



# AETK NEWS



Newsletter of the Association of English Teachers in Korea

Vol. 5, No. 5

*For teachers of English with an international perspective*

May 1987

The Association of English Teachers in Korea  
invites you to attend the

## **AETK SPRING CONFERENCE '87**

*featuring presentations by Dale Griffee  
on music and drama in the language classroom  
and  
a variety of other events  
for professional language teachers  
in Korea*

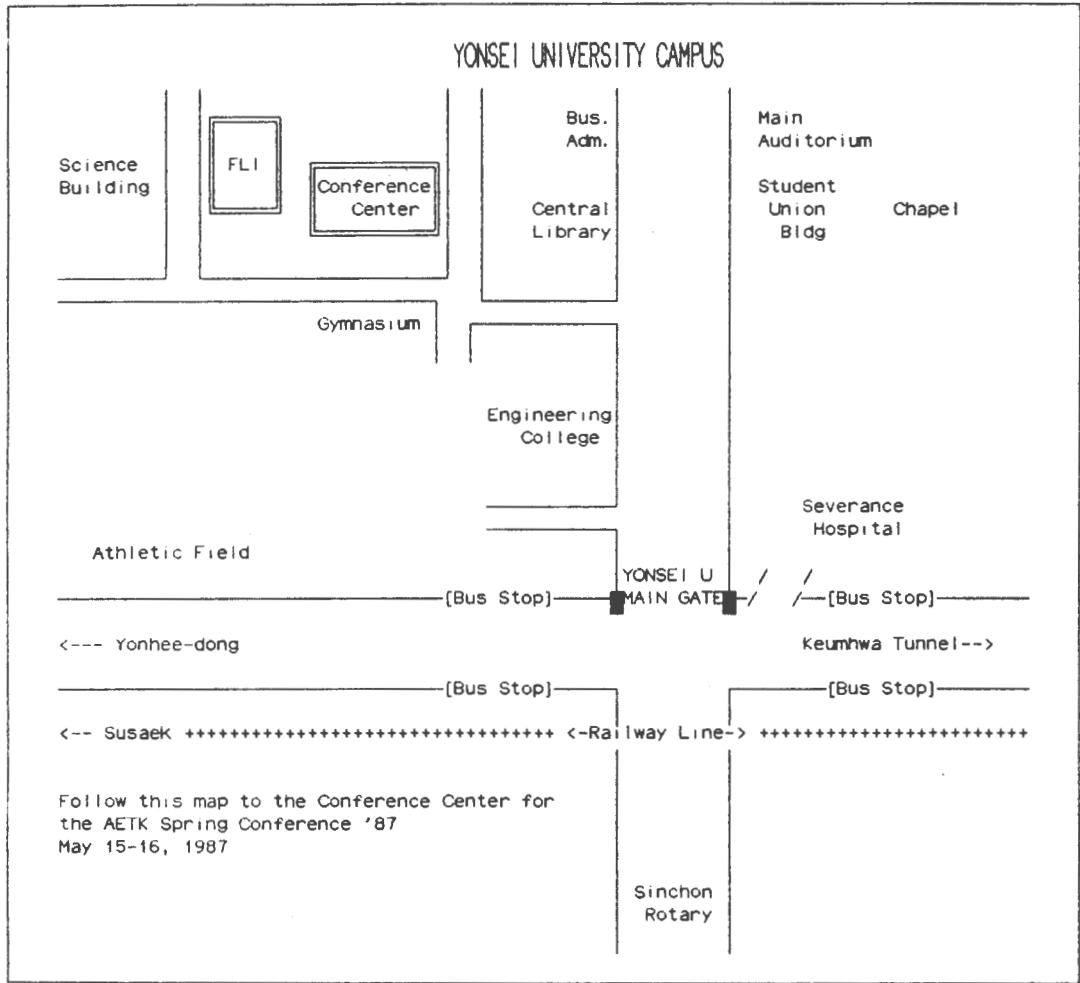
Friday and Saturday, May 15-16, 1987  
Yonsei University Conference Center  
(Next to the Foreign Language Institute; See Map, Page 2)

### **CONFERENCE PROGRAM:**

- Friday 7:00 PM Registration, refreshments  
*Opening Discussion with Dale Griffee*
- Saturday 9:00 AM Opening Plenary  
9:15 AM Workshop Presentation by Dale Griffee  
11:30 AM Lunch (*Meals available at nearby restaurants or bring your own*)  
12:30 PM Musical Event  
1:00 PM Panel Discussion  
*Error Correction--When, Why and How*
- 2:00 PM Concurrent Presentations  
*Foreign Teachers in Korean Schools*  
Im Sang Bin (University of Maryland, Asian Division)  
*Teaching Pronunciation*  
Rosemary Lovely (Hallym University)  
*Teaching Writing*  
Barbara Mintz (University of Maryland, Asian Division)  
*Picture Files in ESL*  
George Patterson (Pagoda Language Institute)
- 3:00 PM AETK Annual Business Meeting  
*TESOL Convention Report*  
*Election of Officers*  
*Other Business*
- 4:00 PM Presentation by Dale Griffee  
5:00 PM Closing Ceremony

Dale Griffee is author of *Listen and Act* (Lingual House, 1982) and co-author of *HearSay* (Addison-Wesley, 1986), and for the past several years has been involved in research on the use of music and songs in language classrooms. He lives in Japan and is a member of the Japan Association of Language Teachers (JALT).

*Conference registration: W15,000 (W10,000 for AETK Members)*



Featured in this issue of *AETK News*--

Andy Merzenich reports on practices recommended for correcting student writing (page 5)

Bob Wissmath relates Krashen's Affective Filter to classroom practice (page 15)

Margaret Elliott reviews David Kosofsky's *Common Problems in Korean English* (page 21)

Young Shik Lee comments on accuracy vs. fluency as a goal for language teaching (page 27)

## President's Message

Dear Colleagues,

As we look forward to the AETK Annual Business Meeting on May 16 and the election of new officers for the coming year, I would like to thank all AETK members for your continuing support and participation during the past year. Our membership is growing, and it appears that we can look forward to an even better year next year.

A special word of thanks goes to all those who presented programs at AETK meetings during the year and to George Matthews who, as our Vice President and Program Chair, made the program arrangements. With his untiring effort, George was able to bring in speakers who challenged us with new ideas and gave us much to think about as we look for ways of becoming better language teachers.

Some of those who made presentations at meetings earlier in the year will return for additional presentations during the AETK Spring Conference '87. Be sure to look for them then.

One of the highlights of the year, of course, was the visit in November by JoAnn Crandall, who came from Washington, DC as the representative of TESOL International. This was the first official visit by a TESOL representative since AETK became a TESOL affiliate several years ago.

