | 3.00 | 1.00 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 3.00 |
| F | University | 3.29 | 2.76 | 3.00 | 3.59 | 3.35 | 3.35 | 3.47 | 3.53 | 3.24 |
| M | University | 3.10 | 2.67 | 2.52 | 3.29 | 3.10 | 3.24 | 3.24 | 3.33 | 3.10 |
| F | ULI | 3.67 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 3.00 | 2.67 | 3.67 | 3.00 | 3.67 |
| M | ULI | 4.00 | 3.25 | 3.50 | 4.00 | 4.00 | 3.50 | 4.25 | 4.25 | 4.50 |
| | mean | 3.28 | 2.74 | 2.87 | 3.55 | 3.30 | 3.19 | 3.47 | 3.51 | 3.30 |

Relationships with Korean faculty

In order to determine the extent to which a general sense of goodwill between Korean faculty and NESTs, as perceived by NESTs, might be a variable of interest, respondents were asked to rank how they ‘got along’ with Korean faculty in their own departments and in other departments (Table 6). Respondants were offered the choices ‘poorly’, ‘not very well’, ‘fine’, ‘well’, and ‘very well’. Responses were given a score (Poorly = 1, NVW = 2, F = 3, W = 4, VW = 5).

Table 6
Perceived relationship with Korean faculty in respondents’ departments and other departments.

| | Respondents | | Female | Female | Male | Male |
|------------|-------------|-------|-----------|-------------|-----------|-------------|
| | Females | Males | Own Dept. | Other Dept. | Own Dept. | Other Dept. |
| Graduate | 1 | 1 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 3.00 |
| University | 17 | 21 | 4.65 | 4.00 | 4.71 | 4.19 |
| ULI | 3 | 4 | 4.33 | 3.67 | 4.25 | 3.50 |
| All Levels | 21 | 26 | 4.52 | 3.90 | 4.38 | 3.85 |

Male respondents working in universities reported better relations with Korean professors than female respondents working in the same. Respondants working in universities reported better relations than respondents working in graduate schools and ULIs. Respondants working in graduate schools reported the poorest relationships. Respondents reported better relationships with professors in their own department than with professors in other departments.

Considering only EAP instructors working in universities (38 respondents) and sorting by relationships with Korean faculty the mean score given to each of the 12 items, 1.1 through to 3.1 were determined.

Table 7

Difficulty level of all items sub-divided by perceived relationship of NESTs in universities with Korean faculty in their own departments.

| | Respondents | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.3 |
|-----------|-------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| fine | 3 | 4.33 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 4.67 | 4.33 | 4.67 | 4.33 | 4.33 | 4.00 |
| well | 11 | 3.09 | 2.64 | 2.91 | 3.45 | 3.45 | 2.91 | 3.45 | 3.55 | 3.55 |
| very well | 24 | 3.08 | 2.71 | 2.50 | 3.25 | 2.96 | 3.29 | 3.17 | 3.25 | 2.88 |

Those who reported getting along ‘very well’ with Korean professors in their departments (24) perceived less difficulty on most items than those reported getting along ‘well’ or ‘fine’. No respondents working within universities reported getting along ‘poorly’ or ‘not very well’ with Korean professors in their own departments. Item 2.3 ‘conducting seminars based around a subject teacher’s lectures’ is again an exception.

Table 8

Difficulty level of all items sub-divided by perceived relationship of NESTs in universities with Korean faculty in departments other than their own.

| | Respondents | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.3 |
|-----------|-------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| poorly | 2 | 3.50 | 1.50 | 3.00 | 3.50 | 3.00 | 3.50 | 4.00 | 3.50 | 3.00 |
| fine | 10 | 3.20 | 3.20 | 3.20 | 3.70 | 3.90 | 3.50 | 3.60 | 3.90 | 3.50 |
| well | 11 | 3.09 | 2.09 | 2.55 | 3.36 | 3.09 | 3.18 | 3.27 | 3.36 | 3.45 |
| very well | 15 | 3.20 | 3.00 | 2.53 | 3.27 | 2.87 | 3.20 | 3.13 | 3.13 | 2.73 |

Those who reported getting along ‘very well’ or ‘well’ with Korean professors in other departments (15 and 11 respectively) perceived less difficulty on most items than those who reported getting along ‘fine’ or ‘poorly’ (10 and 2 respondents respectively) (Table 1).

Improving relationships between Korean faculty and foreign faculty members seems to be highly desirable in order to reduce the perception of difficulty involved in implementing co-operation between SAPs and EAP instructors. As poor relationships lead to an increasing perception of difficulty, the building of relationships between SAPs in other departments and EAP instructors could be valuable.

Awareness of ESP abbreviations

Respondents were asked if they were aware of the meaning of the abbreviations ‘ESP’, ‘EAP’, and ‘EOP’. 25 respondents working in universities reported being aware of the abbreviations, 3 reported being unsure, and 10 reported being unaware. These common abbreviations used within the field of ESP are being offered as a measure of the respondents awareness of the field of ESP. Lack of familiarity with these terms is being interpreted here as lack of familiarity with the field of EAP.

Table 9
Perception of difficulty considering awareness of ESP abbreviations.

| Aware | Respond. | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.3 |
|----------|----------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| No | 10 | 3.70 | 2.90 | 2.90 | 3.60 | 3.30 | 3.20 | 3.70 | 3.70 | 3.50 |
| Not Sure | 3 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 3.33 | 4.00 | 3.67 | 3.33 | 4.00 | 4.00 | 4.00 |
| Yes | 25 | 3.00 | 2.60 | 2.60 | 3.28 | 3.12 | 3.32 | 3.12 | 3.24 | 2.92 |

Those respondents (10) who were unaware of the meanings of EAP, ESP, and EOP perceived a greater level of difficulty on all items than those who were aware of the meanings (25) with the exception of item 2.3 ‘conducting seminars based around a subject teacher’s lectures’. While a causal relationship has not been proven, it may be that the perceived difficulty of subject-area professor/EAP instructor co-operation could be reduced through the raising of awareness about the field of ESP within Korea.

Respondents Currently Teaching Other Courses

Respondants were asked if they currently teach courses other than English conversation. Those NEST respondents working within universities and currently teaching courses other than English conversation (25) perceived greater difficulty in most areas than those who are currently only teaching English conversation. Less difficulty was perceived by those NESTs teaching other courses on the following items: 1.2 ‘develop a working knowledge of the subject’, 3.1 ‘work with a subject teacher in the classroom’ and 3.3 ‘maintain a close professional working relationship with a subject-area professor for at least one semester.’

Table 10
Perceived difficulty level and respondents teaching of courses other than English conversation.

| | Respond. | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.3 |
|-----|----------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| No | 12 | 3.08 | 3.08 | 2.42 | 3.08 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 3.42 | 3.33 | 3.17 |
| Yes | 26 | 3.23 | 2.54 | 2.88 | 3.58 | 3.31 | 3.42 | 3.31 | 3.46 | 3.15 |

Summary of Survey Results

NESTs working in universities with knowledge of the field of EAP and good relationships with Korean faculty in their department and other departments may be the most willing to attempt subject-area professor/EAP instructor co-operation (Group A below). Group B includes all those whom are not classified as Group A. With the exception of item 2.3, Group A perceives less difficulty on all items.

Those who either do not work in universities, lack knowledge about the field of ESP, or who have poor relationships with Korean faculty (Group B) perceive it would be easier to develop a working knowledge of the subject (1.2), consult with subject teachers about students' need for English (1.3), and conduct seminars based on subject-area professors' lectures (1.3) than to attempt to achieve a higher degree of co-operation. Those who have been categorised as Group A feel they could develop a working knowledge of the subject (1.2) and consult with subject teachers about students' need for English (1.3) as do respondents in Group B. Unlike Group B respondents, however, Group A respondents also feel they could work with a subject teacher in the classroom (3.1), maintain a close professional working relationship with a subject-area professor for at least one semester (3.3), and co-create materials with subject-area professors (2.2). It is possible that increasing awareness of EAP and improving relationships between NESTs and Korean faculty could increase the willingness of NESTs to take on the co-operative aspects of EAP teaching.

Managing the Development of EAP Courses

During these times of reform and change in Korean higher education the involvement of both local and foreign subject-area specialists and language teachers are expected to result in the introduction of innovation in both the teaching of language and the teaching of course subjects. While the vast majority of attempts at innovation in education are undoubtedly shallow and short-lived, Markee (1997) argues that the goal of curriculum innovation should be to promote 'deep, ongoing professional change' (p. 172). There is a danger with the introduction of any innovation that the end result will be rejected by the organisations for which it was designed. This may be particularly true if, as was indicated above, a high level of co-operation between various groups involved in introducing innovation is both necessary and difficult to achieve. The section which follows will attempt to detail how deep and ongoing change can be promoted and what strategies may be utilised by those introducing EAP within Korea.

Change Strategies

Horvath (1989) discusses three types of 'change strategies': (1) Rational-empirical strategies, (2) Normative/re-educative strategies, and (3) Power-coercive strategies.

Power-coercive strategies are those that are utilised by legitimate authorities or those who have in some way influenced authorities. Change is accomplished by decree. Power-coercive strategies are unsuitable, especially for the purpose under consideration here, as they (1) tend to be divisive; (2) fail to incorporate those who will be responsible for the final realisation of the changes (i.e. in the classroom) which may lead to covert counter-strategies; and (3) tend to assume that policies have been implemented as soon as they have been decreed.

The survey above indicates that many types of language teacher/subject-area professor cooperation may be difficult to achieve in Korean universities. While legitimate authorities (university officials) could decree that language teachers and subject-area professors must cooperate, it would depend on the individuals involved to make it happen. For these reasons, power-coercive strategies are unlikely to be an effective means of implementing language policy and changes within educational institutions as educators may value their autonomy.

Rational-empirical strategies may be more effective in this situation. They assume that people are rational and that if they are introduced to an innovation that is in their self-interest they will embrace it. Once researchers have found an advantageous solution to a problem through empirical research, those whom the innovation is expected to benefit are introduced to it, possibly through model programmes. 'However this strategy alone is subject to failure if it is assumed that all you need to do is show that the technology achieves a desirable result and that people will adopt the technology once they know the results' (Horvath 1989, 60). Introducing language teachers to innovations in language teaching may not be effective if the teachers are motivated not by the appropriateness or inappropriateness of the innovation to their language learning situation but by the degree of personal satisfaction they gain from it.

The survey results above suggested that NESTs who were aware of the terms ESP, EAP, and EOP perceived less difficulty in cooperating with SAPs than those who were not aware. Increased awareness of the field of EAP may be helpful in facilitating at least the perception that cooperation between EAP instructors and SAPs is possible and desirable. This could be described as a rational-empirical strategy in that it would attempt to use the dissemination of information or education to increase awareness of the need for EAP courses and the advantages of cooperation in those courses.

A rational-empirical strategy may not be sufficient as, even if it were possible to convince a number of teachers on an intellectual level that academic uses of English were a genuine need of their students, persuading them to make the investment of energy, time, and interest towards creating courses for these students may not be possible. Likewise, EAP instructors and Subject-area professors may truly believe that EAP courses are necessary but still be unwilling to cooperate in their creation unless they gained personal satisfaction from their working relationship.

Affecting change, across the country, in a variety of institutions, for diverse groups of people would probably not be accomplished through power-coercive or rational-empirical strategies. Power-coercive strategies are likely to fail as the institutions and groups of students are too diverse in terms of level and needs. A rational-empirical strategy would also be likely to fail as language teachers have an investment in the type of teaching they do and the purposes for which they teach.

Normative/re-educative strategies on the other hand ‘involve changes in attitudes, values, skills, and significant relationships, not just changes in knowledge, information, or intellectual rationales for action or practice’ (Chin and Benne, 1970, 34; cited in Horvath, 1989, 60). Changes are accomplished through collaborative relationships, co-operative research, experienced-based learning, and consciousness raising (Horvath, 60-61). A normative/re-educative strategy, perhaps the most difficult and time-consuming to implement, is the strategy most likely to accomplish deep and lasting change in a situation in which there exists a number of groups, possibly with conflicting interests.

A normative/re-educative approach to promoting EAP might acknowledge that high levels of cooperation are difficult to achieve. Rather than promoting high levels of co-operation directly it might be more advantageous to involve EAP instructors and SAPs in co-operative research on the field of EAP in the hopes that cooperation will be achieved as relationships develop. The research, based within any institution, could attempt to answer questions along the lines of:

- How necessary are EAP courses within this university?
- To what extent is academic English already being taught?
- What percentage of students have studied/will study content courses in English within Korea or abroad?
- Are students able to understand academic lectures conducted in English?
- Do language teachers and Subject-area professors feel capable of cooperating in the development of EAP courses?

Avoiding Tissue Rejection

Holliday (1994) defines tissue rejection as what ‘takes place when the implant does not survive as an integral part of the host institution, once project support is taken away’ (p. 134). This metaphor, drawn from medicine, is quite suitable for describing what happens when innovations are introduced by international educational projects as it allows us to speak of implants from foreign *donors* being rejected by new *host* bodies. Tissue rejection is, in short, the rejection of an innovation by the host institution. If an innovation is to survive in the long-run, tissue rejection must be avoided. Though they use different terms than Holliday, Horvath (1989), Markee (1997), and Jennings and Doyle (1996) all detail strategies for avoiding the rejection of innovation.

If an innovation is to gain the support of potential implementers than the planning process must:

- stimulate participation;
- use key staff members;
- be oriented towards the solving of real problems;
- be oriented towards concrete goals.

(based upon Jennings et al. 1996, 171-172)

Plans to introduce innovation which expect to produce changes in the behaviour of professionals need to recognise the complexity of human behaviour and the participation of representatives from different sets of stakeholders should be facilitated.

Horvath suggests that flexibility in design and separability of the sub-components of a larger innovation may allow some unworkable aspects of an innovation to be thrown out while others are kept. Horvath (1989, 63) suggests that innovators:

- seek intra and extra organisational support;
- introduce components as distinct and separate proposals;
- identify reasons for resistance to innovation.

Markee (1997) argues that innovation is ‘inherently messy’ and that this fact should not only be recognised by change agents but that difficulties in implementing change are opportunities to involve others in problem-solving – creating higher levels of ownership. Change agents should:

- set deep, ongoing professional change as a primary goal;
- communicate a clear rationale for curricular innovation at all times;
- develop formal communication networks;
- adopt a culturally appropriate strategy for managing change;

- promote high levels of ownership;
- give adequate time to promote change;
- use naturally occurring communication breakdowns as opportunities to clarify the rationale and promote understanding;
- be certain that innovations are flexible and adaptable;
- work through early adopters and opinion leaders to influence peers.

(based on Markee, 1997, 171-180)

A Strategic Approach to EAP Project Implementation

In order to avoid 'tissue rejection' EAP advocates in Korea may desire to involve all stakeholders in the process of discovering and solving problems within the host institutions. Attempts to determine the need for EAP, undertaken co-operatively by NESTs, SAPs, and students may result in the identification of real problems and concrete goals. By co-operatively undertaking research in needs analysis (a technique for gathering information for course design common in ESP and its branches) participation could be stimulated and intra-organisational support gained.

The use of normative/re-educative strategies to raise the level of awareness about EAP instruction could be oriented towards the goal of decreasing the level of difficulty that is associated with co-operation between subject-area professors and NESTs. Those NESTs who have knowledge of the field of EAP and have good relationships with Korean faculty may be the early adopters and opinion leaders through which change agents could work. NESTs interested in developing EAP programs and SAPs who feel their students' academic English ability is insufficient could undertake co-operative research in order to build collaborative relationships. Research on EAP, within particular institutions, undertaken collaboratively by NESTs and SAPs could be the instigator for changes in attitudes, values, skills, and significant relationships which could facilitate the implementation of EAP in Korea.

In the early stages of new EAP programs, however, the desire to promote culturally appropriate strategies for change might entail the avoidance of those aspects of co-operation perceived as difficult by NESTs surveyed above and a reliance on those aspects of EAP perceived to be easier to implement. The results of the survey described above indicate that NESTs might feel it easier to 'develop a working knowledge of the subject,' 'consult with subject teachers about their students' need for English,' 'conduct seminars (in English) based on a subject teacher's lectures,' and 'consult with subject teachers about departmental goals.' An EAP course could be designed which required, at first, only this relatively low level of cooperation. Gradually higher levels of cooperation and subject-area professor involvement could be introduced.