Also in connection with our TESOL affiliation, William Burns of Sogang University was

the official AETK representative at the TESOL Affiliate Council meeting held on April 22 during the 1987 TESOL Convention in Miami, Florida. He will be at the AETK Spring Conference to give a brief report on the Convention.

The Spring Conference on May 15-16 will be our final "big event" of the year before the new Council members take office. I hope all of you will be there to participate in the discussions and contribute your ideas to make AETK an even better organization. Please note that the election of new officers will take place at the Conference, during the Business Meeting on Saturday afternoon. It is very important for you to attend this session, since the officers you elect will be guiding the Association during the coming year.

To help cover the costs of the Spring Conference, and in view of our declining resources, the Council felt it was necessary to request participants to pay a registration fee. I trust this will not discourage any of you from attending, and look forward to seeing you at the opening session on Friday, May 16.

Sincerely,

Dwight J. Strawn

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## TESOL Newsletter Introductory Offer

Learn about TESOL by reading the *TESOL Newsletter*

Members of AETK can subscribe to the *TESOL Newsletter* for one year (6 issues) at the reduced rate of US\$5.00 plus postage. The *TESOL Newsletter* contains articles about language teaching, book reviews, job notices, and much more information of interest to ESL/EFL professionals. To take advantage of the offer, send this form with your payment to: Susan Bayley, TESOL, Suite 205, 1118 22nd Street NW, Washington, DC 20037, USA. You must use this form to indicate that you are a member of AETK. Payment must be in the form of an International Postal Money Order or a check drawn on a US bank.

I am a member of AETK. Please send me the *TESOL Newsletter* for one year at the special introductory rate of US\$5.00 plus postage as follows (check one).

- Surface Mail (US\$4.00 postage)
- US\$9.00 enclosed
- Air Mail (US\$11.00 postage)
- US\$16.00 enclosed

Name.....

Address.....

City..... Province..... Postal Code.....

Country.....

## 1987 TESOL Affiliate Meetings--

- May 2 *Colorado TESOL*, Denver, Colorado, USA  
Contact: Howard Morarie, Holly Ridge Center, 3301 South Monaco, Denver, CO 80222, USA
- 2 *Minnesota TESOL*, Hamline University, St. Paul, Minnesota, USA  
Contact: Elaine Matyi, ELS Language Center, 1536 Hewitt, St. Paul, MN 55104, USA
- 7- 8 *New Jersey TESOL/BE, Inc.*, Union, New Jersey, USA  
Contact: Nancy Olivetti, 312 Grand Avenue, Palisades Park, NJ 07650, USA
- 7- 9 *Associacao Portuguesa de Profesores de Ingles (APPI)*, Lisbon, PORTUGAL  
Contact: Maria Manuel Calvet Ricardo, Rua Viriato 73, S. Joao D. Estoril, 2765 Estoril, PORTUGAL
- 8-10 *TESOL Spain*, Hotel Palafox, Zaragoza, SPAIN  
Contact: Helen Watley-Ames, Via Augusta 123, 08006 Barcelona, SPAIN
- 15-17 *TESOL Portugal*  
Contact: Desmond Rome, Av. Manuel Maia 46.1, 1000 Lisboa, PORTUGAL
- 29-31 *Venezuela TESOL*, Caracas Hilton, Caracas, VENEZUELA  
Contact: Maria C. de Los Rios & Tammy Davis, Apartado 61931, Chacao, Caracas 1060, VENEZUELA
- Jun 10-13 *SPEAQ Conference*, Sheraton Center, Montreal, Quebec, CANADA  
Contact: Louise Gascon, 8330 Chambery, Charlesbourg, Quebec, CANADA G1G 2X4
- Jul 6-31 *TESOL/IATEFL Barcelona Summer Institute*, Barcelona, SPAIN  
Contact: Patrick Mills, Institute Directo ESADE Idiomas, Avda. de Petralbes, 60/62, 08034 Barcelona, SPAIN
- 14-16 *NJTESOL Summer Institute*, Kean College, New Jersey, USA  
Contact: Ana Maria Schuhman, 6 Deer Path, Holmdel, NJ, USA
- Oct 8-10 *Tri-TESOL Regional Conference*, Sea Tac Lion Inn, Seattle, Washington, USA  
Contact: Nancy Butler, 7210 First Street NW, Seattle, WA 98817, USA
- 16-17 *Ohio TESOL*, Otterbein College, Columbus, Ohio, USA  
Contact: Doug Ewing, A. L. I., University of Toledo, 2801 West Bancroft Street, Toledo, OH 43606, USA
- 16-19 *Mexico TESOL*, Monterrey, MEXICO  
Contact: Armando Gonzalez, 5 de Mayo 210 Pte., Monterrey, N.L. 64000, MEXICO
- 17 *Indiana TESOL*, Indianapolis, Indiana, USA  
Contact: Ulla Connor, 180 Sumac Drive, West Lafayette, IN, USA
- 22-25 *Third Southeast Regional Conference*, Nashville, Tennessee, USA  
Contact: Elinor Gregor, 921 South Wilson Boulevard, Nashville, TN 37215, USA
- *TESOL Scotland*, (Date and Site to be announced)  
Contact: David Watson, Balwearie High School, Kirkcaldy, Scotland KY1 1ER, UK
- Nov 12-14 *Fifth Rocky Mountain Regional Conference*, Stouffer Concourse Hotel, Denver, Colorado, USA
- 21-23 *JALT '87*, Meiji University, Tokyo, JAPAN  
Contact: JALT Central Office, c/o Kyoto English Center, Sumitomo Seimei Building, 8th Floor, Shijo Karasuma Nishi-iru, Shimogyo-ku 600, JAPAN [Tel 075-221-2376]

## Responding to Student Writing: RESEARCH and research<sup>1</sup>

by Andrew P. Merzenich

Behind how one responds to student writing is the idea that one is helping learners become more skillful writers. However one responds, for whatever reasons, the central question teachers as researchers ask is, "Does it help?" followed closely by "How do I know?"<sup>2</sup> The researcher in the teacher says at this point, "If you don't know, find out," and "If it doesn't help, don't do it."

Teachers are researchers. They're in the business of increasing awareness: their students' as well as their own. Every class every day is different, each student unique, so that this research is continual and inseparable from the act of teaching. Symbiosis. Teachers grow, teaching evolves.

A few teachers as researchers publish. This is then known as RESEARCH. Some RESEARCH is published research. Other RESEARCH is conducted out of the context of classrooms for reasons most likely empirical--disembodied research. How do RESEARCH and research relate to theory and practice? Theory can be seen as an even further decontextualization of empirical RESEARCH. Practice is seen here as the implementation or refutation of theory. Theory and practice are of no concern to the present study. Most of the RESEARCH presented herein is published research.