For those interested in developing EAP programs within Korea, the following recommendations are offered based upon the research described and arguments made in this article:

- a re-evaluation of students' proficiency in using English for academic purposes should take place at universities introducing content instruction through English;
- the development of EAP programs should be considered within any university in which students' lack of English proficiency limits their educational opportunities;
- EAP instructors and SAPs should be encouraged to jointly undertake research on EAP;
- the need for and purposes of EAP courses should be studied co-operatively;
- consultation and co-operation between universities should be facilitated;
- programs developed should be flexible, adaptable, separable, clearly communicated, co-operatively produced, and attractively packaged;
- materials produced co-operatively and locally would be preferred in order to ensure cultural appropriateness and encourage feelings of ownership.

Conclusions

In the last few years, suggestions that English be used as a language of instruction within Korean universities have become more common. Advocates suggest that English be used for several purposes: to internationalise the students' education; to aid attempts to draw foreign students to Korean universities; to improve students' English speaking ability; and to reduce students' desire to travel abroad for an education through English. This trend in Korean education could, if it comes to fruition, result in a shift in the functions for which English is used within Korea. The extent to which students can accomplish their academic goals without use of English is likely to diminish. With the shift comes a need for reconsideration of the goals towards which English education is being directed, particularly for students bound for graduate school.

While the use of content instruction through English as a means of improving English proficiency has been advocated, improving academic English proficiency in order to allow students the full benefit of content courses which are conducted in English has rarely been seen as a social and political issue. If English is going to become a second language of instruction within some Korean universities, the question of how to prepare students for this eventuality needs to be addressed. Concerned parties from the Ministry of Education, universities affected by changes, English departments, and perhaps foreign EAP specialists, should be brought together in an attempt to determine if the current directions taken in the development of students' English proficiency is adequate preparation for their future academic needs.

If it is felt that Korean students are not being adequately prepared for the use of English in academia, EAP instruction should be considered as a means of better preparing them.

Native English-speaking teachers are one group which may be involved in students' EAP training and an analysis of the role they may feel comfortable playing has been attempted within this essay. In particular, the question of whether foreign NESTs and Korean SAPs will be able to establish the level of co-operation necessary to ensure that EAP courses maintain a high level of text and task authenticity has been considered. One limitation of this study is that the equally important views of Korean SAPs, possible partners in EAP classroom, have not been assessed here. A study of Korean professors views warrants investigation.

While a certain degree of difficulty has been predicted, it is this author's belief that strategic innovation management could reduce this difficulty. Given the participation by representatives of all major stakeholder groups, adequate time to develop programs, and clear communication it should be possible to develop culturally appropriate models of English for Academic Purposes which benefit the students, increase the effectiveness of educational programs, and facilitate the nation's goals for higher education.

Endnotes

1 With approaches to teaching which focus on meaning over form, it is important to evaluate students' written work for content not just presentation. The subject teacher's help may be invaluable here if an arrangement can be made for their time.

2 Johns, T.F., (1981) 'Some problems of a worldwide profession' in *ELT Documents 112: The ESP Teacher: Role, Development and Prospects*, British Council: 1981. (cited in Hutchinson and Waters 1987, 164)

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Appendix - Survey Questions

General Information:

Where do you teach now?

| | | |
|----------------------------|---------------|---------------------------------|
| Graduate School | University | University Language Institute |
| High School | Middle School | Elementary School |
| Private Language Institute | | Other (please provide details): |

What is the name of the institution in which you teach? _____

Other details about the institution: _____

Do you teach any courses other than English conversation courses? Yes/No

If so, give details: _____

In which department do you teach? _____

How do you get along with other professors in that department? (choose one)

Very Well Well Fine Not Very well Poorly

How do you get along with professors in other departments? (choose one)

Very Well Well Fine Not Very well Poorly

When you teach, for which of these purposes do you prepare students? (check as many as apply)

Social Interaction in English **yes/no**

Travel to a foreign country **yes/no**

Emigration to an English speaking country **yes/no**

General occupational uses of English **yes/no**

Specific occupational uses of English **yes/no**

Interaction for Business Purposes **yes/no**

Study in a foreign country **yes/no**

Study within their own country **yes/no**

Other: (please specify):

Part 2:

Think of a university course, other than an English language course, which you would be interested in being involved with as a tutor, teacher, or professor. It could be any course which is of interest to you. It does not need to be a course currently offered. It does not need to be a course which you are qualified to teach. It does not need to be a course offered by the department in which you teach. What is the course name?

How difficult would it be for you to ...

1.1 ...consult with subject teachers* about departmental goals? (choose one)

Very Difficult Difficult Not difficult Easy Very Easy

1.2 ...develop a working knowledge of the subject? (choose one)

Very Difficult Difficult Not difficult Easy Very Easy

1.3 ...consult with subject teachers* about their students' need for English? (choose one)

Very Difficult Difficult Not difficult Easy Very Easy

Comments:

How difficult would it be for you to ...

2.1 ...work closely with a subject teacher* in planning a course?

Very Difficult Difficult Not difficult Easy Very Easy

2.2 ...co-create materials which support a subject teacher' s* courses?

Very Difficult Difficult Not difficult Easy Very Easy

2.3 ...conduct seminars (in English) based around a subject teacher' s* lectures?

Very Difficult Difficult Not difficult Easy Very Easy

Comments:

How difficult would it be for you to ...

3.1 ...work with a subject teacher* in the classroom?

Very Difficult Difficult Not difficult Easy Very Easy

3.2 ...team-teach tutorials with a subject teacher*?

Very Difficult Difficult Not difficult Easy Very Easy

3.3 ...maintain a close professional working relationship with a subject teacher* for at least one semester?

Very Difficult Difficult Not difficult Easy Very Easy

Comments:

Are you aware of the meanings of the terms EAP, ESP, and EOP? Yes / No / Not Sure

Thanks so very much for taking the time to complete this survey.

Would you like to be made aware of the results of this survey? Yes / No

* 'subject teacher' here refers to a Korean professor who teaches that course.

Computer-Mediated Communication: A Motivator in the Foreign Language Classroom

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Abstract

Traditional English language teaching methods in elementary and secondary schools in South Korea have left some students unmotivated to continue learning English at the university level. In 1997, Andong National University in Kyongsang province piloted a new English programme. Within this programme, instructors were afforded the opportunity to teach through computer-mediated communication (CMC) using the University's state-of-the-art computer facilities. In this paper, the author describes how her initial experience using e-mail for EFL instruction with first-year students led to an investigation of why CMC served to increase students' motivation to practice English. Instruction was carried out in two 50-minute periods, one in the regular classroom and one in the computer lab. For a percentage of their grade, students had to write one e-mail to the teacher. The e-mail communications revealed that students were more motivated to learn and practice English through this means than they had been through other means. The increased motivation is explored within the framework of Keller's ARCS model of instructional design, which is intended as a guide for educators in the planning of effective and motivating instruction.

Introduction

English language education at Andong National University (ANU) in Kyongsang province in South Korea took on a new dimension in 1997 with the pilot of a programme focused on communication and task-based learning. The structure of the curriculum afforded instructors the freedom to develop their own ideas and

methods, including the opportunity to experiment with computer-mediated communication (CMC). My initial experience with CMC and EFL was in teaching 175 first-year students how to open an e-mail account and send e-mail. Students appeared more motivated to practice English with this novel teaching method than they had been with other methods. Changes in students' attitudes were noticeable in their e-mail communications. These indicated students' interest in using computer technology, as well as their desire to improve their English language ability through CMC and maintain contact with a reading audience. Students' increased enthusiasm for practising English prompted me to explore the motivating factors associated with CMC and teaching English as a foreign language, within the framework of Keller's ARCS model of instructional design. If educators understand what motivates their students, they can purposefully and systematically apply the strategies proposed in the ARCS model with a view to improved instruction.

The positive outcome of the experience was compelling but the question arose as to whether CMC and EFL instruction could be more broadly integrated into the Korean education system. In fact, government initiatives with respect to networked classrooms are well under way. In the spirit of globalization, the conditions are being shaped for a shift from a traditional approach to education to alternative means of teaching and learning, which includes the incorporation of computer technology.

Traditional education and networked classrooms

The discipline and rigor of a traditional education system, heavily influenced by Confucius, are the foundation of Korea's industrial advancements and of its economic growth potential. Confucianism deems education necessary for governing and for building strong, moral character. Those who achieve academic success, which includes entrance to university, can expect careers with security and a better income.

The government's goals for taking education into the 21st century build on a tradition of discipline in education, though in a modern way. A recent study conducted by the *Commission on Education Reform* recommended the "creation of an independent, creative and morally right individual as the ultimate goal of education" (Ministry of Education [MOE], 1999, p. 44). This particular phrasing indicates the desire to respect tradition, yet at the same time to encourage independent and creative members of society. It is an indication that the government acknowledges the impact of globalization and the way it has changed the world economy. In order to not only succeed, but also to excel in this new environment, Korea will have to conduct increased business with the west, which requires proficiency in English. Therefore, the country needs to equip citizens with the skills that will allow them to contribute to nation building in the 21st century. These skills include English language proficiency and computer literacy. The fusion of Korea's tradition of discipline in

education, in tandem with a modern, information technology curriculum that will facilitate access to English, is a step in this direction.

In order to achieve these goals and to strengthen its position in the global, 21st century context, the Ministry of Education has put forth plans to reform the education system. Particular emphasis is being placed on building an information technology infrastructure in schools (Lee, 1998). Among the reforms is the integration of networks and computer-mediated communication (e.g. internet and e-mail) into the classroom curriculum. The initiative, entitled *Applications of Information Technology*, may be considered one of the key endeavours that will bring Korea's citizens into the global arena. The government first adopted an "education in technology" policy in 1988. It was stated therein that "each individual's high productivity and educational level are major forces of national competitiveness and that the development of information and communication skills is critical for Korea's advancement in the year 2000" (Huh, 1993, p. 43). Policy action plans included first, bringing material resources to the schools and into the classrooms (hardware and peripherals) and second, bringing networked technology into the curriculum in primary, middle and high schools (Lee, 1998). These efforts will continue into 2002. In fact, the government plans to have PCs and a LAN in every school by 2002, which means approximately 11,000 primary and secondary schools and almost 250 higher education institutions of about 10 million students (Lee, 1998). This will afford students internet access and will expose them to the latest information technology. To render these goals possible, emphasis will be placed on internet connections, provision of hardware and software, facilities, teacher training, curriculum reform and other peripheral activity (Lee, 1998). At the college and university level, extensive computer networks already exist and plans are underway to expand and improve the system in order to provide faster and better service (MOE, 1999).

As well as equipping individual institutions, EDUNET was implemented in 1996 as an educational information total system available without charge by PC communication. It is readily accessible to students, teachers and parents who seek quality, updated educational information. As of June 1998, the number of EDUNET users reached 440,000 (MOE, 1999).

The government is seeking to build an infrastructure in the public school system that will foster an open-education system and "an environment resulting in creative human beings" (MOE, 1999, p. 42). This is a significant shift in traditional pedagogy which typically called for Korean teachers to deliver material, to spoon-feed facts and information to passive, rote learners. Students, accustomed to what Freire describes as a "banking model" of learning, will now be encouraged to be active, creative learners. The introduction of computer networked learning, therefore, is requiring teachers and students to alter their roles. Furthermore, CMC in teaching will have an impact on how these roles are redefined. CMC is empowering for students as it affords them control over the learning material. This control will

compel teachers to involve students in the design of relevant learning materials. Teachers will no longer be “all-knowing”.

With the MOE’s technology initiatives as impetus for change in the education system, the environment is primed for teachers to experiment with CMC in EFL instruction.

The CMC-enhanced English class at Andong National University

My experience teaching English through computer-mediated communication (CMC) was at Andong National University (ANU). In order to appreciate how CMC in the language classroom affected the ANU students, it is necessary to have a picture of the context. The university is situated in a city which is largely an agricultural community renowned as the country’s most conservative and traditional city. It is much less westernized than South Korea’s larger cities. Of the approximately 150 private and national universities in South Korea, ANU falls in the middle ranks. Since entrance to university in Korea is based on achievement on a standard university entrance exam, the higher the score, the better quality a university the student may attend. Therefore, students who attend ANU are not considered achievers. They begin their tertiary academic careers with a stigma.

In 1998, my second year at ANU, I taught English language to 10 groups of first-year students from a variety of academic disciplines. These students were enrolled in a course that had become mandatory when ANU piloted its new English language programme the year before. All students had previously studied English for three years in middle school and for three years in high school. They had rudimentary English reading and writing skills. Their listening and speaking skills were poor. Furthermore, their apathetic classroom behaviour indicated to me that the students were not interested in learning English. They may have been bored with learning English due to traditional grammar translation classes; they may have been discouraged because of their low test scores; and, living in a small, homogeneous community, they may not have perceived any real need to acquire English language skills.

Since it is currently accepted that learning is enhanced when the material is relevant to the students, I set myself a goal for my students: they would see that learning English could be pursued with a purpose and in an interesting way. The question was how to motivate them. I chose to experiment with teaching English through computer-mediated communication (CMC). CMC refers to computer communications such as e-mail, bulletin boards, discussion lists, multiple-user domains (MUDs, MOOs), conferencing software and the World Wide Web. CMC allows for the creation of a more authentic learning environment as language learners can communicate directly, inexpensively and conveniently with other speakers of

the target language 24 hours a day, from school, work, or home (Warschauer, 1996a). This medium of global communication, which is a source of unlimited authentic materials, has altered the conventional language classroom. One can easily integrate reading, writing, speaking and listening skills in a single activity; students can have greater control over learning and there can be a primary focus on content without foregoing a secondary focus on language form.

Without prior training in Computer-assisted Language Learning (CALL), I undertook my initial experience by teaching approximately 175 first-year students how to open e-mail accounts and how to send e-mail. For some students, this English class represented their first experience using a computer. The teaching and learning of the e-mail activity was carried out in two 50-minute periods, two days apart. The first period was in the regular classroom with worksheets on how to register for an e-mail account. This meant learning hardware vocabulary such as *mouse*, *power button*, and *monitor*; as well as understanding screen information such as *password*, *user ID*, *occupation* and *province*. Students also learned vocabulary for navigating the internet, such as *scroll*, *download*, *web site* and *click*. The second period was held in the computer lab. With the completed worksheets by their sides, students registered online for their e-mail accounts. When they ran into difficulties, they sought my assistance or, in many cases, peer assistance.

After setting up an account, students had an assignment, for a percentage of their grade, to send me an e-mail that included their name, student number, class number, major and a short piece of writing about their best friend, a Korean holiday, or their dream spouse. The focus of the assignment was on content, not form. Since the purpose of using CMC was to motivate the students to use English communicatively, I did not want the students to feel encumbered by concentrating on accurate grammar, syntax or punctuation.

The students had been advised in the first period that they would have 50 minutes of class time in the computer lab to work on the assignment. In anticipation of the session in the computer lab, some students had taken the initiative to compose lengthy messages at home and bring the prepared work to class for keying into the computer. I did not anticipate this preparation, since Korean students can be lax about homework for English class with a foreign instructor. Most students did not finish the assignment during class time and therefore completed it either at home or at the university's multimedia drop-in centre.

Almost all students completed the assignment and each e-mail was answered individually, as the students had been aware they would be. Each response was unique and dealt with content. I reciprocated the students' stories of their friends and holidays with stories of my own, often writing about Canadian holidays. In a conscious effort to sustain an online dialogue, I made a point of including in each of my responses either a remark that the student could e-mail me again if s/he wanted

more information about what I had written (e.g. *Please send me e-mail again if you would like to know more about Canadian holidays*) or a question pertaining to the content of the student's message (e.g. *What is [your friend's] major? Do you meet her twice a month in Pohang or in Andong?*). The individual responses were well worth the effort, as students were eager to log on to their accounts in order to read my responses and then, in many cases, to send me e-mail again! That beginner students sought to continue an online dialogue with the teacher was gratifying for me, as it was evidence that they were truly motivated to communicate in English via the computer.

Student attitudes and motivation

Even though the primary purpose of engaging students in this activity was to stimulate an interest in learning English by showing them, through a novel method, that English had a communicative purpose, there was the collateral benefit of increased production. And although the focus of the activity was on motivating the students to communicate rather than on accuracy in writing, a few students requested that their English be corrected. I limited my corrections to errors that impeded communication. This addressed students' requests without straying from a focus on meaning. Furthermore, in the case of one student, there was an unanticipated positive outcome with respect to learner autonomy. In one of his e-mails to me after my return to Canada, he wrote: *When you send me e-mail, I print it And I study it. So my English is being up. Thank you for sending e-mail everytime.* Interestingly, this student had been absent from many classes and seldom participated when he did attend.