### PURPOSE

My purposes in this study are:

- (a) to increase self-awareness of the ways I respond to student writing,
- (b) to explore RESEARCH on the subject,
- (c) to explore research by asking teachers at the American English Institute (AEI) to complete a questionnaire,
- (d) to increase self-awareness in AEI teachers of the ways they respond to student writing,
- (e) to increase awareness in AEI teachers of colleagues' strategies in responding to student writing by providing them with copies of this study (including RESEARCH and research), and
- (f) to promote discussion.

### RESEARCH

If we are to help learners become skilled writers, if student writing is to improve, RESEARCH demands that we do the following:

- (a) Distinguish between editing and revising.
- (b) Postpone editing until the end of the writing process, until after a succession of drafts.
- (c) Return the job of editing to its rightful owners: the students.
- (d) Teach students to edit, to think critically, to make choices, to locate and correct errors.
- (e) Lead students through the "cycles of revision" with conferences, comments and peer response groups.
- (f) Minimize evaluation and grade as seldom as allowed, final drafts only, preferably representative writings selected by students themselves.

### Distinguish between editing and revising

Editing is defined as the process of attending to surface-level error: grammar, spelling and punctuation. Revision is a cyclic, recursive process whereby the writer re-sees, explores and discovers exactly what s/he wants to say and determines the form which best expresses intended meaning. Why distinguish between the two?

<sup>1</sup>This paper is a report of a project undertaken by the author in connection with his study at the University of Oregon. [Ed.]

<sup>2</sup>After "What am I going to have my students do today? What's it good for? How do I know?" (Postman & Weingartner, 1968, p. 193).

For generations most English teachers have given first priority to correct usage. They feel compelled to mark every error on every draft, constantly focusing the student's attention on grammar and spelling rather than on content and form. Most students, and all writers, disagree with this emphasis. Language should be used correctly but the final, careful editing cannot take place until the writer has discovered, by writing, what he has to say and how he wants to say it. (Murray, 1968, p. 105)

Skilled writers are not primarily concerned with correctness and do not edit their writing until the final stages of the composing process (Zamel, 1985, 1983; Flower and Hayes, 1981; Pianko, 1979). In her protocol study with advanced ESL students, Zamel (1983, p. 175) found that skilled writers "were aware that they could return to these matters, that the exploration of their ideas was of primary importance." They speak for themselves:

I know I may not have the vocabulary but I need to put my thoughts on paper first. I know I'll have grammar mistakes but I don't worry about it till later... If I worry about grammar, my thoughts will disappear.

I need lots of time to go back because I can't write and correct at the same time. (Zamel, 1983, p. 178; see also Irmscher, 1979, p. 107)

This RESEARCH supports Berthoff's contention (1981, p. 22) that "We can usefully differentiate editing, which is aimed at the identification and correction of error, from revising, which is an integral part of the composing process."

When the two are confused, when teacher's comments are imposed on first or second drafts, students lose sight of what they want to say and focus on what the teacher wants them to do (Sommers, 1982, p. 150). This premature attention to surface-level errors by teachers not only is not helpful (most all RESEARCH finds teacher correction has insignificant effects on student writing), but is in fact harmful; it actually retards writers (Mayher, Lester & Pradl, 1983, p. 45; Zamel, 1985, p. 81).

An alternative is offered by Brannon and Knoblauch (1982, p. 162), among others, who suggest that "if revision (not error) is the focus, the writer retains control, assuming responsibility to create a discourse that conveys the intended meanings in a way that enables a reader to perceive them." But despite all the RESEARCH, according to Zamel (1985, p. 84), the problem remains, since "error identification--the practice of searching for and calling attention to error--is still the most widely employed procedure for responding to ESL writing."

#### Editing: when, who, how

It is clear from the above RESEARCH that editing should take place near the end of the writing process, after writers have found what they mean and how best to say it through several revisions. The final draft is the place to edit. But who's to do it, and how?

In his discussion of Piaget's theories of learning, Labinowicz (1980, pp. 53-55) describes the naturalness of error in the learning process. Piaget (1973, p. 21) points out the necessity of error to understanding. But what are errors good for? What's their value to teachers? To students?

"Very often a child's errors are valuable clues to his thinking." (Piaget and Duckworth, 1973, pp. 22-27) Errors in composition are

evidence of intention...of choice or strategy among a range of possible choices or strategies... They are not a simple record of what a writer failed to do because of incompetence or indifference... Consequently, we cannot identify errors without identifying them in context, and the context is not the text, but the activity of composing that presented the erroneous form as a possible solution to the problem of making a meaningful statement. (Bartholomae, 1980, pp. 255-257)

When we fail to recognize the value of errors, says Shaughnessy (1975, p. 5), we lose "the key to [students'] development as writers." And the value of error to learners? Errors are:

indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn. It is the way the learner has of testing his hypotheses about the nature of the language he is learning. (Corder, 1967, p. 167)

the essential learning instrument... Inevitably, the child who is afraid to make mistakes is a retarded learner, no matter what the activity in question... I think any learning psychologist would agree that avoiding error is an inferior learning strategy to capitalizing on error. (Moffett, 1968, p. 199)

So errors are valuable to teachers as windows on learners' thinking, and valuable to learners as "the essential learning instrument." But lest we misinterpret our role as teachers at this critical juncture, RESEARCH is most explicit. A sampling:

The more a child uses his sense of consistency, of things fitting together and making sense, to find and correct his own mistakes, the more he will feel that his way of using his mind works, and the better he will get at it. He will feel more and more that he CAN figure out for himself, at least much of the time, which answers make sense and which do not. But if, as usually happens, we point out all his mistakes as soon as he makes them, and even worse, correct them for him, his self-checking and self-correcting skill will not develop, but will die out. He will cease to feel that he has it, or ever had it, or ever could have it. (Holt, 1967, p. 95)

When looking through a pupil's composition, never make any remarks to him about the cleanliness of the copy-book, nor about penmanship, nor orthography, nor, above all, about the structure of the sentences and about logic. (Tolstoy, 1967, p. 223)

[Students need to learn editing], not the abstract understanding of a mistake someone else has discovered, but the detection and correction of errors on one's own. (Haswell, 1983, p. 601)

Editing is student work. Students will only learn editing by learning techniques of identifying errors (Berthoff, 1981, p. 81). A teacher identifying errors is not teaching students to identify errors. Students learn to identify errors by attempting to identify errors. "What students do in the classroom is what they learn (as Dewey would say)." (Postman & Wein-gartner, 1968, p. 19) How can we help students learn strategies for editing? The most often recommended means is to have students work in small peer groups (Murray, 1968, 1982; Moffett, 1968; Brumfit, 1980; Mayher, Lester & Pradl, 1982).

By attempting to help others, [students] will develop the vital ability to edit, to diagnose and solve writing problems. As they develop this ability on other papers they will begin to develop it on their own. (Murray, 1968, p. 131)

Brumfit makes exactly the same claim for second language learners (1980, p. 10). Both Brumfit and Haswell (1983) discuss the place of minimal marking in helping students learn to edit. Specific peer response group techniques used in large ESL classes in Africa are discussed in Chimombo (1986). Lamberg (1980) cites several studies which demonstrate the positive effects of peer feedback.