There were e-mail communications that clearly indicated other students' efforts to improve their English. Excerpts follow:

- (a) *I am very happy to your answer letter. I don't study English hard...Owing to Korean English dictionary, I sended you the good letter*
- (b) *as I'm not good English ,I hope I'll make a quick progress in English by means of writing letters.*
- (c) *THIS STORY IS VWRY SHORT BUT I VERY TRIED FOR THIS MAIL. THANKYOU, READ MY STORY. IF THIS OPPORTUNITY COMES I WILL WRITE E-MAIL VERY HARD THEN.*
- (d) *I'd like to write better than now. Please tell me wrong sentence. At that time, my English will be up. ex) I am boy —> I am a boy. Do you understand?*

A second theme was an eagerness to maintain contact with an online interlocutor. While it is true that the initial e-mail communication contributed to their grade, subsequent e-mail correspondence was not part of the assignment. Several

students closed their e-mails with either a request for a reply or with a note that the student would stay in touch:

- (a) *anyway, if you get a mail, please reply me.*
- (b) *I wander your canada life. Please send me a E-mail.*
- (c) *I'm looking forward to your reply.*
- (d) *Please your answer. I wait it.*
- (e) *And I don't have a computer. So, in the vacation I'll not send E-mail. But I'll try to send.*

Another commonality among the e-mails was students' interest in using computer technology:

- (a) *I very like computer...also I like English... Do You like computer???*
ok...Let's go!!!
- (b) *I didn't like english study-time. But I'm thinking interesting.*
- (c) *Today, I am exciting of class. And now, I send the mail you said.*
- (d) *Hello! It's nice to mail anybody. Thanks very much. Wow, this class is never boring. Time is fast.*

These messages, which highlighted (1) students' desire to improve their English language ability through CMC; (2) students' desire to maintain contact with a reading audience; and (3) students' interest in using computer technology, were clear indications to me of CMC's positive impact on students' motivation to learn and practice English.

Many students were eager to have classes in the computer lab or to spend time at the computer drop-in centre outside class time. There was an appeal to the atypical language learning environment that defied every convention the students knew about learning English. This positive change that CMC had effected in student attitude toward English language learning prompted me to further investigate motivation and second language learning, and consequently, the impact an understanding of this could have on designing instructional materials.

Motivation has been considered one of the main determinants of second/foreign language learning (Dörnyei, 1994). In addition, computer-assisted learning has been shown to increase student motivation with respect to second/foreign language acquisition (Warschauer, 1996b). My observations of the students at ANU agreed with this conclusion, yet it was not clear to me for what reason. Since novel teaching and learning methods have been suggested as a motivating factor (Dörnyei, 1994), I at first attributed the enthusiasm to the novelty of computers. But novelty alone was not a satisfactory explanation.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) determined two factors that weighed heavily on second language (L2) learning motivation. They defined them as *integrative*, which refers to the L2 learner's desire to associate with another ethnolinguistic group; and *instrumental*, which refers to the L2 learner's desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages. The former is a personal tie and the latter is a means to an end. These two factors have been shown to apply in the foreign language learning context as well. Dörnyei (1990) conducted a study in order to examine the components of motivation in foreign language learning along with the effects of these components on certain language learning behaviours. Participants were young adults studying English in Hungary who had volunteered to take classes after work and were independently paying for these classes. Students' desire for better career prospects was attributed to instrumental motivation. In terms of integrative motivation, Dörnyei noted four related components: (1) interest in foreign languages, the culture and the people; (2) desire to broaden one's view and avoid provincialism; (3) desire for new stimuli and challenges; and (4) desire to integrate into a new community, e.g. spending time abroad. Among the study results, it was suggested that instrumental motives were stronger than integrative motives in getting students to attain an intermediate language level. Exceeding this level would require integrative motivation.

What Dörnyei described did not wholly apply to the ANU students. Unlike the students in Hungary, the ANU students were not paying for their course and they were not taking it of their own volition. Many did not anticipate spending time abroad, though there was interest in foreign cultures. Avoiding provincialism was not an issue. There had been no apparent desire for new challenges in the English learning context since the students had anticipated conventional, dry grammar translation classes. For these reasons, the desire for integration was not considered a strong motivating factor. Instrumental motivation, however, had greater application in the foreign language context of these first-year students. Attaining at least functional knowledge of English was a tool that would allow them to pursue career opportunities that would otherwise be unavailable. In addition, there was the collateral benefit of acquiring computer skills. Instrumental aims were, therefore, considered the likely motivator.

Gardner and Lambert's social-psychology theory of second language learning motivation is a partial explanation of what motivated the students. It did not, however, explain the motivation with respect to CMC and second language pedagogy. Keller's (1984; 1987) ARCS Model of Instructional Design provides this insight. Though a social learning theory not specifically related to language learning, the ARCS framework offers strategies that ESL and EFL teachers can apply in the design of motivating instructional materials.

Four aspects comprise the ARCS model: *Attention*, *Relevance*, *Confidence* and *Satisfaction*. It is derived from expectancy-value theory (Tolman & Lewin in Keller, 1987), a theory that posits "people are motivated to engage in an activity if it

is perceived to be linked to the satisfaction of personal needs (the value aspect), and if there is a positive expectancy for success (the expectancy aspect)” (Keller, 1987, p. 3). It is a social learning theory that assumes that motivation and behaviour are the result of interactions between a person and the environment (Keller, 1979). Emphasis is on strategies teachers can use to improve instruction and not on how to change the personality of students. The framework helps teachers to understand influences on the motivation to learn, and to find systematic ways of identifying and solving problems with learning motivation in order to make instruction more appealing (Keller, 1987). The purpose of making instruction more appealing is that it likely increases time on task, which in turn is likely to enhance learning (Schofield, 1995). This suggests that increased motivation can translate into increased learning when it results in students actually working more. The enhanced learning may not be readily measurable in terms of students’ content knowledge; however, “to the extent that students’ motivation to study a given subject is linked to subsequent course choices or even career choices, it may have a powerful effect on their post-university lives” (Schofield, 1995, p. 199). It is reasonable to hypothesize that in the case of the students at ANU, if the process of learning English were enhanced, students would be more motivated to study. In this situation, the enhancement was the addition of CMC. The students at ANU might have realized that the acquisition of English language skills, in tandem with computer skills, could result in more advantageous employment opportunities or could benefit them when travelling abroad. The immediate effects of this kind of instruction might not have been apparent, but favourable long-term effects may result.

Though the strategies proposed within the ARCS framework pertain to instruction in general, they have been applied to designing motivating online instruction for adult learners (Chyung, 2001) and to the design of materials used with ESL learners (Greenwood, Kramer, Lewis, Weatherford & Zeeb, 1998). Each of the four aspects that comprises the ARCS model is described below, along with several of the strategies that Keller (1987) suggests teachers should keep in mind when designing instruction. The strategies cited are those that are particularly relevant to the CMC/EFL teaching context. (See Keller, 1987, for a complete list of strategies.)

Attention: It is important to get students’ attention and to sustain it. This was relatively easily accomplished as the ANU students’ curiosity was aroused by the novelty of computers. Furthermore, communicating with people beyond the borders of the country intrigued them. Strategies, per Keller, that a teacher can apply in the classroom to gain and sustain attention are:

- *Vary the medium of instruction:* students appreciate variation in terms of platform delivery, e.g. film, video, print. Multimedia computer systems open up an array of fascinating and eclectic supplementary materials to the class. The students at ANU were drawn to computers because they were a novel medium of instruction.

- *Vary the type of interaction*: modern pedagogy acknowledges the importance of a shift from student-instructor interaction to student-student interaction. With CMC this can extend to student-‘other person’ interaction. The internet, in tandem with multimedia computer systems (e.g. sound, web cameras) can facilitate “bringing” native and other speakers of the target language to the classroom. This is an important sociocultural component of L2 learning.
- *Let students select topics and projects that appeal to their curiosity and need to explore*: in an EFL environment, there is much greater latitude for this with CMC; students can go beyond libraries and are not constrained by the limited realia.

Relevance: Particularly in environments where English is taught as a foreign language, it can be difficult for students to acknowledge its relevance. However, many readily accept that computer literacy is a worthwhile and necessary skill. Relevance, therefore, may come from the way something is taught as well as from content. Using the internet integrates English language and computer skills, affording students the opportunity to gain abilities which are valid across disciplines and which are relevant to the burgeoning global community. The process of improving their English ability through CMC was relevant to students because acquiring computer skills had value in that this skill could lead to career opportunities. In addition, computer skills could be transferred to activities in Korean. Strategies that a teacher can apply:

- *Be explicit about how instruction relates to future activities*, e.g. internet and e-mail communications are authentic occurrences in the working world and the ability to use these skills may prove useful in future employment.
- *Ask learners to relate instruction to their own future goals*, e.g. those who like to travel, do research or seek global connections for job opportunities.
- *Make instruction responsive to the power motive; provide opportunities for responsibility, authority and interpersonal influence*, e.g. CMC promotes learner autonomy and control in that students can work at their own pace and outside the classroom.

This last item represents a significant shift in teaching and learning style. Traditional Korean education has consisted of spoon-feeding facts to passive students. CMC, on the other hand, teaches learners to be resourceful and it empowers them. They have the ability to decide what they want to learn and they can research the information without relying on the teacher. One example of this was the enthusiasm with which some students sought information on the internet about birth control. In conservative Korean society, this is information to which many young adults do not have ready access. The internet allowed them to educate themselves on something relevant to their lives.

Another factor pertaining to relevance that influences motivation is the desire for contact with and awareness of cultures beyond one's borders (Dörnyei, 1994; Meloni, 1998; Warschauer, 1996b). With the advent of CMC in CALL, contact with other cultures has been facilitated. Distance is no longer the obstacle it once was. Introducing other cultures by engaging students in cross-cultural internet activities encourages students to practice a second language. Many such projects have been carried out in second and foreign language classrooms (for examples, see AJET, 1999; Cummins and Sayers, 1995; Kaohsiung Girls' Senior High School, 1999; Meloni, 1998; Warschauer, 1996b).

In the case of South Korea, which is being bombarded with outside influences, in particular from the United States, interest and desire for contact with foreign cultures is apparent. ANU students were among the many who sought access to English language movies, television shows, books, magazines, software and music. The connection between learning English and having access to these was not readily apparent to the ANU students, though, because traditional grammar translation classes had not provided them with the appropriate language skills. CMC, on the other hand, afforded a communicative aspect of language teaching and was therefore considered an efficient and effective way to render these media more accessible to Koreans. It lent a certain relevance to their lives, which is an integral part of education, and which is particularly important in the expanding global community.

Confidence: It is beneficial to help the learner to form the impression that, with a reasonable amount of effort, some level of success is possible. An unattainable goal will frustrate and demotivate students. Keypal activities, as an example, have been associated with increased self-confidence in communicating in the second language in that students realized they could actually "do it" (Ayoun, 1995, p. 42). Suggested strategies:

- *Encourage independent learning*, e.g. allow students the opportunity to become increasingly independent in learning and practicing a skill. The computer allows just that as students can use CMC from a variety of places, at different times, without the presence of a teacher. This was demonstrated by the ANU students who continued their work on their own in the multi-media drop-in centre.
- *Practice tasks under realistic conditions*, e.g. let students *learn* new skills under low risk conditions, but they should have the chance to *practice* performance of well-learned tasks under realistic conditions. In an EFL environment, where authentic situations are not readily accessible, this is one of the most significant benefits of CMC.
- *Provide realistic challenges*, e.g. organize materials on an increasing level of difficulty; that is, structure the learning material to provide a challenge that the

students can conquer. There is more latitude for this with CMC. Furthermore, since CMC affords autonomy and control, the learner can create challenges and not be teacher-dependent for these.

Satisfaction: Feeling good about one's accomplishments is motivating. Basic reinforcement theory tells us that students are even more motivated when they understand the tasks and the rewards. However, students often resent being told what to do and are not satisfied with the "rewards" in a classroom. In terms of reward, the joy of receiving an e-mail from a keypal can have a much stronger impact than a gold star or an "A" from the teacher. Strategies for building satisfaction in the classroom:

- *Apply a new skill in a realistic setting:* allow students to use a newly acquired skill in a realistic setting as soon as possible. There are few opportunities for this in a foreign language environment. For example, a student who has learned in a classroom how to order food in a restaurant can not necessarily go out to a restaurant and try ordering. In another example, a student who has just learned to ask for directions will have no need to go into the street and ask another of his native speakers for directions in English to a place with which he is familiar. With CMC, it is possible to apply newly acquired language skills in a realistic context.
- *Provide motivating feedback (praise) immediately following task performance:* There is nothing to say the teacher needs to be responsible for this; in fact, it may be more motivating if it comes from another source, such as a keypal.

Keller's model supports the value of integrating CMC as a motivator in foreign language instruction. CMC got students' attention and they were not bored with learning English with this method. Furthermore, CMC tapped different learning styles. It was evident in several cases that students who were quiet in the conversation classes were more expressive in writing. It appealed to students who shied away from learning with conventional methods by allowing them to express themselves through a different medium, according to their own pace. There was satisfaction in that students were able to put their learning to use in an authentic context for the purposes of real communication. Students perceived they could succeed in foreign language learning when otherwise they may not have.

Conclusion

It is no easy task to integrate an emerging and continually evolving teaching tool such as CMC into our conventional ways of instruction but the South Korean government's promotion of networked learning environments has created an

opportunity for innovation in foreign language instruction that should not be overlooked. The e-mail experience with the ANU students gave a small-scale yet positive indication of the motivating power of this innovation.

Although we are far from realizing the true potential of CMC for EFL instruction, there are some obvious advantages: having an authentic audience for communication; developing computer skills; fostering autonomy in learning; being able to tap a greater range of learning styles; having easy access to up-to-date materials and information; and having ready access to professional and expert advice on any topic. These are compelling reasons to implement computer-mediated communication in an English language programme.

The ongoing challenge for second/foreign language teachers is to keep pace with evolving technology and to capitalize on the unlimited opportunities for enhancing language learning that CMC affords. Through attention to the design of instructional materials, teachers can show students that CMC is an effective and stimulating way to learn English and that it is relevant to their lives through the medium, in the application and in the content.

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The Non-threatening Learning Environment

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Abstract

Given the tendency of language classrooms to promote debilitating anxiety, the promotion of a low-stress language learning environment must be an important priority for the teacher. This paper explores how language teachers in Korea might identify and address sources of anxiety in their classrooms. In addition to self-examination on the part of the teacher, this involves encouraging realistic expectations about accuracy and errors, offering training in affective strategies to help students manage anxiety and improve performance, reassuring students that they are not alone in their affective reactions and that these feelings are normal, making or choosing appropriate learning materials, and showing that the teacher/evaluator understands the tensions caused by language learning. Self- and peer-assessment involving partner and small-group work, interviews, problem-solving, role-plays and practice of test-tasks are also an effective and relatively painless means of involving learners in the learning and assessment process and can reduce anxiety-raising competitiveness and apprehension.

I. Introduction

The study of affect (anxiety, confidence, self-esteem, motivation, attitudes to learning, etc.) has become increasingly popular recently, to the extent that Stevick (1999, p. 43) warns against viewing it as the latest “philosopher’s stone” of applied linguistics and language teaching. Investigation into the “effect of affect” (Scovel, 1978) is an extension of a question at the heart of much second-language acquisition (SLA) research (why some learners learn better than others), which Stevick (1980) answers in terms of internal processes: “success depends less on materials, techniques, and linguistic analysis, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom” (Stevick, 1980, p. 4). Affect (“aspects of emotion, feeling, mood or attitude which condition behaviour”, Arnold [1999]) has thus come

to be recognised as a powerful determiner of learning, with Stern (1983) asserting that “the affective component contributes at least as much and often more to language learning than the cognitive skills” (1983, p. 386). This claim is supported by a large body of recent cross-disciplinary research, showing that affective variables have significant influence on language achievement (e.g. Gardner, 1985; Skehan, 1989; Spolsky, 1989; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1992; 1993). Damasio (1994) shows that emotions are a part of reason on the neurobiological level, and sees emotion and cognition as partners: “minds without emotions are not really minds at all” (LeDoux, 1996, p. 25).

Some of the strongest correlations between affective variables and achievement measures involve anxiety, with research pointing to a reciprocity between anxiety and proficiency (MacIntyre, Noels, and Clément, 1997, p. 279), such that “even in optimum conditions, students can experience destructive forms of anxiety” (Reid, 1999, p. 297). Language-learning contexts are especially prone to anxiety arousal (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989; 1991a; Price, 1991; MacIntyre, 1995, p. 90), with Campbell and Ortiz (1991, p. 159) estimating that up to half of all language students experience debilitating levels of language anxiety, and Horwitz *et al.* (1986) finding that language anxiety can cause students to postpone language study indefinitely or to change majors. Because of this, language anxiety has been the subject of a good deal of research, on the assumption that an understanding of its causes and investigation into how to reduce language anxiety will improve learner performance and increase learning satisfaction by easing tensions and reducing demands on cognitive processing space (Eysenck, 1979). Scovel (1978) provides an early review of anxiety research, which is supplemented by the excellent reviews of MacIntyre and Gardner (1991b), and Gardner and MacIntyre (1993). More recently, Oxford (1999) has investigated whether language anxiety is a short-term or lasting trait, whether it is harmful or helpful, which factors correlate with language anxiety, and how anxiety can be identified in the language classroom. Building on these sources of information, the present discussion focuses on the Korean situation and examines how a “non-threatening learning environment” might be constructed in language classrooms through attention to the teacher, the learning environment, the learning materials, and assessment methods, thus offering a means of overcoming disruptive emotions (anxiety, fear, stress, anger, depression, negative reactions) which make teaching techniques ineffective (Arnold and Brown, 1999, p. 2), and of promoting the sort of constructive, learning “climate” (Fraser, 1986, p. 182) which has been shown to be conducive to learning, as well as being a worthwhile end in itself.

II. History of research

Attention to the importance of affect in the language learning process can be seen as originating in influential educational theories (e.g. the humanist approach to

teaching and learning [Dewey, 1938; Holt, 1976]), which followed educational and philosophical (not psycholinguistic) rationales, and which were intended for other subject areas (Freire, 1970; Stenhouse, 1975), though coinciding significantly with views of applied linguists such as Widdowson (1983) and Brumfit (1984) on the open-endedness and creativity of language (White, 1988, p. 35). Thus Clarke (1991) details four “important and substantially overlapping streams of applied linguistics and educational thinking” (1991, p. 16), all of which place the learner at the centre of the learning process, derive at least partly from a holistic approach, and focus on the learner’s affective, cognitive, and linguistic needs, his/her conscious or subconscious strategies, and his/her own perception of the objectives, aims, and other aspects of the learning situation:

1. the largely North American experimentation with “humanistic” methodologies in ESL¹ (Curran, 1972 [Community Language Learning]; Gattegno, 1976 [The Silent Way]; Stevick, 1976 [Suggestopedia]);
2. the British EFL emphasis upon needs analysis as the basis for a Notional or Communicative syllabus, often with specific purposes in mind (Richterich, 1972; Munby, 1978);
3. the general increase in research into issues related to learner individualisation and autonomy (e.g. Altman, 1972; Disick, 1975; the CRAPEL publications);
4. the closely related investigations into the nature of learner strategies in the language learning process (e.g. Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978; Candlin and Murphy, 1987; Wenden and Rubin, 1987; Oxford, 1990; Dickinson, 1992; Williams and Burden, 1997).

(Clarke, 1991, p. 16)

Recent research on affective variables has focused on naturalistic enquiry (Bailey, 1983; Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986; Price, 1991) and on the interaction between language anxiety and various moderator variables: (i) classroom activity and test type (Scott, 1986; Lavine and Oxford, 1990; Young, 1990; Crookall and Oxford, 1991; Koch and Terrell, 1991; Madsen, Brown, and Jones, 1991; Price, 1991); (ii) competitiveness (Bailey, 1983); (iii) learning styles and personality types (Ehrman and Oxford, 1990; Lavine and Oxford, 1990); (iv) risk-taking (Ely, 1986); (v) beliefs about language learning (Cotterall, 1999); and (vi) attitudes (Phillips, 1990; Price, 1991). Brown (1974) also discusses ethnocentric factors such as the learner’s willingness or unwillingness to take on a new identity related to the target language; and social factors such as empathy. Heron (1992) proposes a multi-modal learning model, with four modes of learning from experience (action, conceptual, imaginal, emotional), at the base of which is the “affective” emotional mode (awareness of learning). Aoki (1999) and Reid (1999) describe the political implications of affect, Schumann (1999) investigates the neuro-physiology of affect and learning, Kohonen (1999) and others look into implications of incorporating affect into assessment procedures, and Stevick (1999, p. 55) describes how affect influences learning by

shaping and reshaping the networks of long-term memory and by “cluttering up” processing capacity. Schumann (1975) offers an excellent review of early SLA research and literature on affective factors (including age); and Arnold and Brown (1999) provide a more contemporary perspective of the language learner as an individual (experiencing anxiety, beliefs, extroversion/introversion, inhibitions, learner styles, motivation/self-esteem issues, etc.) and as a participant in a socio-cultural situation (empathy, classroom transactions, cross-cultural processes).

Research into the learning environment (as a factor influencing affect) can be traced back to Murray (1938), whose early classroom environment instruments focussed on student perceptions of actual classroom conditions. More recent studies include student perceptions of preferred learning environments and teacher perceptions of actual and preferred environments, the intention being to predict cognitive and affective learning outcomes from these perceptions (Walberg, 1968; Anderson and Walberg, 1974; Fraser, 1981; Fraser and Walberg, 1981). The Learning Environment Inventory (LEI - Fraser, Anderson and Walberg, 1982) and the Classroom Environment Scale (CES - Moos and Trickett, 1974) were early attempts to investigate such perceptions, though they excluded some individualised, inquiry-based aspects. The Individualized Classroom Environment Questionnaire (ICEQ - Fraser, 1985) was developed to measure those factors which differentiate conventional classrooms from those with either open or inquiry-based approaches, and Fraser (1986) supplies a list of studies using the ICEQ, which suggests that promotion of classroom environment characteristics such as cohesiveness, goal direction and democracy has consistently positive influences on learning, and that teachers can expect students to achieve better when there is a greater similarity between actual and preferred classroom environments (Fraser, 1986, p. 137), though Moos (1974) makes the point that there is a tendency for individuals to perceive their *actual* setting as being less favourable than their *preferred* setting.

III. Lowering Anxiety

1. The teacher

Reid (1999) points to the responsibility of teachers to “provide the scaffolding for more effective and efficient learning” (Reid, 1999, p. 305; cf. Guild, 1994) by raising student awareness of affect, and then listening to the students as they express their needs, beliefs and perceptions. Underhill sees this act of “really listening to the student and to the content of what he or she says” (1989, p. 256) as having a dramatic effect on the learning atmosphere, since “our students don’t necessarily need reassurance, what they need is to be heard” (1989, p. 256). Such a student-centred approach presupposes a learning climate of trust and clarity, which Legutke and Thomas (1991, p. 64) see as an indispensable goal, governing teachers’ choices and preceding the learning process, though depending on that process for its practical

realisation. Awareness of the need for this learning climate is generally seen as more facilitating than innovative tasks, techniques, or principles, since “doing the same things with a different awareness seems to make a bigger difference than doing different things with the same awareness” (Underhill, 1989, p. 260).

Sano, Takahashi, and Yoneyama (1984) claim that creative production is possible only in a “non-threatening environment” which encourages meaningful learning and the creative use of English. They see learning as dependent on

warm-hearted interaction between teachers and learners, as well as among learners themselves. This friendly interaction is, in our opinion, the most essential factor in successful language learning.

(Sano et al, 1984, p. 171)

A number of researchers thus draw attention to the importance of the teacher in promoting learning environments “which are cognitively and affectively expanding, ... which enable the learner to become a more adequate and knowledgeable person” (Pine and Boy, 1977, p. iii), and which recognise the place of affect in that process (e.g., Brock, 1994, p. 51). All too often, however, curriculum, teaching methodology, textbook, assessment and research, rely heavily and sometimes exclusively on narrowly-defined academic achievement, promoting “education from the neck up” (Rogers, 1951) above development of qualities (i.e. genuineness, unconditional acceptance, and empathy) described by Rogers (1951) as being possessed by everyone, but rarely developed in a systematic way:

there is no substitute for personal warmth, tolerance and a positive attitude to people, to oneself and to others.

(Legutke and Thomas, 1991, p. 35)

In the Korean context, Hofstede’s (1986) description of interaction characteristics indicates a collectivist, large power distance, strong avoidance of uncertainty, and slightly feminine society, in which students and teachers take on traditional roles. In this environment, the teacher is never contradicted nor publicly criticised, being the dispenser of “correct” information, though teachers (and students) are allowed to behave emotionally, and the teacher is typically a source of “warm-hearted interaction” (Sano, Takahashi, and Yoneyama, 1984). Students admire friendliness in teachers, they practice mutual solidarity, and they try to behave modestly, speaking in class only when called upon by the teacher (Hofstede, 1986, pp. 312-15). Given the differences with western interaction characteristics, in which learning is more student centred, but in which an unquestioning respect for the teacher does not generally play a part in the learning experience, Korean learners and foreign teachers can expect a mismatch of perceptions and beliefs (personal and cultural) when they meet in the language classroom.

Such a mismatch can easily serve to increase the anxiety that is already a part of the language classroom (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 40). It is essential, therefore, when addressing sources of anxiety and fear in their classrooms, that teachers investigate their own basic assumptions and reactions before criticising or punishing their students for late arrival in class, tardiness in submitting assignments, unrealistic expectations concerning accuracy and proficiency, or unwillingness to participate actively in the classroom. Self-reflection can (for example) examine to what extent these are in fact characteristics of the teacher, which are being emulated by the students. Teaching journals (an excellent tool for reflective professional development) might well be used, therefore, to note such factors:

- Did the teacher arrive in class late/on time/early?
- Was the lesson prepared adequately?
- Did the teacher participate actively in the lesson?
- Have student assignments been marked and returned on time?
- What are the teacher's expectations regarding student proficiency, fluency and error-making?
- Is the teacher learning a second language (e.g., Korean), and how is it going?

Self-reflection can thus be a valuable means of identifying contradictions in the teacher's daily practice – contradictions which are observed by the students, which come between them and the teacher in terms of mutual respect, and which are often a source of fear and confusion.

Having taken off the authoritarian “dispenser of correct language” hat, the “model of cultural appropriateness” hat, the “communicative methodology rules!” hat, and the “academically and ethically superior” hat, the teacher can then begin construction of a dogma-free learning space, sensitive to the affective needs of the students, offering training in affective strategies, helping students manage anxiety and improve performance, and reassuring them that they are not alone in their affective reactions and that these feelings are normal. Managing the lesson so that he/she can spend time with students individually, he/she can focus on:

- introducing new directions and options;
- helping the learner develop alternative strategies;
- developing the learner's self-awareness and capacity for self-appraisal;
- helping the learner establish boundaries and define achievement;
- creating a bond of shared understanding;
- deepening self-awareness, particularly of self-defeating behaviour.

(Kelly, 1996, pp. 95-96; cf. appendix A).

Dörnyei (2001, p. 31) describes a survey of English teachers, which showed that those teachers considered their own behaviour to be the single most motivational tool in the classroom, and that the classroom climate was second in importance.

Asking how teachers might create a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom and thus maximise both motivational tools, Dörnyei suggests that they:

- establish a norm of tolerance;
- encourage risk-taking and have mistakes accepted as a natural part of learning;
- bring in and encourage humour;
- encourage learners to personalise the classroom environment according to their taste.

Dörnyei (2001, p. 31)

Both sets of suggestions (above) assume a non-controlling role for the teacher, who is released can set about mastering a new set of skills, identified by Kelly (1996) as macro- and micro-skills of language counselling (appendix A).

2. The classroom

The “business of learning” (Fraser, 1986, foreword) is typically carried out in classrooms, where learners face the risk of shame before others (and self) for perceived inadequacy (Ehrman, 1999, p. 79). Disruptions of existing mental constructs, particularly those relating to the individual, often entail strong feelings, and the necessity of acknowledging ignorance and imperfection, along with the fear that one’s linguistic performance will be inadequate, are sufficient reasons to feel distress. The classroom is therefore an environment in which educational goals such as concern for community, concern for others, and commitment to the task in hand, must be promoted and modelled if they are to be acquired. This learning environment contains learners with their own personal histories, values, assumptions, beliefs, rights, duties, obligations and learning styles (cf. Donato, 2000, p. 45), for whom the learning task is a means of perceiving and using linguistic affordances as appropriate (Van Lier 2000, p. 252), fostered by a climate of cooperative social interaction which “produces new, elaborate, advanced psychological processes that are unavailable to the organism working in isolation” (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 61).

Pine and Boy (1977, pp. 122, 156) list factors that influence and facilitate learning in terms of the classroom environment. These factors are detailed in appendix B, and reflect a humanistic, student-centred view of education, a view that does not conflict with official curriculum-policy documents, where the well-educated person is defined in terms of holistic development, creative ability based on knowledge and skills, and ethical contribution to the community (Korean Ministry of Education website, 2001). Korean students learn the concept of *hongik-ingan* (“contributing to the overall benefit of humankind”) in their secondary studies, so that the visiting foreign language teacher need not worry about embodying principles of “respect, trust, love, and concern for one another” (item 22, appendix B) in the classroom. Rather, he/she

might do well to consider to what extent the learning environment in his/her classroom satisfies the characteristics identified by Pine and Boy. Appendix B also offers a classroom-environment scale (CES) that might be used for such a reflective purpose.

The CES could, of course, also provide useful information if given to the students, and it is interesting to note here that the very act of asking students to provide feedback on the affective climate of the classroom itself implies an atmosphere of trust and of non-reprisal, in that the teacher is genuinely trying to identify non-cognitive factors that might be impeding learning, and is asking the students to give their opinion on these. The “observer’s paradox”² is thus turned on its head, as the act of observation is employed precisely so that perceptions and assumptions might be positively altered during the response to that observation.

3. The materials

Learning materials used in the EFL classroom can also be a source of stress for the EFL student and teacher (cf. Tomlinson, 1998, p. 261), in that they frequently subscribe to theories of education long since discredited (White, 1988, describing the “3Ps” method of teaching), they rarely address current educational issues (e.g., autonomy, learner-training, self-assessment, holistic process learning), they can be culturally insensitive (focusing on Caucasian [usually Christian] families in America or England, and presuming a multi-ethnic mix of students typical of ESL classrooms), and they tend to be teacher-centred (hence amenable to unskilled educators) (cf. Breen, 1987a, p. 86). Such texts, in emphasising cognitive rather than affective development, and the transmission of a fixed body of knowledge rather than the transformation of knowledge, tend to ignore the capacity to learn independently, to develop effective thinking techniques, and to learn how to learn (cf. Richards’ [1985] “self-actualization” approach).

If the qualities of a non-threatening learning environment (appendix B) are to be fostered, therefore, what is the teacher to do when faced with such materials? One option is to take the “rocky” path of producing textbooks written “under difficult circumstances by amateurs” (O’Neill, 1982), though this is extremely time-consuming and demanding. Another option is to adopt the process syllabus, with its on-going syllabus content negotiation between teachers and learners (Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, 1973; White, 1981; Skilbeck, 1984), and its learner reinterpretation and accommodation of new knowledge and capabilities through the sharing of ideas in group-work (Ausubel, 1985; Bannister and Francella, 1980; Bonarius, Holland, and Rosenberg, 1981). Finally (and particularly in the case of teachers who have no say in textbook selection), it might be that the sort of “warm-hearted interaction” that has been advocated thus far, will promote learning and self-esteem whatever the learning materials, and that misguided or ill-informed texts can serve as an opportunity for discussion and decision-making by students.

When designing or searching for student-centred materials which promote a non-threatening learning environment, it is important to make sure that they go “beyond the experience-activating exercises of the humanistic approaches” (Legutke and Thomas, 1991, p. 64), and of out-of-context teacher resource books, and that they focus on activities which have a language-teaching orientation, in addition to developing: (i) trust-building and relaxation; (ii) awareness and sensitivity training; (iii) information-sharing; (iv) thinking strategies and problem-solving; (v) imagination-gap, fantasy and creative expression; (vi) role-playing and creative dynamics; (vii) interaction and interpersonal; (viii) values clarification and discussion; and (ix) process evaluation. It is impractical at this point to do much more than indicate the problem, since one would need to explore a whole series of learning materials in order to build a picture of an affectively and academically sensitive approach to materials design. However, an example of such an approach is offered in appendix C (Finch and Hyun, 2000a). In this single page from a unit about “Chat Show” projects, a number of features are immediately evident:

1. the activities on the page are part of a sequence which focus on affective and personal exploration and development;
2. the “Homework” assignment prepares for the class activity by asking students to reflect on things that are important to them in life;
3. instructions are addressed to the students, are at their language level, and treat them as thinking and sensitive individuals (there is no attempt to use humour, though enjoyment and pleasure is a feature of the activities);
4. there is no need for the teacher to model language or to explain instructions;
5. language input is in the instructions (use of imperatives) and in the example question (e.g. “Why did you choose this?”);
6. activities explore personal realities, perceptions and experiences, which are viewed as relevant and valid in the language-learning context;
7. the activities could take place in the classroom or in a coffee-shop (the classroom is simply a convenient place for students to come together), with or without the presence of a teacher (scope for self-directed follow-up activities);
8. the only time the teacher needs to take action is in “Gestures”, when “The teacher will put a message on your back”. Otherwise, he/she is free to participate in the activities themselves, or to carry out language-counselling with individuals or small groups of students.
9. there is no need for the teacher to initiate or close the activities. They can begin when the first student enters the classroom, they can continue as

long as the students find them educationally and affectively stimulating and relevant, and they can merge into each other, as the sensitive teacher identifies students who are ready to move on, and puts messages on their backs.