#### Revision: how to help.

"I can't understand how anyone can write without rewriting everything over and over again." - Tolstoy (Murray, 1968, p. 244)

Revising is a cyclic process. Students can be led through these "cycles of revision" (Butturff & Sommers, 1980, p. 103) with one-on-one conferences, peer response group collaborations, and written comments. Reader responses can help provide the perspective necessary for revising or "re-vision" (Mayher, Lester & Pradl, 1983, p. 43). But, as Brannon and Knoblauch (1982, p. 163) point out, "attitudes are more important than method."

*Teacher comments.* Most RESEARCHers define good writing as that which fulfills the intention of the writer. By reflecting back to the writer what effect his/her writing has had on us, what sense we've made of it, we can

...attract a writer's attention to the relationship between intention and effect, enabling a recognition of discrepancies between them, even suggesting ways to eliminate the discrepancies, but finally leaving decisions about alternative choices to the writer, not the teacher. (Brannon & Knoblauch, 1982, p. 162)

And teachers need to take care that comments do not become "blueprints" for students to follow, and thereby "produce a better revised paper without producing a better writer." (Lees, 1979, p. 372)

*Peer response groups.* The same benefits derived from having students edit their own and each others' writing can be gained by having students work in peer response groups during the revising process as well. Murray (1968) and Mayher, Lester and Pradl (1983) discuss at length ways in which these collaborative response groups can work.

*Conferences.* The value of one-on-one conferences is generally appreciated. A thoughtful discussion of conferences and their place in writing processes can be found in a remarkable article by Donald M. Murray, in which he states:

I tell my students that I'm going to do as little as possible to interfere with their learning. It is their job to read the text, to evaluate it, to decide how it can be improved so that they will be able to write when I am not there... I will always attempt to underteach so that they can overlearn... In practice, the effective conference teacher does not deal in praise or criticism. All texts can be improved, and the instructor discusses with the student (in short, frequent conferences) what is working and can be made to work better, and what isn't working and how it might be made to work. (Murray, 1982, pp. 143-146)

### Evaluating

When evaluating student writing it is important to be positive, but we need to distinguish between being positive and praising. Murray (1978) speaks of students being caught in a "prison of praise". Labinowicz (1980, pp. 233-235) speaks of the negative effects of "manipulative praise". And Postman and Weingartner further warn that

Positive judgements, perhaps surprisingly, can also produce undesirable results. For example, if a learner becomes totally dependent upon the positive judgements of an authority (teacher) for both motivation and reward, what you have is an intellectual paraplegic incapable of any independent activity, intellectual or otherwise. (1968, p. 198)

Student writers must learn to become their own judges (Allen, 1982, p. 19; Murray, 1968, p. 138). Making quality judgements for themselves is what teaches students to write, says Pirsig (1974, p. 203).

Those who do not evaluate their own writing do not gain from having written... the three self-evaluating criteria--whether the piece fulfills the writer's intention, whether the writer had learned from the writing, whether readers had liked the piece--so clearly connect to descriptions of the composing process that encouraging self-evaluation after writing appears as important as requiring planning and observation at the outset. (Miller, 1982, p. 181)

And what of grades? The teacher's final response to student writing? Grades may "cover up failure to teach" (Pirsig, 1974, p. 194), they may be an unnecessary evil (Butler, 1980, p.272), but most teachers will be called upon to assign grades to student performance at least sometimes. James Britton (Mayher, Lester & Pradl, 1983, p. 123) suggests doing it "as little as possible." Mayher, Lester and Pradl (1983, p. 142) suggest incorporating student self-evaluation into the grading process by having students select work (for evaluation by the



teacher) that best represents their abilities. This selection process encourages collaboration among students and helps them develop their "standards of good writing."

FROM RESEARCH TO research

### Procedures

The writer distributed a questionnaire to eighteen teachers at the American English Institute (AEI) on the campus of the University of Oregon (see Appendix). The questionnaire was not intended to be a full-fledged and valid instrument of empirical study in the RESEARCH tradition. Rather, it was intended simply:

- (a) to increase my awareness of possible types of response and combinations of responses-- both in reviewing RESEARCH to write the questionnaire and in studying the completed questionnaires of teachers (researchers),
- (b) to increase teachers' awareness of how they respond to student writing, and, by providing copies of the results of this study to respondents at AEI,
- (c) to increase teachers' awareness of colleagues' strategies in responding to student writing, and to promote discussion.

The questionnaire is of course "loaded", full of "ambiguity" and "hard to answer", as noted by respondents--exactly that which invites reflection and promotes discussion. There were seven respondents. Data was tabulated for simple discussion and no statistical claims are made.

### Results

Language teachers are often represented, by themselves and others, as humble practitioners, essentially practical people concerned with basic classroom tactics and impatient of theory. Such a representation is unnecessarily demeaning. Of course the teacher is concerned with practical results, but his practice is based on theoretical notions, no matter how inexplicit they may be... I think it is important to recognize that language teaching is a theoretical as well as a practical occupation. Teaching techniques and materials must ultimately be related to underlying principles. (Widdowson, 1978, p. 163)

*Biographical data.* Respondents all have Masters degrees in either TESL or Applied Linguistics and experience in teaching ESL ranging from one and a quarter years to twenty-two years. When asked if they felt they had received the proper training to teach writing, all responded positively (marking either 'yes' or 'somewhat'). They attribute their preparedness to either experience, or to a combination of experience and courses. One respondent also noted colleagues' contributions to his/her preparedness. Most respondents did not indicate class level they were responding in reference to. Two respondents did not complete Part I of the questionnaire.

*Self-reports on frequency of response type.* Type of response most often used is adjectives like "GOOD!" All respondents grade student writing and have one-on-one discussions at least sometimes. And while most use peer group response, one seldom does and another never does. Other common methods of response are marking errors with some kind of editing code, and providing corrections.

A rarely used response is a marginal "X" to simply indicate an error in the line or sentence. Four respondents never use this, and another uses it seldom.

The least employed means of response is "NO RESPONSE", with one respondent going so far as to note that "No teacher in their right mind would [say] that no response is given to students." By this criterion, respondent D is not in his/her right mind; s/he considers "NO RESPONSE" an appropriate response sometimes.

Of note is the range of frequency for some types of response. What is seldom or never used by one person is used by another very often. This broad range is seen in the following types of response: simply underlining errors (without correction or editing code), text-specific questions about content, and peer group response.

A variety of types of response are used on all drafts. Peer group response, one-on-one discussion and text-specific directive comments are the most common ways of responding to

prewriting. Virtually all types of response are used on first drafts. Grades, adjectives like "GOOD!", and one-on-one discussion are the most often used responses to final drafts.