10. the activity “*Gestures*” focuses on non-verbal communication, an important aspect of formal and informal interaction, and often with emotional implications;
11. problem-solving opportunities arise in comprehending the “*Me-bag*” activity, since a word is missing from the instructions (“*Two, three or four*”).

Appendix C thus presents an example of materials which focus on student well-being and self-esteem. In the book from which the example is taken, these activities lead on to the construction and performance of a *Chat-show*, and are part of a sequenced approach. However, even in isolation, they provide a non-threatening format for learning, devoid of cultural or pedagogic impositions, placing the student at the centre of the learning process, and sufficiently open-ended to promote follow-on activities. From the standpoint of textbooks which subscribe to the linear, teacher-controlled view of language learning, it might be objected that “nothing is being taught or learned” in these activities. Such a comment ignores the overwhelming evidence in support of the individual learning agenda that all learners bring to the classroom (Allwright, 1984), an agenda based on learning beliefs, perceptions and attitudes. A more relevant goal for the teacher (and the learning materials) is to address these factors by engendering a positive learning environment in which personal values are respected, and in which the student is allowed to interact freely with other learners, with the teacher, and with the learning materials:

If the language learner is active and engaged, she will perceive linguistic affordances and use them for linguistic action. (Van Lier, 2000, p. 252)

4. Self-assessment

Assessment is typically a source of fear and anxiety in the language classroom, whether the method be multiple-choice questions or oral performance tests. However, such assessment is often carried out for the convenience of the institution rather than the students, whereas “the ability to evaluate the effectiveness of one’s own performance in a foreign language is an important skill in learning, and particularly important when the learning becomes autonomous.” (Dickinson, 1987, p. 136; cf. Trim in Oscarsson, 1978, p. ix; Council of Europe document, 1974, p. 7). Alternative assessment, in the form of self-assessment, peer-assessment, learning diaries, portfolios, and interviews thus offers a more personal and stress-free method of evaluating and reflecting upon linguistic achievement. Harris (1997) stresses the psychological benefits of self-assessment:

Above all, they [learners] can be helped to perceive their own progress and encouraged to see the value of what they are learning. ... The best motive to learn is a perception of the value of the thing learned.

(Harris, 1997, p. 19)

And Van Lier voices the humanist perspective:

In addition to 'normal' testing, we need to pay attention to the basic moral purpose of education: promoting the self-actualization of every learner, to the fullest.

(Van Lier, 1996, p. 120)

Harris draws attention to the importance of affect: "If we attend to the affective and cognitive components of students' attitudes ... we may be able to increase the length of time students commit to language study and their chances of success in it" (Harris, 1997, p. 20). Dickinson associates self-assessment with the process paradigm in language teaching (Dickinson, 1987, p. 151, cf. Breen, 1987b), and a number of authors stress the learner-centred nature of self-assessment (Oscarsson, 1978, p. 1; Van Lier, 1996, p. 119; Harris, 1997). Harris (1997, p. 19) sees self-assessment as a practical tool that should be integrated into everyday classroom activities, and Blanche proposes that self-appraisal "would be particularly helpful in the case of false beginners" (1988, p. 85). Harris (1997, p. 13) also sees self-assessment as appropriate in test-driven secondary and tertiary education, claiming that it can help learners in such environments to become more active, to locate their own strengths and weaknesses, and to realise that they have the ultimate responsibility for learning. By encouraging individual reflection, "self-assessment can begin to make students see their learning in *personal* terms [and] can help learners get better marks" (Harris (1997, p. 13). Peer assessment (a form of self-assessment [Tudor, 1996, p. 182] and justified largely by the same arguments) is especially applicable to the classroom setting, aiming to encourage students to take increased responsibility for their own curricula and to become active participants in the learning process (Hill, 1994, p. 214; Miller and Ng, 1996, p. 134). Tudor adds that critical reflection on the abilities of other learners with respect to a shared goal is a practical form of learner training which helps individuals to assess their own performance, and which reduces the stress of error correction through identifying them in others (Tudor, 1996, p. 182). Thus Assinder (1991, pp. 218-28) reports increased motivation, participation, real communication, in-depth understanding, commitment, confidence, meaningful practice and accuracy when students prepare and deliver learning tasks for each other. Houghton and Dickinson (1989) (cited in Miller and Ng, 1996, p. 135) found "a relatively high level of agreement between the peer assessments and the marks given by the lecturers" in their study of a collaborative post-writing assessment (cf. Fok, 1981). Students were: (i) able to assess their own work realistically (to a large extent), even though most felt inexperienced as testers (lack of reliability) and were not comfortable with being tested by classmates (fear of losing face); (ii) they were sincere; (iii) they demonstrated

a similar level of assessment to that of the lecturers; (iv) the scheme did not result in a lowering of standards; and (v) the students benefited in their understanding of and attitude towards assessment by taking part in the study (Miller and Ng, 1996, p. 142). Peer assessment can be therefore be seen as an effective means of involving learners in formative self-assessment (Miller and Ng, 1996, p. 134), with the presence of an audience in general having a positive influence on performance (Lynch, 1988). Lynch also makes the important observation that “tutors can differ widely in their response to assessment of the same oral presentation”, and that “we *need* to experiment with peer-based evaluation ... to complement conventional tutor- and self-based assessment” (Lynch, 1988, p. 124).

Perceptions are an important part of self-assessment, in that student beliefs drive learning, and learners who believe themselves to be unsuccessful will engineer assessment results that prove their beliefs. It is the duty of the teacher in this situation to provide encouragement and reinforcement, realistically appraising the learner’s progress and achievement, identifying with the learner’s experience and perceptions, and bringing attention to discrepancies and contradictions in the learner’s beliefs (Kelly, 1996, pp. 95-95; cf. appendix A). This can be done within the context of trust and warm-hearted interaction, by inviting students to carry out self-assessment activities during the course of study. An example is offered in appendix D (Finch and Hyun, 2000b), which students can fill in when they begin a course of study. At the end of the semester they fill in the same questionnaire, and teachers can discuss results with them, making the point that they have improved according to their own evaluation. For those who show no improvement, or who show evidence of unrealistically high or low scores, this is also an opportunity for discussion and counselling. Once students are familiar with the idea of self-assessment, they can make their own assessment instruments and monitor achievement using their own criteria.

Walberg (1975) and Fraser (1981) urge educators to incorporate classroom environment dimensions into their evaluations, and to view socio-psychological classroom processes as valuable ends in their own right, rather than relying exclusively on standard achievement criteria in curriculum evaluation (Walberg, 1975), since classroom variables “have differentiated revealingly among the curricula when a variety of cognitive outcome measures have shown little sensitivity” (Welch and Walberg, 1972).

IV. Conclusions

Given the tendency of language classrooms to promote anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986), and the considerable evidence in support of the general proposition that the nature of classroom environments has an important influence on students’ achievement of cognitive and attitudinal goals (Ely, 1986, p. 118), the

promotion of a low-stress, non-threatening language learning environment must be an important priority for the teacher. This involves encouraging realistic expectations about accuracy and errors (Foss and Reitzel, 1988), offering training in affective strategies, to help students manage anxiety and improve performance (Oxford and Crookall, 1989), reassuring students that they are not alone in their affective reactions and that these feelings are normal (Foss and Reitzel, 1988; Campbell and Ortiz, 1991), and showing that the teacher/evaluator understands the tension caused by being anxious about appearing anxious (Phillips, 1992, p. 20). Phillips (1992, p. 21) also points out that “alternative” evaluations involving partner and small-group work, interviews, problem-solving, and role-plays are usually enjoyed by students (Phillips, 1990; Young, 1990) and can reduce anxiety-raising competitiveness (Bailey, 1983) and apprehension (Foss and Reitzel, 1988). Familiar tasks also create less anxiety (Bailey, 1983), so practice of test-tasks will encourage confidence:

Teachers can reduce anxiety and foster psychological security and feeling of belonging by: (i) developing a stress-free climate; (ii) helping students relax; (iii) developing peer-support networks; and (iv) promoting self-confidence (Moskowitz, 1978; Horwitz, 1990; Horwitz and Young, 1991; Legutke and Thomas, 1991, p. 35; Oxford, 1990; Scarcella and Oxford, 1992). Need theorists agree that fear of failure is usually evoked in situations in which competence or performance is the focus (Crandall, 1963), and Horner (1968) describes the concept of “fear of success” shown by students who do not wish to be too successful, in order to avoid losing social affiliation and acceptance. Such fears can be addressed by designing or choosing learning materials which treat the learners and their perceptions as valid and meaningful, and which allow them to direct their own learning.

In view of these considerations, this paper suggests that language teachers need to examine their hidden agendas in the classroom. Rather than engineering situations that encourage plagiarism, misunderstanding and fear, teachers need to offer unconditional trust, which will inspire confidence, motivation, and learning. Instead of imposing their opinions of life and language learning, dictating what, how and when to study, chastising students for using the L1, accusing students of “cheating”, refusing to believe students’ excuses for being late, etc., teachers need to reflect on the assumptions that they take into the classroom, and which often lead to micro-managed “communicative” activities, in which traditional roles remain unchanged:

Without a positive learning atmosphere, students may well gain little or nothing from new curricular infusions.

(Mantle-Bromley, 1995, p. 383)

Teacher-training programs need to focus on counselling skills and management of affect, reflecting a holistic, affective, student-centred and socio-cultural view of language-learning as education, implying a radical reappraisal of teacher/student

roles, in favour of a non-threatening “workshop” learning environment, based on mutual trust and respect, in which the teacher acts as a language resource and counsellor, and in which language learning occurs in collaborative dialogue, facilitating the “appropriation of both strategic processes and linguistic knowledge” (Swain, 2000, p. 112).

Education becomes a meaningless endeavour unless the education acquired has some impact on the human condition.

(Pine and Boy, 1977, p. 237)

Endnotes

1. For a brief overview of humanistic methodologies, readers are referred to Richards and Rodgers, 1986.
2. i.e., that one alters situations by observing them.

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Appendix A: The macro- and micro-skills of language counselling

(Kelly, 1996, p. 95-96)

| Micro Skills | Description | Purpose |
|---------------------|--|---|
| Initiating | introducing new directions and options | to promote learner focus and reduce uncertainty |
| Goal-setting | helping the learner to formulate specific goals and objectives | to enable the learner to focus on a manageable goal |
| Guiding | offering advice and information, direction and ideas, suggesting | to help the learner develop alternative strategies |
| Modelling | demonstrating target behaviour | to provide examples of knowledge and skills that the learner desires |
| Supporting | providing encouragement and reinforcement | to help the learner persist; create trust; acknowledge and encourage effort |
| Giving feedback | expressing a constructive reaction to the learner's efforts | to assist the learner's self-awareness and capacity for self-appraisal |
| Evaluating | appraising the learner's progress and achievement | to acknowledge the significance of the learner's effort and achievement |
| Linking | connecting the learner's goals and tasks to wider issues | to help establish the relevance and value of the learner's project |
| Concluding | bringing a sequence of work to a conclusion | to help the learner establish boundaries and define achievement |

Appendix A: The macro- and micro-skills of language counselling continued

(Kelly, 1996, p. 95-96)

| Micro Skills | Description | Purpose |
|---------------------|--|---|
| Attending | Giving the learner your undivided attention | to show respect and interest; to focus on the person |
| Restating | Repeating in your own words what the learner says | to check your understanding and to confirm the learner's meaning |
| Paraphrasing | Simplifying the learner's statements by focusing on the essence of the message | to clarify the message and to sort out conflicting or confused meanings |
| Summarising | bringing together the main elements of a message | to create focus and direction |
| Questioning | using open questions to encourage self-exploration | to elicit and to stimulate learner disclosure and self-definition |
| Interpreting | offering explanations for learner experiences | to provide new perspectives; to help self-understanding |
| Reflecting feelings | surfacing the emotional content of learner statements | to show that the whole person has been understood |
| Empathizing | identifying with the learner's experience and perception | to create a bond of shared understanding |
| Confronting | surfacing discrepancies and contradictions in the learner's communication | to deepen self-awareness, particularly of self-defeating behaviour |

Appendix B: A non-threatening learning-environment scale.

Based on Pine & Boy (1977).

Y = Yes; M = Maybe; N = No; ? = I hadn't thought about this before.

| My classroom environment: | Y | M | N | ? |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 1 encourages people to be active | | | | |
| 2 facilitates individual discovery of the personal meaning of ideas. | | | | |
| 3 emphasises the uniquely personal and subjective nature of learning. | | | | |
| 4 sees difference as good and desirable. | | | | |
| 5 consistently recognises the right to make mistakes. | | | | |
| 6 tolerates ambiguity. | | | | |
| 7 sees evaluation as a co-operative and personal process. | | | | |
| 8 encourages openness of self rather than concealment of self. | | | | |
| 9 encourages people to trust in themselves as well as in external sources. | | | | |
| 10 is one in which people feel they are respected. | | | | |
| 11 is one in which people feel they are accepted. | | | | |
| 12 permits confrontation. | | | | |
| 13 creates conditions by which the teacher loses the teaching function. | | | | |
| 14 carefully personalises instruction in an attempt to meet the individual needs, interests, and abilities of students. | | | | |
| 15 provides materials which are perceived as meaningful and relevant to the student. | | | | |
| 16 provides freedom to peruse personal interests, raise questions, make decisions, explore, and discover. | | | | |
| 17 provides provocative interest centres and materials that demand interaction and constant investigation, in order to help bring about self-initiated learning | | | | |
| 18 does not foster an attitude of competitiveness. | | | | |
| 19 allows the freedom to make mistakes and still feel competent. | | | | |
| 20 provides opportunities for the student to grow socially, emotionally, and intellectually though working as an individual, and as part of a wide variety of group and peer learning situations | | | | |
| 21 nurtures respect, trust, love, and concern for one another. | | | | |
| 22 sees the teacher's role as facilitator of learning | | | | |

Appendix C

Homework - Prepare a "Me-bag"!



- Next lesson we will talk about ourselves.
 We will talk about things that are important to us.
 Do you have special things that tell you about your life?
 (toys, books, photos)
- > FIND a paper bag or a plastic bag.
 - > PUT the special things in the bag.
 - > PUT pictures on the bag (if you want to).
 - > BRING the bag to the next lesson.

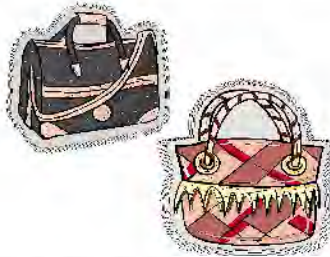
"Me - bag" (Two, three or four people).

One person:

- Open your "Me-bag".
- Take something out of it.
- Talk about it.
 (Why is it special?)
 (What does it remind you of?)

Other people: Ask questions:

- "Why did you choose this?"
- "Why is it special?"
- "When did you get it?"
- "Who gave it to you?"



"Gestures"

"Look out!"

"I'M HUNGRY!"

"I like swimming." "Follow me."

- The teacher will put a message on your back.
- Don't look at it!
- Ask other people about your message.
"Please explain my message."
- DO NOT TALK when you explain.
- ONLY USE GESTURES.
- Write the message below:



My Message:

Appendix D

"My English ability" - 20 Questions

영어를 배우기 위한 스무고개

자신의 영어회화 실력이 어떻다고 생각하십니까?

In the following table,
please check (√) the answers which suit your English abilities
best.

다음의 질문들을 읽고 자신의 영어회화 능력을 점검해 보세요.

| | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| A = 즉시 질문에 대답할 수 있다. | This would not be a problem. |
| B = 잠시 생각한 후 대답할 수 있다. | I could answer after some thought. |
| C = 대답하기까지 얼마간의 시간이 필요하다. | I would need a little time to think. |
| D = 많이 부족하다. | I would find this very difficult. |
| E = 전혀 대답할 수 없다. | I wouldn't be able to do this at all. |

| 가. | If I meet an English Native-Speaker in Korea, | A | B | C | D | E |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 한국에서 외국인을 만나면, | | | | | |
| 1 | I can greet him/her. 인사할 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 2 | I can introduce myself. 자신을 소개할 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 3 | I can talk about my family. 자신의 가족에 대해 얘기할 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 4 | I can talk about my school/job. 자신의 학교/직업에 대해 얘기할 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 5 | I can talk about my hobbies. 자신의 취미에 대해 얘기할 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 6 | I can talk about my room/office. 자신의 방/사무실에 대해 얘기할 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 7 | I can talk about my hometown. 자신의 고향에 대해 얘기할 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 8 | I can talk about my country. 자신의 나라에 대해 얘기할 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 9 | I can give directions. 길을 안내해 줄 수 있다. | | | | | |

| 나 | If I visit an English-speaking country, | A | B | C | D | E |
|----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 영어권 나라를 여행할 때, | | | | | |
| 10 | I can ask for directions. 길을 물어볼 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 11 | I can buy a train/bus/plane ticket. | | | | | |

Appendix D

| | | | | | | |
|----|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| | 기차/버스/비행기표를 살 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 12 | I can buy food from the supermarket. 슈퍼마켓에서 먹을 것을 살 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 13 | I can buy clothes. 옷을 살 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 14 | I can order a meal at a restaurant. 식당에서 식사를 주문할 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 15 | I can reserve a room in a hotel. 호텔에 객실을 예약할 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 16 | I can ask for information on the phone. 전화로 원하는 정보를 물어 볼 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 17 | I can use the Post Office/Bank. 우체국이나 은행을 잘 이용할 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 18 | I can talk to native speakers. 외국인과 대화할 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 19 | I can read English newspapers. 영자신문을 읽을 수 있다. | | | | | |
| 20 | I can understand road maps and signs. 교통표지판이나 이정표를 이해할 수 있다. | | | | | |

Now make your score.

이제 여러분의 점수를 계산해보십시오.
A = 5점; B = 3점; C = 2점; D = 1점; E = 0점

| A | | B | | C | | D | | E | |
|----------|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|--|----------|--|
| 개수 = | | 개수 = | | 개수 = | | 개수 = | | 개수 = | |
| 개수 x 5 = | | 개수 x 3 = | | 개수 x 2 = | | 개수 x 1 = | | 개수 x 0 = | |

My total score is points.

You will do this activity again at the end of this course, and you can compare your scores at that time.

이 교재를 마친 뒤에 다시 자기평가를 하게 될 것입니다.
그 때 여러분은 자신의 점수를 비교할 수 있습니다.

(TMM Information Section, p. 21)

Reviews

Books

Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom

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Learner Dictionaries for the Millennium

Collins Cobuild English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (3rd ed.)

John Sinclair (Ed.)

Longman Advanced American Dictionary

Reviewed by David E. Shaffer

Software

Tense Buster 2001

Clarity Language Consultants Ltd.

Reviewed by David B. Kent

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

Edited by DAVIDE SHAFFER

Chosun University

Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom

Tricia Hedge.

Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000.

Pp. 447. (ISBN 0-19-442172-4 Paperback)

Reviewed by Michael Duffy

This book, a volume in the Oxford Handbooks for Language Teachers series, is intended mainly for teachers working with adolescent or adult students and is effectively a snapshot of the current state of the art of English language teaching as it applies to this target group. The author, who is a lecturer in Warwick University's Centre for English Language Education, has also published books on extensive reading (Hedge, 1985) and writing (Hedge, 1988). As she points out in the introduction, the past two decades have seen a veritable explosion of research in various ELT-related academic fields, and the book aims to show how the results of this research can provide useful insights for the classroom.

The book is divided into four parts. The first, "A Framework for Teaching and Learning," sets out the issues to be dealt with in the later chapters and consists itself of three overview chapters. The first and third, on research on language learning and learner characteristics, respectively, cover much the same ground as Lightbown and Spada's (1999) volume in the series. One important insight Hedge points up is that "there is no easy direct relationship between the teaching objectives of our lessons and the learning outcomes of our students" (p.15). Another is the importance of developing student autonomy: she quotes in this regard a teacher from Burkina Faso who told her that with a dearth of learning opportunities and resources, training learners in learning strategies was a priority. The second chapter is an introduction to the notion of communicative teaching. Setting learners communicative tasks has become the orthodoxy, but still unresolved is the issue of how to balance the formal features of language and pragmatic communicative skills in the classroom. PPP (the presentation-practice-production lesson paradigm) was one attempt to achieve such a balance; later, in Chapter 5, Hedge gives a clear account of why it fell short.

The chapters in Part 2, "Teaching the Language System," dealing with vocabulary and grammar, and Part 3, "Developing the Language Skills," broadly follow the same format, each one being divided into a "What do we know about this aspect of second language learning?" and a "What are the implications for

teaching?” section. The opinion put forth is that though vocabulary is attracting much more interest nowadays than it has traditionally, research studies are still not providing the teacher with a great deal of help in the field. On the one hand, it would seem that reading-acquired lexis sticks better in proportion to the effort required to learn it, but on the other, it is not at all clear whether learning items in semantic networks is beneficial. Explicit teaching of grammar has survived the influence of Krashen (1982). Contrary to his idea that it could best be acquired naturally from input, now “there is a degree of agreement...that a focus on grammar and the explicit learning of rules can facilitate and speed up the grammar acquisition process” (p. 150). However, “tidied up” input has to be balanced with what Swan and Walter (1990) call “a certain amount of “untidy natural language.” Here again, teachers are, in the end, thrown back on their intuition and advised to “choose eclectically from among those approaches available” (p.179).

The author is understandably enthusiastic about the value of extensive reading. Here again, she has to admit that its apparent desirability is not supported by any particular research data and that teachers have to go along with their own intuition and beliefs. Her accounts of the roles of top-down and bottom-up processing in reading, and of the use of pre-, while-, and post-reading activities, are mirrored in the chapter on listening. With the present shift away from print to spoken-word media, listening will acquire an increasing importance, and in this regard, Hedge quotes the frequently cited statistic (e.g., Celce-Murcia, 1995) that 9% of an individual’s communication time is devoted to writing, 16% to reading, 30% to speaking, and 45% to listening. The most important element in teaching listening, she concludes, is building confidence, which emerges from consistently successful practice.

The roles of managing interactions (e.g., opening and closing conversations) and of accuracy- and fluency-based activities in teaching speaking are all reviewed. One particularly interesting investigation of various kinds of fluency activities (Foster, 1998) showed that they were disappointingly ineffective in eliciting negotiation of meaning among students. A discussion of error-correction concludes that it is “one of the most complex aspects of classroom management,” something that will at least be comforting to many teachers who face an everyday struggle with the problem. With regard to the other productive skill, the author tends to support a process approach to the teaching of writing. She does admit its possible drawbacks, particularly in large classes, though she mentions a teacher in India who reported success with one kind of revision strategy in a class of 120 students. Finally, she comes down in favor of combining process and product approaches according to student needs.

Part 4, “Planning and Assessing Learning,” covers course design and classroom assessment. The author notes the first of these has been subject to changes in fashion since the 1970s, from the structural to the communicative to the task-based syllabus of recent times. “At the moment,” she concludes, “syllabus design and course unit design are based on experience, reflection, and logical reasoning”

(p. 367) rather than on insights provided from research. Recognizing that many teachers have no input into syllabus planning, she includes a discussion of criteria for choosing textbooks. The final chapter, contributed by a different author (Pauline Rea-Dickins), reviews the broad field of student assessment, from pencil and paper testing to portfolios.

The book has taken on a considerable task in trying to draw the connections between numerous fields of research and more or less the whole range of ELT classroom practice. Its achievement is not diminished by the fact that in some cases, there is an admitted disjunction between research and practice. In fact, it is difficult to do justice to the richness of its content in a review. It has an obvious use as a training course text; to this end, each chapter is prefaced with an introductory task, and concludes with a list of “Discussion Topics and Projects” and recommendations for further reading. However, any teacher of whatever level of experience, using it as a handbook, will find in it a wealth of practical information, as well as plenty of stimulation for reflection.

The Reviewer

Michael Duffy is currently a professor at Dong-A University in Pusan. He has taught in the UK and Hong Kong, and has been in Korea since 1988. He has held a number of positions in Korea TESOL, including four years as president of its Pusan Chapter. Email: duffy@mail.donga.ac.kr

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Pursuing Professional Development: The Self as Source

Kathleen M. Bailey, Andy Curtis, and David Nunan.
Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle, 2001.
Pp. x + 277. (ISBN 0-8384-1130-4 Paperback)

Reviewed by Rodney E. Tyson

Pursuing Professional Development is one of the latest additions to the TeacherSource series of books edited by Donald Freeman for Heinle & Heinle. Like the other books in the series, it is intended for pre- and in-service language teachers. Neither the authors of this book nor the series editor should need an introduction to most readers of this journal since their books, articles, and workshops in the areas of language teaching and teacher development are well-known throughout Asia and around the world. Much of the work of all three authors has been in the area of personal development and using personal experience as a source for pursuing professional development: “Self-awareness and self-observation are the cornerstones of all professional development” (p. 22). This book brings together and adds to much of that work and details a number of techniques that teachers can use to develop themselves as professionals.

The book begins with a short introduction that describes how the three authors, who were all working in Hong Kong at the time, came to write the book together. This is followed by the series editor’s preface which explains the objective of the series, which is to make the authors’ “experience and point of view” (p. viii) the central concern – to illustrate through that personal experience and point of view rather than try to “tell” readers what is important in the more traditional way. The first three chapters of the book develop the authors’ theoretical background for the more practical material that makes up most of the book. In the first chapter, the authors explore the question of why professional development is necessary. In the second chapter, they discuss the value of self-awareness and self-observation for teachers, and in the third, they take a close look at the many definitions of “reflective teaching,” a concept which, of course, “underpins the rest of the book” (p. 34). Each of the next nine chapters focuses exclusively on one method of teacher development. The titles of the chapters themselves say much about the content: teaching journals, using cases, language learning experience, video, action research, peer observation, team teaching, mentoring and coaching, and teaching portfolios. The book ends with two appendices containing a transcript of an actual lesson taught by David Nunan, the

results of a survey on team teaching conducted by Kathleen Bailey (both of which are discussed in the text, of course), and fourteen pages of references.

One thing that sets books in the TeacherSource series apart from other more typical books written for language teachers is their unique organization. Each book is built around three different types of content, or “strands” (p. ix). These three strands are meant to provide a balance of practical insight into teaching, theoretical background, and ideas for discussion and reflection. “Teachers’ Voices” are first-person accounts, or stories really, in which various practicing language teachers are allowed to speak for themselves about their experiences and problems in teaching. “Frameworks” are sections that lay out the more theoretical concepts and issues that the authors feel are important for readers to understand in order to make sense of the topics under discussion. “Investigations” are short activities that encourage readers to pause and reflect on their own experiences and ideas about language teaching. In the text, the beginning of a new strand is indicated by a unique graphical symbol in the margin.

In *Pursuing Professional Development*, each chapter includes several sections of each of the three strands, which are interwoven in various sequences to reinforce one another. For example, in Chapter 12 on teaching portfolios, after a very short introduction, there is a “frameworks” section of slightly over two pages that defines portfolios and discusses why they are important. Following that is a “teachers’ voice” section of a little less than two pages in which David Nunan writes about his personal experiences and feelings about creating his own teaching portfolio. Next is another longer “frameworks” section that discusses what might be included in a portfolio. Readers are then asked to pause and reflect on what they have read so far in the chapter. An “investigations” activity, which includes a chart to fill in, encourages them to think or talk about what they themselves would want to include in a teaching portfolio. The rest of the chapter includes one more “frameworks” section, two more “teachers’ voices” sections, and two more “investigations” sections. Each chapter ends with a list of “tasks for development” and an annotated list of very relevant suggested readings.

I found this book an excellent overview of specific ways of “pursuing professional development.” The authors build on theory, their personal experiences, and the experiences of other teachers in a variety of situations to cover a number of proven techniques for personal development quite thoroughly. More than any other book on reflective teaching I have read, this book actually shows – through a combination of explanation, examples, and constant challenges to the readers – *how* teachers can reflect on their teaching. The authors recognize, however, that not every technique is right for every teacher. Instead, readers are constantly invited to decide for themselves where they stand on the issues discussed in the book. They are encouraged through the frequent “investigations” to look inside themselves, draw on their own experiences, and find their own way – in short, to use “the self as

source.” In the concluding chapter, “The Heart of the Paradox,” the authors point out that “professional development is not something that just happens: It must be actively pursued” (p. 246). The ideas and suggestions in this book can help teachers to do just that.

Pursuing Professional Development should be of interest and value to both in-service teachers and students preparing to become teachers. Thanks to the questions and activities in the “investigations” sections scattered throughout the book and the list of tasks at the end of each chapter which often encourage collaboration and discussion, it might be an especially good choice for a graduate seminar or a less formal group of practicing teachers interested in professional development. However, the questions and tasks can also be appreciated by a reader working through them alone, or at least thinking through them alone, as I often found myself doing as I read through the book. Finally, although discussion and explanation in the book is thorough and complete, the language used is straight-forward and simple enough that the book should be accessible to many teachers and students who are nonnative speakers of English.

The Reviewer

Rodney E. Tyson (Ph.D., University of Arizona) is an associate professor in the English Department at the American University of Sharjah in the United Arab Emirates. Before taking his current position, he taught at three universities in Korea for a total of more than 12 years, most recently at Daejin University, where he taught when this review was submitted. Email: retyson@hotmail.com

Success in English Teaching

Paul Davies and Eric Pearse.
Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000.
Pp. xiv + 221. (ISBN 0-19-442171-6)

Reviewed by Douglas Margolis

Success and English

Being a professional teacher of English as a foreign language may not be as difficult as holding up the world like Atlas, but it often requires Herculean persistence and resourcefulness. Every few years, experts appear with a new methodology and the latest research to convince us to change our current approach. In Korea, for example, the Ministry of Education has established official policy that English must be taught through the use of English in the classroom, which many native-speaker teachers regard as an advance, but which most Korean teachers find unrealistic. This is because many teachers in Korea do not have confidence in their English communicative ability and have experienced little more than grammar-translation methodology during their own language training. Nevertheless, this year marked the official beginning of the new policy and teachers are struggling to comply. At the same time, the latest research – see, for example, Nunan (2000), Willis (1999), and Skehan (1996) – suggests that what teachers think they teach does not necessarily translate into what students actually learn. Consequently, the poetically alliterative PPP (Present, Practice, and Produce) approach, which forms the basis of many books and training courses, now needs to be discarded. In its place, Skehan (1996) offers the OHE (Observe, Hypothesize, and Experiment) approach, an aesthetically less pleasing acronym, but potentially more educational strategy.

Given this context, one might consider success in our profession to be akin to staying upright in a logrolling contest, rather than being tossed in the mire of outdated methodologies and practices. Some may feel that an orderly classroom and lessons going as planned would be worth a toast. Davies and Pearse, however, define success very succinctly: “Your success as a teacher is based entirely on [the students] success as learners” (p. 2). More specifically, success in English teaching, they write, “is the ability of learners to use English effectively in real communication situations” (p. 2). Most of us acknowledge and strive to attain this type of success, but many have probably wondered if it is a mirage.

Davies and Pearse, however, depict a clear method for achieving this goal. First, they argue that English must be taught through English. In this sense, the book provides support for the recent Ministry of Education policy. Second, they consider communication as the central feature of the foreign language course. This means that the teacher should constantly encourage and reinforce student target language communications. Next, alternating around this “communication highway,” the teacher must focus student attention on language: both on new forms and items requiring review or remedial work (pp. 10-11). Fourth, they advocate teacher cooperation and collaboration. Finally, they also encourage teachers to make a commitment to professional development. Their method is persuasively presented. Moreover, considering that Davies and Pearse, according to the back cover, worked as teacher trainers in Mexico, which suggests that they are truly familiar with the English as a foreign language experience, the book appears promising for English teachers in Korea. In addition, the authors state that the book is especially for “non-native speakers of English” and native speakers teaching in the foreign context.

But Where’s the Beef?

The book is organized into 12 chapters, followed by a glossary, list of further sources, and an index. The introduction raises expectations by claiming, “The twelve chapters which form the main body of the book cover every major aspect of teaching English” (p. xiii). The first chapter gives the authors’ definition of “success,” presents their model of language teaching, and argues for an English-through-English approach.