All respondents report spending more than four hours a week responding to student writing.

*Statements from RESEARCH: agree or disagree.* Most respondents do not believe that every student paper needs to be corrected by the teacher, nor do they think that all writing should be corrected by the students themselves. There is general agreement that teachers should not wait until students request help before supplying any. Respondents agree most strongly with the following statements:

Teachers should not try to prevent learners from making errors. (#5)

By heavily editing a student's paper, a teacher is in a real sense appropriating the student's primary job. (#7)

What the writer needs most to know is what sense the reader has made of what she's written. (#9)

Of particular interest are the comments five of the seven respondents wrote on this section of the questionnaire. A clear case of researchers in action. Some of their comments:

What do you mean by "corrected"?

It depends on the student and the task.

Research shows no, though it is a popular belief.

Does "each student paper" mean at each stage of the process?

One-to-one (it's unclear whether pair work or teacher-student conference is being referred to) is often better than groups.

...but sometimes it depends on which stage (1st draft, 2nd, etc.)

ALL -????

At lower levels students are reluctant, if not embarrassed to share their writing with a peer.

It depends on how the student perceives what is meant by "after the text has been completed".

Some students are afraid to ask.

In a bit of (unintended?) humor, one respondent wrote "unclear" by the following statement: "What the writer needs most to know is what sense the reader has made of what she's written. Respondents also had comments on Part III and the questionnaire in general:

You realize that this is a loaded questionnaire.

Some statements are fairly vague and need qualification.

Some of these don't apply so much to lower level writing.

The questionnaire is really hard to answer because many of the statements are loaded and/or ambiguous.

[Perhaps a change in format] would make it easier for teachers to respond more comfortably.

Too general to answer.

#### CONCLUSIONS

We as teachers can lead our students through processes of revision with conferences, comments and peer response groups; we can see to it that they do not edit until near the end of the writing process, and then we can see to it that they (not we) do; and we can save praise for our grandchildren, and grade writing as seldom as we dare. So says RESEARCH.

Teachers at the American English Institute respond to student writing in a variety of ways. "It depends," they say. A very good answer, it seems to me. Seven researchers in action.

Implications? . . . . . carry on.

#### THE AUTHOR

Andy Merzenich is a member of AETK who taught for a number of years at the Language Teaching Research Center in Seoul. He now lives in the United States and is studying at the University of Oregon.

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## APPENDIX

## RESPONDING TO STUDENT WRITING Questionnaire November 1986

Please respond in reference to the writing class you are presently teaching. If you are not presently teaching writing, please respond in reference to the class you most recently taught. Indicate level: 1 2 3 4 5 6

Part I. In 1980 the Center for Advanced Study in Education at the City University of New York surveyed 219 English writing instructors from throughout the United States. One result: Half of our respondents indicated flatly that they had not received "proper training"; only a fifth thought they had. (Bossone & Larson, 1980, p. 32)

Do you feel you received proper training to teach writing? [ ]Yes [ ]No [ ]Somewhat

What has prepared you to teach writing? [ ]Experience [ ]Courses [ ]Other: \_\_\_\_\_  
Undergraduate Major \_\_\_\_\_ Minor \_\_\_\_\_ M.A. in \_\_\_\_\_ Years experience teaching ESL \_\_\_\_\_

Part II. How often do your responses to student writing resemble the following?

	VERY OFTEN	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
1. He are hapy man. X					
2. He <u>are</u> hapy man.					
3. He <sup>ag sp</sup> <u>are</u> hapy man					
4. He <sup>is p</sup> <del>are</del> hapy man					
5. (Within a composition) He is poor, but, he are hapy man. <i>more details - develop this</i>					
6. (Within a composition) He is poor, but, he are hapy man. <i>Why is he poor? Why is he happy?</i>					
7. (Within a composition) He is poor, but, he are hapy man. <i>2 ideas here maybe 2 paragraphs one to explain why he's poor, one why happy</i>					
8. Adjectives like "GOOD!"					
9. Grades					
10. One-on-one discussion					
11. Peer group response					
12. Whole class response					
13. No response					

How many hours a week do you spend responding to student writing? [ ]0 [ ]1-2 [ ]3-4 [ ]4+

Which of the above (1-13) do you use to respond to the following: (as many as applicable)  
prewriting \_\_\_\_\_ first draft \_\_\_\_\_ 2nd draft \_\_\_\_\_ Final \_\_\_\_\_

## RESPONDING TO STUDENT WRITING Questionnaire November 1986 / Page 2

Part III. All the following statements come from writing research literature. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement.

	agree		disagree		
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Each student paper must be corrected by the teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Much correcting (of grammar and mechanics seems to me to fall into the same category as ironing Levi's: not exactly wrong but useless.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Noticing and praising whatever a student does well improves writing more than any kind or amount of correction of what the student does badly.	1	2	3	4	5
4. All written work by students should be corrected by the students themselves (working usually in groups, with the teacher overseeing the process).	1	2	3	4	5
5. Teachers should not try to prevent learners from making errors.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The amount of writing completed by a student is directly proportionate to the amount of writing a teacher has the time and inclination to read.	1	2	3	4	5
7. By heavily editing a student's paper, a teacher is in a real sense appropriating the student's primary job.	1	2	3	4	5
8. It is necessary for us to offer assistance to student writers when they are in the process of composing a text, rather than after the text has been completed.	1	2	3	4	5
9. What the writer needs most to know is what sense the reader has made of what she's written.	1	2	3	4	5
10. We should withhold help until it's requested.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The best mark is that which allows students to correct the most on their own with the least help.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Student achievement is enhanced by writing practice alone.	1	2	3	4	5
13. A teacher's main job is not to pass judgement on the quality of student writing, but to help the writer see what to do next.	1	2	3	4	5

## Putting the Affective Filter into Perspective:

The Place of the Affective Filter in Language Acquisition Theory  
and Some Ways a Language Teacher Might Exploit It

by Robert G. Wissmath

During the past decade many researchers and classroom practitioners in second language acquisition, language learning and language teaching have been looking more intently at the second-language learner (as opposed to the second language) to try to determine exactly what factors are involved in language learning other than the language itself. Whereas linguists in the forties and fifties viewed language as an entity all its own and viewed language learning as a process of developing unconscious habits, and the cognitivists of the sixties viewed language learning in terms of cognition and meaning, language acquisition researchers and language teachers of the seventies and eighties, aware that many language programs have had very low success rates and high attrition rates, have turned from the analysis of language to the characterization of the learner. Thus, a crop of "innovative approaches to language teaching" (see Blair, 1982) have appeared, many of which claim to have applied significant insights into language, second-language acquisition, language learning, or language teaching.

*The affective filter hypothesis.* Probably the most visible and sustained effort to relate research on second language acquisition to second-language teaching is that of Krashen and Terrell (1983, pp. 26-33), who posit five second-language acquisition hypotheses which are relevant to all ESL and foreign language teachers. The first is the "acquisition-learning hypothesis," which

claims that adults have two distinct ways of developing competence in second languages. The first way is via language acquisition, that is, by using language for real communication.... The second way...is by language learning..., "Knowing about" the language, or "formal knowledge" of a language. (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 26)

This hypothesis "claims that adults can still acquire second languages, that the ability to 'pick up' languages does not disappear at puberty...but is still with us as adults." (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 26) The second is the "natural order hypothesis," which "states that grammatical structures are acquired (not necessarily learned) in a predictable order." The third is the "monitor hypothesis," which "states that conscious learning has an extremely limited function in adult second language performance [and] can only be used as a Monitor, or an editor" (p. 30). The fourth is the "input hypothesis," which "states...that we acquire (not learn) language by understanding input that is a little beyond our current level of (acquired) competence" (p. 32). This hypothesis, if it is true, has great implications for the classroom language teacher, because it implies that people realize improvement in a language by listening to messages that they understand, and that "input need not be finely tuned." Krashen and Terrell even suggest that "it may be that all the teacher need do is make sure the students understand what is being said or what they are reading" (1983, p. 33). Finally, they posit the "affective filter hypothesis," which

states that attitudinal variables relating to success in second language acquisition generally relate directly to language acquisition, but not necessarily to language learning (1983, pp. 37-38).

This article is concerned with the affective filter hypothesis. Its purpose is (a) to describe the affective filter in terms of its relationship to two other internal processors (the "organizer" and the "monitor") and its effect on the learner's verbal performance (see Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982, p. 46); and (b) to present several ways in which attention to affective factors is incorporated in several language teaching techniques and approaches, and how such factors can be addressed in classroom language teaching.

What is the difference between the "monitor" and the "organizer"? Dulay, Burt & Krashen (1982, p. 54) define the organizer as "that part of the internal processing system that is responsible for the learner's gradual organization of the new language system." It functions subconsciously, but, unlike the affective filter, "is based on what psychologists call 'cogni-

tive' principles: analytical and logical criteria for the organization of knowledge and behavior." The organizer, they state, is similar to Chomsky's (1975) "language acquisition device." It incorporates and further refines what was referred to above as the "natural order hypothesis":

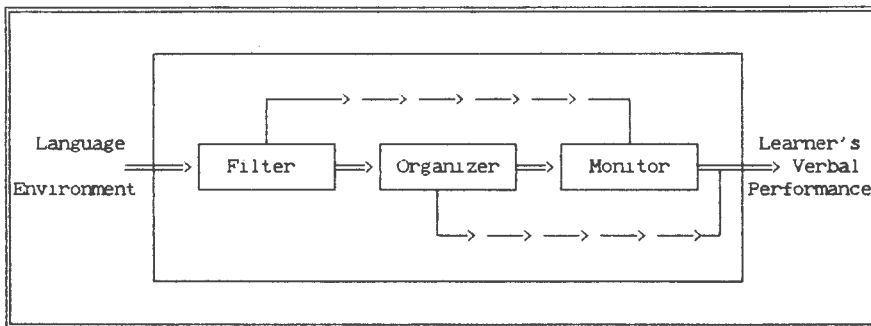
In examining the language that learners produce, researchers can see the functioning of the organizer reflected in three pervasive phenomena: (1) the systematic progression of changes in interim rules, or transitional constructions that learners use before a structure is finally acquired; (2) the errors that systematically occur in learner speech; and (3) the common order in which mature structures are learned. The relationship between these findings and the operation of the organizer [help to reveal] different facets of the operation of the internal principles that govern the acquisition of language (1982, p. 54).

Dulay, Burt and Krashen contend that, in the past, learning complexity has been confused with linguistic complexity, and that

the specification of principles governing learning complexity is probably one of the most important areas of theoretical research that remains to be undertaken. Describing such principles would describe the operation of the organizer. (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982, p. 58)

One visualization of the relationship between the filter, the organizer, and the monitor is replicated below in Figure 1, and another, in which the organizer is labeled "language acquisition device" is visualized in Figure 2.

**FIGURE 1**  
**The Functioning of Internal Processors**  
**in Second-Language Acquisition**

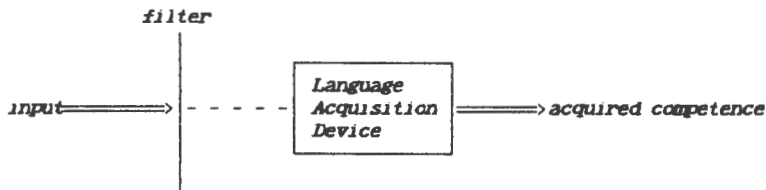


(Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982, p. 46)

Affective factors explain why some people learn languages well, while others learn them poorly. They explain why some people give up studying particular languages, why some fail to acquire languages even when placed in seemingly "optimum environments" for second language acquisition, and why others seem to proceed through the acquisition of a language seemingly effortlessly. Affective factors are idiosyncratic. They deal less with aptitude than attitude. Researchers such as Dulay, Burt, Krashen, Terrell and others seem to be suggesting that attitude is more important to language acquisition than aptitude. In addition, research is showing that a person's lifetime experiences, prejudices and circumstances all contribute to his or her readiness to acquire a language. Such researchers are suggesting that teachers in touch with



FIGURE 2  
The Operation of the "Affective Filter" in  
Second-Language Acquisition



*The affective filter acts to prevent input from being used for language acquisition. Acquirers with optimal attitudes...are hypothesized to have a low affective filter. Classrooms that encourage low filters are those that promote low anxiety among students, that keep students off the defensive.* (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 39)

their students' backgrounds and circumstances might be able to better facilitate those students' acquisition of a language than teachers who are experts in language only. It also implies that consideration of affective factors leading to second-language acquisition by the language teacher in the language classroom will be, perhaps, more important than mere presentation of subject matter in an orderly way. Some researchers (see Stevick, 1976) are saying that the syllabus should be determined by a hierarchy of affective considerations rather than by a hierarchy of linguistic items.

Those who accept the proposition that affective factors should take high priority would go about teaching the second language in particular ways. But the problem is that the affective factors that motivate learners to acquire a particular language are different for different individuals and for different categories of individuals, so the problem of incorporating affective considerations varies from method to method, teacher to teacher and from day to day. It varies according to purpose, as well. Thus, a variety of approaches, techniques and methods have evolved which account for affective factors in different ways. In the remainder of this article, we will look at some ways that affective factors are taken into account among several second-language approaches and techniques.