The second chapter focuses on what teachers need to know for presenting new items and demonstrates several different styles through classroom transcripts. In the third chapter, the authors discuss the importance of distinguishing between practice for fluency and practice for accuracy and present several examples of how to conduct both. Chapter 4 introduces ideas for teaching new vocabulary. Davies and Pearse feel that many teachers neglect vocabulary teaching, and therefore, emphasize its importance.

Chapter 5 and 6 discuss English skill development. The authors first distinguish between typical classroom and real communicative English. Then they encourage readers to choose real communicative English as the course target. They then provide several ideas for developing activities. In chapter 7, the authors concentrate on ways to review and conduct remedial activities to improve student accuracy.

Chapter 8 examines how to plan a class and develop the course schedule, in addition to providing some tips on classroom management. The next chapter focuses on ideas for integrating the course book with class goals. In chapter 10, the focus is on maximizing effective use of the blackboard, visual aids, and realia, in addition to audio and video lessons. Finally, the last two chapters deal with testing and

professional development. The testing chapter explains reliability and validity, as well as dabbling into other assessment and evaluation issues. The professional development chapter crams a course in methodology and career tips into nineteen pages.

By the end of the book, one feels as if a lot of ground had been traversed, but without time to admire the scenery. In other words, the book leaves readers asking, “Hey, where’s the beef?” The book, on its own, makes a nice introduction to English teaching, with a wide coverage of topics that could prove useful for teacher training programs. In this respect, the book is quite similar to Jeremy Harmer’s *The Practice of English Language Teaching* or Jerry Gebhard’s *Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language*. But Davies and Pearse’s bold, and naïve, declaration that their twelve chapters cover every major aspect of teaching English is an instance of hubris. If it were possible to cover every major aspect of our jobs in 221 pages, professional development would probably be unnecessary. One lamentable omission, for example, is neglecting to even mention the topic of culture differences and how they effect second language acquisition.

The Virtues of Vegetarianism

In the final analysis, therefore, we must fault the authors for their grandiose claim. Yet, we should not let their embellishment cause us to completely dismiss the book. The book is a useful introduction to foreign language teaching and would make a good contribution to a training program. Although the authors do not go far enough in providing answers to non-native English teachers about how to gain more confidence or how to teach via a method never experienced as a student, they do get the conversation rolling and provide quite a few good tips. In particular, readers will find their discussion of vocabulary, review, and remedial activities helpful for bolstering one’s teaching skills. Moreover, the authors’ coverage of audio and video activities guides teachers toward more effective uses of technology. In fact, despite the lack of depth of the book, readers will find great teaching suggestions throughout. In addition, the book is well organized and jargon-free. In short, for those who enjoy meatless cuisine, the book contains the nutrients to nurture your teaching.

The Reviewer

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Learning New Language: A Guide to Second Language Acquisition

Tom Scovel.

Scarborough, Ontario: Heinle & Heinle, 2001.

Pp. 158. (ISBN 0-8384-6677-X)

Reviewed by Kirsten B. Reitan

What does the phrase “second language acquisition textbook” mean to you? Do you think thick? Long? Dry? Impersonal? If you have taken a course on second language acquisition (SLA), you know that most textbooks cover a wide range of research and theories and can be quite extensive (See Ellis, 1994; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; and McLaughlin, 1987). There are also a few, like Ellis’s *Second Language Acquisition* (1997), that give you a brief survey of second language acquisition theories. All of these are very good primers on SLA and give you an objective view of the many theories and research studies in the field. *Learning New Language*, however, personalizes SLA concepts and research.

Though generally the tone of the book is objective, you can sense the voice of the author, Tom Scovel, throughout the book. At times, he offers his own perspective on some of the SLA theories he reviews, especially in Chapter 5 as he discusses the critical period hypothesis. Yet he balances his own voice with findings by other researchers and personalizes the ideas in SLA by presenting sixteen language-learner accounts and seven practicing teachers’ experiences (Teachers’ Voices). The Learner’s Accounts are particularly interesting because they are first-hand journal entries by TESOL graduate students chronicling their own experiences learning new languages, including Korean and American Sign Language. These accounts are used to illustrate different aspects of second language acquisition. Likewise, the Teachers’ Voices section included in each chapter is an in-depth, first-person account of some aspect of second language acquisition in the classroom. Lisa Morin’s account (Chapter 3) of how she encouraged her students to use more complex grammatical structures in their writing ties in nicely with the concept of learner avoidance. Readers will also find Mariko Okuzaki’s use of peanut butter and apples to widen her students’ cultural perspective (Chapter 2) and Barbara Stoops’ durian-fruit-as-realia intriguing (Chapter 5).

In addition to Learner’s Accounts and Teachers’ Voices, some other unique features of the book include Frameworks and Investigations. Frameworks “establish the point of view of the professional community” (p. ix) by looking at various theories

and aspects of research in second language acquisition. Each chapter includes numerous Frameworks, like universal grammar, the acculturation model, negative transfer, and cognitive style. Whether readers are reviewing the concept or encountering it for the first time, they should be able to get a good handle on it. Each framework is explained simply, clearly, and in some depth. The reader is encouraged to explore some of the concepts in greater depth through Investigations. “The Investigations are meant to engage you, the reader, in relating the topic to your own teaching, students, and classroom. They are activities that you can do alone or with colleagues, to reflect on teaching and learning and/or try out ideas in practice” (p. ix). A total of thirteen investigations assist readers in personalizing aspects of SLA and in developing their own perspective with regard to their own environment. A good example is Investigation 5.2 (Chapter 5), which asks readers using five linguistic categories to decide whether the immigrant father or his young immigrant daughter is the better language learner. Each investigation, written as if the author were talking directly to the reader, gives sufficient guidance and details to complete the tasks.

The book itself is divided into seven chapters each of which contains at least one Teachers’ Voices, two to three Investigations, and numerous Frameworks. Learners’ Accounts are concentrated in the first three chapters. While most SLA textbooks organize the concepts around more technical terminology, Scovel uses the common terms *people*, *languages*, *attention*, *cognition*, and *emotion* to organize SLA concepts. He uses the acronym PLACE to help the reader remember his five categories. *People* comes first because “...without people, there a no languages” (p. 14). In the *people* chapter (Chapter 2), he looks at first language acquisition, Chomsky, Vygotsky, the acculturation model, the three circles of world Englishes, and bilingual education. Although Chomsky’s and Vygotsky’s ideas are well known, they are not always explained clearly for the layperson or new practitioner. Scovel does an excellent job of making these two scholars’ ideas accessible and valuable.

Chapter 3, *Languages*, deals with concepts like interference, errors versus mistakes, interlanguage, avoidance, and the role of universal grammar in SLA. The chapter draws on learner accounts and examples from many languages to make the various points clear and concrete. Chapter 4, *Attention*, explores ideas surrounding emic versus etic, neuropsychology, models of attention, memory, L2 input, and types of discourse in SLA classrooms. It introduces ideas from Richards, McLaughlin, Tomlin, and Villa, among others. Contrasted to the earlier chapters, this chapter is much denser in terms of information and requires more careful reading. Chapter 5, *Cognition*, likewise, is a very comprehensive chapter dealing with ideas and concepts from schemata and memory processing to types of memory and influence of age. In the section delving into age and SLA, Scovel shares his own perspective. This section is much easier to read than the sections dealing with schemata and memory processing. The last major chapter, Chapter 6, *Emotion*, looks at the role of motivation, anxiety, empathy, and other affective variables. This chapter features a number of Learner’s Accounts and two Teachers’ Voices, which contribute greatly to its readability and clarity.

Overall, *Learning New Languages: A Guide to Second Language Acquisition* is a worthwhile read for both the new and the experienced language teacher. For the new teacher, it offers a comprehensive but personalized overview of SLA with generally clear explanations. For both the experienced and new teacher, it offers the opportunity to personalize SLA to their own learning and teaching situations through Investigations, Teachers' Voices, and Learner's Accounts. Scovel's superb job of incorporating and integrating the more personal aspects with the more objective sections makes this a valuable addition to a teacher's library or as a supplementary textbook for an SLA course.

The Reviewer

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The Sociopolitics of English Language Teaching

*Joan Kelly Hall and William G. Eggington (Eds.).
Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters, 2000.
Pp. xiv + 251. (ISBN: 1853594369 Paperback)*

Reviewed by Trevor Gulliver

The study of social, political, and cultural factors' influence on the English classroom is so exciting because it places what we do as teachers in a larger context, connecting us to other classrooms, political organizations, social movements, and cultural trends. Such study encourages us to reflect upon what we do as teachers, how and why we do it, and what the global implications are of English language teaching. The end result of this reflection may be that we become more sensitive to our students' real needs, critical of programs which generate goals for the students without involving them in the process, and better equipped to help our students develop a critical perspective on language issues which affect them.

The development of future teachers' informed, critical, and creative awareness of sociopolitical issues is the proclaimed goal of *The Sociopolitics of English Language Teaching*, a collection of 11 papers written by well-known experts in the field of English language teaching and edited by Joan Kelly Hall and William G. Eggington. Each chapter is followed by a list of questions intended for discussion in classes of future TESOL professionals. Hall and Eggington succeed in bringing together in one volume the perspectives of a number of important writers in the field.

However, it is the potential for a book on the sociopolitics of ELT to encourage a truly global perspective on the diverse social, cultural, and political context(s) which situate our language teaching classrooms that makes the text in hand somewhat disappointing. Readers for whom the expressions "national context," "bilingual education," and "language policies" refer to something other than those of the U.S. will feel that this book was not, for the most part, written for them. The social and political landscape of language education in the U.S. over the last 20 years is the teaching context to which these writers give the most attention, at least in this collection. This book is written from the center, against the center, with some reference to the periphery.

Tollefson's contribution, for example, begins with a case study of a Filipino English teacher who speaks a variety of Filipino English common among highly

educated individuals in the metro Manila area. In the Philippines her English ability gains her many advantages. Tollefson then asks us to consider how the status of her English changes as she enrolls in a doctoral program in the United States and that context is the focus of the rest of the chapter.

Skutnabb-Kangas challenges: “If you are an ESL teacher and/or if you teach minority children through the medium of a dominant language, at the cost of their mother tongue, you are participating in linguistic genocide” (p. 25). She then proceeds to work towards a definition of linguistic human rights. Quite exciting, but where does that leave EFL teachers whose students’ L1 is a “safe” language (languages with over 100,000 speakers which are being taught to children)? Are we also murderers of languages, are we accomplices, or are we just accessories after the fact? Her argument that most ESL teaching today reflects a paradigm of monolingualism, the subtractive learning of dominant languages, and linguistic genocide seems a little overstated for those of us in Korea, Japan, Thailand, or Taiwan who have little reason to fear that our students will lose all ability in their mother tongue.

While Tollefson and Skutnabb-Kangas do attempt to offer an international perspective, three out of the seven essays in the first two sections of the book consider only the education system of the United States, while another two consider countries in which a nativized variety of English exists in relation to the United States.

It is the third section of the book, “Possibilities for Action,” that is applicable to the widest range of social contexts. These chapters advocate action starting with the individual teacher or learner and reaching outwards towards the larger political context or inward towards the personal and spiritual. Auerbach’s chapter in this section, ironically, chooses the narrowest focus, the classroom, yet is applicable to the widest range of contexts. Discussing her approach towards building participatory learning communities, she offers a number of interesting ways to create non-traditional learning environments. Her techniques for building participatory classrooms could be introduced in EFL contexts as easily as ESL contexts and is worthy of consideration.

The United States is, of course, as worthy a context as any in which to situate a study of how sociopolitical forces guide, shape, and constrain the language classroom. It is especially worthy of attention at a time in which bilingual education is under attack by groups like U.S. English whose activities are described in a chapter titled “Official English and Bilingual Education: The Controversy Over Language Pluralism in U.S. Society.”

However, EFL teachers overseas will encounter different sociopolitical conditions than ESL teachers in the countries where English is the majority language and these differences need to be addressed. Govardhan, Nayar, and Sheorey (1999)

have argued: “It is intellectually and pedagogically naive to believe that teaching English abroad is no more than an extension of ESL at home just as it is socioculturally and perhaps even politically irresponsible to think that native speakers can go abroad and teach their own language without special training. It is time MATESOL programs in the U.S. addressed this issue seriously” (124).

In their critique of U.S. MATESOL programs Govardhan et al. (1999) argue that what English teachers abroad need to consider are the dominant educational ideologies in the host country, the status of English in the curriculum and society, students’ attitude towards English, and the availability of instructional resources. Within U.S. MATESOL programs, there should be “units that enhance the teachers’ geographical and anthropological literacy and respect for other countries and communities, their cultures, their educational systems, and their conditions and ethics of work, including those that provide the sociocultural flexibility to cope with unfamiliar living and working conditions.” (Govardhan et al., p. 123)

Despite the authors’ tendency to subject only American language policy to their critical gaze, with little more than lip service to other contexts, there is some value for the EFL teacher in Asia to such a study. For one thing, perspective can be gained on a social and political context in which the development of much of the teaching materials available to us takes place. Furthermore, the very arguments used in support of bilingual education in this book – the rights of students to L1 instruction, the fear that students will lose their L1, resistance to imperialism – may be inappropriately used against increasing access to bilingual education in EFL contexts. Advocates for immersion education or bilingual education should be aware of these arguments and understand how they work within a specific context but not in others.

There is nothing, except lack of energy and lack of inclination, to prevent EFL teachers from reinterpreting these arguments to their local contexts, gaining in the process an informed, personal, and critical perspective on the sociopolitics influencing the schools and education systems in which they work. The editors’ introduction claims, however, that this book was intended to introduce sociopolitical issues to “... aspiring teachers of English from myriad educational contexts and geographical locations for the purposes of provoking their sensibilities, stimulating discussion, and ultimately raising students’ awareness of these important issues” (p. 1). If this was the editors’ intention than their work has been a limited success. The failure of *The Sociopolitics of English Language Teaching* to consider EFL contexts makes this text insufficient and perhaps even “politically irresponsible.” Practicing or future EFL teachers looking for an international perspective on sociopolitical issues might instead start with Pennycook (1994), Kennedy (1989), or even Holliday (1994).

If the language teaching context which you consider your own is that of the U.S., if you have a desire to critique the language politics and policies of the U.S., or if the sociopolitics of language teaching is an area of great personal interest, then

add this book to your library. With contributions by Pennycook, Tollefson, Skutnabb-Kangas and frequent references to Cummins, Canagarajah, and Phillipson, this book will be a welcome addition.

The Reviewer

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Memory in Oral Traditions: The Cognitive Psychology of Epic, Ballads, and Counting-out Rhymes

David C. Rubin.

Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1998.

Pp. 385. (ISBN 0-19-5120329 Paperback)

Reviewed by Ronald Gray

One of the most frustrating aspects of learning a language is the vast amount of information that needs to be understood, committed to memory, and available for recall. While we as teachers are always telling our students to remember this and not forget that, we do not tell them how to accomplish this. One way by which this can be done is through the use of mnemonics. Mnemonics are formal techniques used for organizing information in a way that makes it easier to be recalled. It is essentially imposing meaning upon material that is lacking in it. The application of mnemonics has been touted throughout the centuries by philosophers, writers, and scientists including Cicero, Thomas Aquinas, Dante, Leibnitz, and even Shakespeare. Within the last thirty years, a great deal of research has been done on mnemonics by cognitive psychologists, and the general consensus is that, under certain conditions, they are quite effective in helping students in the storage and retrieval of information. In fact, language learning is one area where the results have been quite impressive.

For those who are not familiar with mnemonics, the recent book *Memory in Oral Traditions: The Cognitive Psychology of Epic, Ballads, and Counting-out Rhymes* by David Rubin is a good place to start. Rubin, a psychologist at Duke University, clearly and patiently lays out the fundamentals of various mnemonics. As the title states, he is principally concerned with ballads, rhymes, and epics, but the value of his book is in his provision of good background information on recent work that has been done on mnemonics. Specifically, Chapters 3, Imagery; 6, The Transmission of Oral Traditions; and 7, Basic Observations on Remembering, are quite informative.

The utility of this for ESL teachers is that techniques that can be employed in the classroom are discussed. We all have used mnemonics when we were students. Common ones include: acronyms (*NASA*), rhymes (“*i before e except after c*”), acrostics (“*Every Good Boy Does Fine*” = E, G, B, D, F; to help music students

remember the notes), simple rehearsal or rote repetition (repeating a phone number over and over again), “chunking” items together (grouping material according to subject), and simple color highlighting.