*Creating a positive climate.* First of all, the "natural approach" (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, pp. 59-60) consciously aims to bring the affective filter to as low a level as possible by "taking the student off the defensive" and by "lowering the anxiety level of the acquisition situation." This is done by (a) making no demand for early speech production; (b) allowing students individually to decide when they wish to begin speaking the target language; (c) rewarding positively any attempt at speaking; (d) not correcting errors directly; and (e) requiring that input be interesting to the students in order to promote a more relaxed classroom.

Suggestopedia (Lozanov, 1982) attempts to create a positive affective climate for language acquisition through manipulation of the physical environment (the classroom contains easy chairs and sofas); by playing classical music when material is presented; by focusing on topics that are positive and non-anxiety producing (abortion is out as a topic, as are murder, divorce and car crashes). "Suggestopedic texts are wholesome, high in cultural content, and attempt to bring out the 'creative, playful child' in each student." (Gold, 1985, p. 30) In addition, students are given written texts of material they are to learn, with the accompanying, side-by-side native language translation.

*Freedom in small groups.* Group work is another way of lowering the affective filter. Long and Porter (1985, pp. 207-208) argue that group work should be utilized in the language classroom because it creates the potential "for individualizing instruction, for creating a positive affective climate in the classroom and for increasing student motivation." In small groups, they suggest, "students can work on different sets of materials suited to their needs

[and] they can do so simultaneously, thereby *avoiding the risk of boring other students* who do not have the same problem..." They also note that in the teacher-controlled classroom there is an "audience effect," a perception that the listening teacher is a "judge," and a feeling on the part of students that they need to produce a "short, polished product," all of which "serve to inhibit 'exploratory' language," which is typically full of "pauses, hesitations, stumbling over new words, false starts, changes of direction, and expressions of doubt." The small-group situation allows, in other words, the students to "talk to learn," talking in a "way and for a purpose quite different from those which commonly characterize interaction in a full-class session."

In addition to the "audience effect" in the teacher-controlled classroom (as a promotor of high affective filters), exploratory talk is also inhibited when

relationships have been formalized until they approach ritual... This, too, will make it hard for anyone to think aloud. Some classrooms...become like this...when the teacher controls very thoroughly everything that is said. (Barnes, 1973, p. 19)

Long and Porter (1985, p. 212) argue that

freedom from the requirement for accuracy at all costs and entry into the richer and more accommodating set of relationships provided by small-group interaction promote a positive affective climate. This in turn allows for the development of the kind of personalized, creative talk for which most aural-oral classes are trying to prepare learners.

Finally, Long and Porter claim that group work motivates learners (motivation is part of the affective filter), and they cite studies by Littlejohn (1983, 1982) and Fitz-Gibbon and Reay (1982) that reported that learners

felt less inhibited and freer to speak and make mistakes in the small-group than in the teacher-led class, and that learners' attitudes toward the study of the target language may be significantly higher after completing a program in which group work is involved. (Long and Porter, 1985, p. 212)

*Attitudes and emotions.* Attitudes, motivation, emotional states, and social group identification all influence second-language acquisition (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982, p. 47). Stevick (1976) helps us to visualize in a concrete anecdotal way some of the types of attitudinal factors that either promote or inhibit different individuals' interaction in a second language.

...other things being equal, a person who sees herself or himself as the "strong silent type" will resist verbal interaction more than someone with an "outgoing, gregarious" self-concept... More important, though less obvious, is the fact that many other threats to a student's ego may result in a withdrawing type of defense mechanism. "I usually succeed at what I try" is threatened by materials that seem irrelevant, and "I'm eye-minded" by the withholding of written materials; "I'm a student, and students are supposed to be taught" reacts badly either to a poor teacher or to a good one who is less directive than expected; difficulties arise in a language classroom for those who have no patience with details, for those who must have something to conform to and also for those who bridle at the demands of any authority. (Stevick, 1976, pp. 61-62)

Stevick also notes that, though "there is no way to dissolve all of the frustrations and potential ego threats," he, as a classroom language teacher, has tried to reverse his priorities and has begun to give student attitudes "chronological priority":

This means that I no longer care how much of the language they learn during the first week. Although I do not tell them so, the linguistic material presented during that time is only a vehicle for getting acquainted and for *finding* and reducing

*anxieties*. During the remainder of the course the first question is "How are they learning?" and the second is "What are they learning?" It is now content, not morale, that I tend to ignore, unless it threatens to cause trouble. Needless to say, I still give much attention to content; what has changed is the focus. (1976, p. 62)

In essence here, Stevick is talking about breaking down affective barriers to classroom learning (and acquisition)--in other words, lowering the affective filter.

*Risktaking*. Related to Stevick's (1976, pp. 61-62) "strong, silent type" and "I'm a student and students are supposed to be taught" caricatures, is the concept of language class risktaking. Ely (1986) reports a study on first-year university Spanish students in which it was hypothesized that "language class risktaking and language class sociability increase classroom participation." Classroom participation was hypothesized to be a positive predictor of proficiency. Evidence was found to support the hypothesis that language class risktaking would be a positive predictor of students' voluntary classroom participation (the voluntary aspect being an indication of a lower affective filter). Ely (p. 23) noted that, while risktaking on the part of students was desirable and participation improves oral proficiency, some students "must be made to feel more psychologically comfortable and safe in their learning environment" before they are willing to take risks. Stevick's caricatures, then, needed to be made to feel more psychologically comfortable and safe in their learning environments before they would be willing to take the kinds of risks involved in learning and acquiring a second language.

Barbara Mintz (1985) puts risktaking and the psychological need for safety into a practical perspective. She says that "in order to learn, it's best to relax about that very human experience--making mistakes." She says that relaxation and making mistakes are two important factors for learning anything, especially a foreign language. Fear and panic, she notes, often overtake a student (or language acquirer), and impede the student from learning effectively. She implies that teachers should help their students to understand that everyone makes mistakes and that "making mistakes is part of life, part of risk taking." The good student has to be brave and confident enough to risk exposure to the possibility of making mistakes. The language learner, she says, also needs to take the attitude that mistakes are natural and that people learn from their mistakes. She suggests that "after making a mistake, a student should record and analyze the errors so that those particular ones aren't made again."

Mintz also says that "taking or creating opportunities to practice" outside the classroom is also an important ingredient in successful language acquisition. It is important to "have enough self-confidence to take risks... The more one practices having self-confidence, the more self-confidence one acquires." She also says that one thing students can do to practice is to "get a group together, rehearse a mini-drama in English, then perform it...before family and friends. Students will gain confidence from such an activity." Mintz also advises reading for fun (not study) and "free writing" as other ways in which language learners can gain confidence. "Free writing is an exercise in bypassing the 'editor' we all carry with us in our heads..." In other words, there is a connection between free writing and relaxation.