The upshot is that teachers need to incorporate some of these techniques into their teaching methods (particularly for Asian students, who are not familiar with many of them). For example, one approach mentioned by Rubin is the famous method of loci, which was invented by the ancient Greek poet Simonides and has been used for hundreds of years. This method involves three easy steps. First, a series of locations, usually of an architectural type, are memorized (e.g., your home, a public building, a series of places on a campus). Then, a concrete and interesting image is thought of that represents the item to be recalled. For example, a coin could represent the topic of money, or a weapon, the subject of war. Third, these images are combined with the locations. For instance, the coin could be placed on the floor of the living room of your home, the weapon on a table in this room. Putting all of this together, when a person wants to recall the data to be memorized, all they need to do is mentally “stroll” through the location, neatly retrieving the object images from the locations in the order in which they were originally placed.

Rubin discusses in some detail how he personally used this technique to recall a long series of items. In his university classes, he would ask each student, in classes averaging about 40 students, to tell him the name of an item that could be bought in a supermarket. Applying the loci technique, Rubin could easily remember all of the terms in the order given. He would then explain the loci idea to the students and have them use it to memorize 40 images that he would show on slides. The results were impressive: “Even though they made no effort to learn the items, just having the interactive images described to them is sufficient to allow them to average (recall) about 37 items correct out of 40.... The power of the method of loci and its reliance on imagery reported in this anecdote have been demonstrated under more controlled conditions. The method works with stories, especially when presented orally” (p. 48). It has also been shown to work with the learning of vocabulary of a foreign language. On a personal note, I have used the loci method, with good results, to teach vocabulary and parts of grammar, particularly prepositions, to Korean and Japanese students (see Gray, 1997a,b).

This book presents quite a few methods that would be advantageous for ESL teachers to consider using or at least experimenting with in class. The best way to do this is to read the key sections in this book and to also pick up any recent standard cognitive psychology textbook, check the memory section, and pick out some mnemonics that you find interesting or relevant to your class, construct a lesson plan around it, and try it. The students will find it interesting, different, and fun, and it will show them that they have some control over the vast number of facts that they need to internalize in order to learn a language.

The Reviewer

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Learner Dictionaries for the Millennium

Collins Cobuild English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (3rd ed.)

John Sinclair (Ed.).

Glasgow: HarperCollins Publishers, 2001.

*Pp. xlvii + 1824 (ISBN 0-00-710201-1 Cased Paperback),
245x170mm.*

Longman Advanced American Dictionary

Essex: Pearson Education Limited, 2000.

*Pp. xxiii + 1746 (ISBN 0-582-31729-0 Cased Plastic Cover),
240x160mm.*

Reviewed by David E. Shaffer

The advent of the new millennium has been a very propitious time for English language learners in that it has brought with it the publication of a number of new dictionaries by the major ELT publishers. The year 2000 began with the appearance of the *Cambridge Dictionary of American English* and the much-revised sixth edition of *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* [OALD6]. Later in the year, the *Longman Advanced American Dictionary* [LAAD] appeared on bookstore shelves. Before the spring of 2001 could begin, the *Cambridge Learner's Dictionary* was out, and as summer was beginning, the *Collins Cobuild English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* [CCED] was released.

Three major advanced learner dictionaries have appeared in just a little over one year – a tremendous boon to English learners. The two most recent of these – LAAD and CCED – will be discussed here, as a review of OALD6 (Shaffer, 2000) has already been made. Wright (1998) states that “each [learner's] dictionary is different and it is important...to find out what is in it, what it means, and how to use that information” (p. 10). The aim here is to delineate their differences as well as their similarities.

In choosing a dictionary, it is important to consider how well it explains what words mean. The single most frequent use of dictionaries by language learners is to look up the meaning of words (Alan Maley, in Wright, 1998). It is also important to consider how well the dictionary explains how to use words and phrases in sentences and how practical the dictionary is to use in finding the meaning and usage of those words.

The Meaning

LAAD gives the meanings of 84,000 words and phrases while the slightly larger CCED defines 110,000. To define all these words, CCED uses 2,500 words, and LAAD does it with a mere 2,000. From these figures it would appear that LAAD would be accessible to a slightly lower level of advanced learner, but this is not actually so. CCED presents all definitions in sentence form, instead of the traditional phrase form most often followed by LAAD, making the CCED definitions comparatively easy to understand. Compare these examples of the definition of the verb *clout*:

CCED: **clout**. If you **clout** someone, you hit them. (p. 275)

LAAD: **clout**. to hit someone or something hard. (p. 253)

Words with more than one meaning are arranged in both dictionaries from most common to least common meaning, but in slightly different ways. LAAD elects to list lexically related noun and verb forms, for example, as separate headwords, noun preceding verb, with the most common meaning in each category appearing first. CCED lists noun and verb forms under the same headword with the most common meaning, whether it be of a noun or a verb, coming first. Finding the proper definition in CCED, therefore, is usually quite easy – in most cases it will be near or at the top of the list. In CCED these meaning splits are merely numbered, but partially because the most common two or three meanings may occur under different headwords in LAAD, signposts are there employed to aid in finding the appropriate definition. These signposts, which are words or phrases at the beginning of the definition, highlighted in black, and related to the detailed definition that follows, make finding the definition relevant as easy as, and often easier than, in CCED.

Being an American English dictionary, LAAD is limited to words and definitions used in American English only. This may be sufficient for ESL learners living in American English-speaking areas. The fact, however, is that most English learners are not situated in American English-speaking parts of the world. These learners are regularly exposed to both British and American varieties of English, and for them, CCED, which contains both British and American words, definitions, and pronunciations, is a more logical dictionary choice.

The Usage

It is in the area of word usage that a monolingual learner's dictionary often differs most from a standard monolingual one. A standard dictionary usually lists the headword's part of speech, irregular forms, particles the headword may be used with, and some example phrases or sentences. In addition to this, LAAD labels nouns as countable or uncountable and employs Usage Note boxes, which contain

information on grammar, spelling, and more often, word choice. Though useful, these Usage Boxes average less than one headword box for every five pages. LAAD also contains, highlighted in gray, mainly spoken phrases that a headword occurs in, but these spoken-phrases boxes are even less common than the Usage Note boxes.

In contrast, the usage section of CCED is the most extensive of any learner dictionary available. To accommodate this information, a unique “grammar column” runs down the page to the right of each of the two main columns that each page is divided into. About one-fourth the width of the main column, this grammar column contains a wealth of usage information. The grammar information given is of three types; the first being word class. There are 74 classes that a headword can be classified as. For example: **ADJ-GRADED** (graded adjective) and **N-COUNT-COLL** (collective count noun). It may take some time to familiarize yourself with these abbreviations, but the time spent is well worth the while. Grammar information in the grammar column also includes restrictions or extensions of the headword’s behavior, such as the word being usually used in the passive or with no determiner, and patterns that the word commonly occurs in, e.g., **N of n**, and **ADV with v**.

The Collins Cobuild series of learner dictionaries was the first to designate the usage frequency of words, and CCED continues to supply this information by employing a band of five diamonds with one to five diamonds blackened in, depending on the frequency of use – five blackened diamonds indicating highest frequency of use. This provides very useful and perspicuous information to the language learner. Frequency bands are provided for the words making up 95% of all spoken and written English. The LAAD attempt at indicating word frequency is more feeble. Frequency information occurs for only about two or three words per page. When it does appear, it is given for spoken or written frequency or both with a 1, 2, or 3 appearing in the appropriate box to indicate whether the word is one of the most frequent 1000, 2000 or 3000 words, respectively, used in spoken and/or written English.

Much attention is given to collocation of headwords in both CCED and LAAD, although they have chosen different methods of presenting this information. CCED presents typical collocates of words inconspicuously in its definitional statements and in example sentences, while LAAD presents theirs in only example sentences and phrases but in bold font. Below are examples of the collocate *suicide* for the headword *commit* from the two dictionaries:

CCED: 2. If someone **commits** suicide, they deliberately kill themselves. /

There are unconfirmed reports he tried to commit suicide. (p. 296)

LAAD: 1. To do something wrong or illegal: . . . / *Isaacs denied trying to help his brother **commit suicide** (=kill himself deliberately).* (p. 274)

Obtaining data for collocates, definitional material, and example sentences and analyzing word usage in general has become much easier and more precise in recent

years with the compilation on corpora. Both CCED and LAAD are supported by corpora of considerable size and scope. Collins Cobuild is a pioneer in this area with the Bank of English corpus, whose collection began in 1980 and has now grown to more than 415 million words. Longman has also built up a considerable corpus, the Longman Corpus Network, consisting of over 235 million words in British and American English corpora. LAAD is based on the written and spoken American English corpora of 100 and 5 million words, respectively.

Neither the cover nor title of CCED would lead one to realize it, but this dictionary is basically a revised edition of the well-received Collins Cobuild English Dictionary (Sinclair, 1995). To form the latest edition of CCED, new words and meanings have been added and other definitions updated, based on the ever-increasing Bank of English corpus. Additional usage information has been added in the form of boxed and highlighted usage notes. LAAD is patterned after the *Longman Dictionary of American English* (1997) for intermediate to high-intermediate learners. However, it has been expanded by 70% to produce Longman's first advanced learner American English dictionary.

The Package

Both CCED and LAAD may be obtained in hardback or paperback editions, and LAAD is also available in plastic cover. Though the soft plastic book cover is very practical in that it is durable and waterproof, it takes time for it to return to its former shape after being bent when in use, and it also has a somewhat tacky appearance. The relatively thin paper cover of CCED is furnished with a transparent vinyl jacket, but because it is so loose fitting, the dictionary becomes somewhat awkward to handle and difficult to insert into its cardboard case.

More serious than its cover shortcomings is the readability difficulty of CCED due to paper thickness and font size. The font size of the general text of entries is slightly smaller than that of LAAD. If the pages were made of thicker paper, it probably would not be so difficult to read, but this small font is on paper so thin that the print of the reverse side of the page and of the following page can both be seen through the paper, making reading a tedious exercise. In this respect, the second edition of the *Collins Cobuild English Dictionary* was noticeably more user-friendly. In contrast to the third edition, LAAD uses a larger font size on thicker paper that is visually pleasing and easy to read.

Because of their size and weight, both CCED and LAAD serve best as desk dictionaries. Many students would be discouraged from carrying them to and from school everyday, although they would be very useful there, too. To remedy this inconvenience, CCED is also available in CD-ROM format. The CD contains everything in the dictionary plus much more – 67,000 audio pronunciations of headwords and

phrases, a 5-million word corpus of authentic text, a thesaurus, and two of Collins Cobuild's English grammar and usage books. This audio pronunciation feature is invaluable to EFL learners such as Koreans, who have few opportunities to hear clear native English pronunciation.

Both of these fine dictionaries have a lot more to offer the Korean language learner than even the best English-Korean dictionaries (Shaffer, 2001), owing to their preciseness, clearness of meaning, and updatedness. Both are well worth their cost and can be of great value to the intermediate and advanced English learner. However, if forced to select or recommend just one of the two, it would have to be CCED mainly because of all the information contained in its grammar column, its easy-to-understand sentence-form definitions, and the availability of a CD including audio pronunciation. LAAD has no such CD-ROM format at present, but it would not be surprising if one became available in the not-so-distant future to supplement it with the voice feature. CCED and LAAD, the new millennium's two newest advanced learner dictionaries, are both worthy additions to the reference library on any intermediate to advanced English language learner, and the ESOL teacher as well.

The Reviewer

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Tense Buster 2001

Clarity Language Consultants Ltd., 2000.

Reviewed by David B. Kent

Tense Buster 2001 is designed to assist students in mastering grammar concepts through a sequence of specifically tailored presentation, reinforcement, practice, and application units. It is available in a variety of levels to suit a broad range of learners, at any language proficiency, from middle school age onwards.

Units and Levels

Initially, an introductory point is provided for each section of each unit, where students are shown the language focus, with highlighted examples of target-structures, and grammar functions. This is presented in context within articles, dialogues, explanations, letters, or stories. Using such a range of material reduces boredom for the learners and allows for real-life presentation of grammar points. For practice, and initial target-structure use, learners can open the integrated “scratch pad” to write replies, for example, to type letters that can be printed for correction.

The next stage of the program focuses on specifics of a grammar point and provides a screen full of text detailing various examples and explanations of the rule. This is a great idea for refreshing the memory of learners with the basics of the grammar they are studying. Unfortunately, there is no option for users to hear these “grammar rule” texts, and aside from offering reading practice this may prove a tiresome task, as reading a lot of text on a computer screen for an extended period can lead to weariness.

The third stage, or grammar section of each unit, contains two to four practice activities with interactive feedback provided. This is an excellent feature of the software that shows students a list of missed and incorrect answers along with misunderstood grammar points. A variety of native-speaker accents are presented for listening here, allowing students a means to fine-tune their listening comprehension skills. For Korean learners this may prove as invaluable as learning the grammar items found in the language activities. There is also an option for turning on and off the sound, which is handy for learners when they are by themselves to practice drill auditory material or when working together in self-access centers, where students could pair up to practice dialogues aloud. However, for language laboratory use the software would require introduction in class so that full use of the program for self-study purposes could be achieved.

The final phase of each unit is testing, with focus upon aspects of material presented in practice. In test sections, options to view grammar rules are not available, so students cannot “cheat” by reviewing rules while being tested. However, students can work around this by cutting and pasting rules into the “scratch pad” and viewing them from there. The types of exercises in the testing section reflect those used in practice, which include drag and drop, proof reading, and free practice as well as target spotting, multiple choice, true or false, text, and cloze exercises.

As an adjunct to each unit, various learner strategies are provided to aid in retention of material. Further, an “On Your Own” section provides language-learning tips for learners to put into practice when they are away from the computer. Superb print functionality is also provided, allowing printing of activity grammar rules, reading texts, answer feedback, and exercise answers. Students can also access a complete vocabulary section to review keywords found throughout the program. This section contains hyperlinks that students can click to hear terms pronounced. Unfortunately, some links do not function, or provide more auditory information than displayed on screen. Text throughout the program also contains colored hypertext that, upon clicking, provides grammatical explanations of how and why terms are used. Although an excellent idea, a very small amount of this hypertext contains punctuation errors. Aside from these two minor “bugs,” material is of excellent quality and practicality with language content of exercises and their basic design matching learner levels.

Keeping Track

Users can view and print detailed reports listing activities completed, scores achieved, start times, and length of time spent on completing each component. A progress graph allows users to see their position, in terms of the average score of all exercises undertaken, in relation to those of other users. This may prove to be a disincentive for weak learners, but for the majority of students and teachers this information is invaluable. A further feature of the tracking system allows teachers to access student scores for comparison or grading purposes and export them to separate record-keeping systems.

Customization

Like other Clarity software programs, such as *MindGames* and *Read It!, Tense Buster 2001* comes with an “Authoring Kit” which allows users to tailor exercises to individual learning or teaching needs. To accompany each question a user designs, there is functionality for incorporating feedback, sentence customization, and graphic and sound file integration. However, the authoring tool only allows users to create activities along similar lines to those pre-developed within the program.

Extending Shelf-Life

The www.tensebuster.com homepage is a rather innovative use of the Internet for content delivery and offers registered users a means from which to exchange or download activities. In addition to free add-on activities, upgrades and patches are available along with clipart and sound files. At the time of review, however, only a limited amount of material was available for download. This may change as more users purchase the product; still a broad user base already exists.

Membership to the Internet site is required, although one year's membership is free with the purchase of a single license for the software. This is good news as the cost of a license for a single user is US\$74 per level, or all five levels for US\$296, and ongoing access to material to expand the product offsets this high initial cost. *Tense Buster 2001* offers much the same as other grammar products available like Exceller Software's *Focus on Grammar Series*, and Merit Software's *Diagnostic Prescriptive Grammar* and *Grammar Fitness*, although at a slightly lower cost for individuals and with the means to author and exchange activities and therefore extend product functionality. It is also important for any grammar software package to offer "something extra" as this one does, since most of the material presented in the programs can be found in any good grammar activity book, such as Raymond Murphy's *Essential Grammar* series or Leo Jones' *Communicative Grammar Practice*. It is also such books that many students already own, or could review free in a library.

Software Background

Tense Buster 2001 is a major multimedia update to the Tense Buster software suite, which has been adopted for use in secondary schools and schools of further education as well as by government agencies around the globe. This software has been sold in over 90 countries and has more than 250,000 registered users.

Minimum Operating System Requirements

Windows 95/98/2000/NT/ME operating systems with at least a 486 processor, CD-ROM and sound card, display resolution: 256 colors or more, screen size: 800x600 or higher, hard disk space: 15mb-40mb per level (depending on install options selected). Fully network compatible.

The Reviewer

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