*Conclusion*. In summary, the affective filter as a theoretical construct is a continuum of affective factors that can either inhibit or promote second language acquisition. At the high end of the continuum are such inhibiting factors as "the audience effect," boredom, fear of making mistakes, resistance to unexpected teaching methods, fear of taking risks, and rituals in which the teacher controls everything that is said. Such factors create a high affective filter and are said to slow second language acquisition in some learner-acquirers. At the other end of the continuum are factors such as relaxation, positive attitude toward the language to be learned, self-confidence, willingness to take risks, receiving interesting input, low levels of anxiety, wholesome, non-controversial topics, and a classroom environment designed to make learners feel comfortable, all of which are claimed to promote language acquisition. We have seen how such factors are exploited in the natural approach and suggestopedia; we have seen how researchers have confirmed the effectiveness of lowering the affective filter through group work (Long & Porter, 1985) and through teacher design of the program (Stevick, 1976); and we have noted some of the things that students can do to exploit nonstressful language acquisition opportunities (Mintz, 1985).

In conclusion, perhaps a word of caution needs to be cited, because there may be a point at

which the affective filter becomes too low and might also inhibit learning and acquisition. According to Brown:

As teachers we should allow some of the anxiety and tension to remain in our classes lest our students become so "laid back" that they fail to perceive the input when it comes! (Brown, 1974, p. 278)

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Bob Wissmath is a member of AETK and a frequent contributor to the pages of *AETK News*. Formerly at Sogang University, Bob now lives in Sacramento, California, where he is both an English language teacher and a student of English language teaching.

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## REVIEWS--

### *Common Problems in Korean English*

by David Kosofsky.

Seoul: Foreign Language Limited, 1987. (402 pp. W7,500).

Reviewed by Margaret Elliott<sup>1</sup>

For more than three years I worked at Sogang Institute for English as an International Language with David Kosofsky while he was collecting materials for Common Problems. Many of the instructors at the Institute shared in his data collecting by noting the occurrence of problematic language in our classrooms, and reporting what we found to David. This sharing of process made us all very aware of frequent communication problems, and eager for David to complete the big task of analyzing, classifying and offering remedial advice.

As the early chapters were written, we used them in our classrooms, and reported the feedback to David. In this way we developed an interest in the progress of the book and awaited with pleasant anticipation the appearance of the final version with the changes in layout and content that would reflect the results of the testing process.

Kosofsky's book is designed to help the typical Korean student of English who, after six or perhaps as many as ten years of classroom study of English, in addition to independent study of one sort or another, has a good knowledge of the rules of grammar of the language but has considerable difficulty in communicating his ideas. This typical student has often acquired some language habits that at the least, sound awkward to the native speaker, and at the worst, interfere quite seriously with the exchange of information. Kosofsky invites students to use the book as they wish--for occasional reference, or for cover-to-cover study. He cautions teachers, however, that the book is not meant to replace a reference grammar, nor is it designed to be a classroom text.

Common Problems includes a section with instructions for teachers. The author is very concerned that teachers may over-react to the book, by focusing too much on the correction of problems, during class sessions, and interrupting communicative activities. Instead,

students should be given the correct page reference to enable them to study the problem at home. If the problem persists at a level where it continues to interfere with communication, Kosofsky suggests some non-teacher-centered strategies that can be used in the classroom.

There is also a section for students, using the book as a self-study guide. David begins by reassuring his readers that they are most certainly doing many things right to be able to do the things wrong that are described in the book. He strongly urges students to use the sections written in Korean as a review, after studying the English description of the problem.

The title of the book was chosen carefully. Kosofsky stresses that the word *mistake* is rarely used by linguists in the field of language learning. "When we speak of a grammatical rule," he continues, "we are referring to some systematic principle which helps describe the way a language is structured". These are NOT "rules" in the sense of laws enforced by an authority. Therefore, the notion of "mistakes" is not appropriate.

This book is concerned with the problems that occur when Koreans use English as a means of communication. The problems vary greatly in the seriousness of their consequences.

Kosofsky goes on to explain his selection of the remainder of the title, "Korean English." Several factors result in the relatively uniform manner of speaking English by Koreans. Obviously interference from the common first language, Korean, is one.

Another reason is the rigid and uniform syllabus in the school system. He notes that the textbooks used in the schools are usually the only exposure to English that middle and high school students have.

The final factor that Kosofsky presents is the standardizing influence that comes from

<sup>1</sup>[Editor's Note: A review of the preliminary edition of Kosofsky's book appeared in the April 1986 issue of *AETK News* (Vol. 5, No. 1).]

the growing use of English by Korean speakers. This is especially evident in promotional brochures put out by Korean firms, in advertising and even in the English language newspapers.

Kosofsky advises language learners that using words and phrases to mean something different from what native English speakers mean by the same expression can lead to serious confusion. Students should find his neat explanation of the difference between "lend" and "borrow" helpful.

Another problem area that Kosofsky covers is the breakdown in communication caused by faulty or incomplete understanding by Koreans of the social or emotional tone associated with an expression. The example he gives is in the use of "you'd better" to make a suggestion. In English usage this expression conveys an authoritarian, threatening tone. If a tourist asks how to get to the Railway Station, he might feel he has done something wrong if he is told "You'd better go down there." David explains in that chapter that a suggestion is much better expressed in a number of different ways, for example, "You should go down there."

Common Problems is organized according to the various kinds of problems. Part One deals with some Grammar Problems. It includes an entry on the singular/plural problem of uncountable (mass) nouns. Kosofsky uses several examples to help students understand the pattern for uncountable nouns. There is one that he did not include that amuses and slightly irritates me whenever I see it on a store sign: "Shoes Salon."

Part Two is about Problems in Meaning. Readers will find helpful his section on "almost" in which he gives the reason for frequent misuse of this word. "Almost" and "most" are often confused, resulting in sentences like: "Almost Koreans eat rice for breakfast."

Part Three deals with Awkward or Inappropriate Language. One section in this part discusses the problem of redundancy in Korean-English. Using many examples, he touches on the problems related to using words together when the meaning of one word is obvious and does not need to be repeated. One of his examples is "The cost of this car is cheap." Another example that I often hear which David could have included is "I like to sing a song." (I always feel like asking my musical students, "What else could you sing?") Another phrase discussed in Part Three is "of course." Korean students use this as an affirmative expression, but actually its use by native speakers is quite limited. It does not mean, "Yes, that is true," but rather, for native speakers, "of course"

means "The answer to your question is obvious; it is not necessary to ask such a question."

Each section begins with two, or occasionally more, examples of inappropriate use of an expression arranged in an eye-catching layout clearly marked as 'non-standard'. This format attracts the eye of both teacher and student. For the teacher there is the same feeling that a doctor must have when he finds in a medical book the treatment for troublesome symptoms. For the student there must be a shock of recognition--"Do I say that when I speak English!"

An explanation follows, with many sentences to show correct use. In some cases a cross reference is given to a related problem treated elsewhere in the book. Quite often a section ends with a practice exercise. The Answer Key appears at the end of the book.

To meet the demands of the domestic market, each section has a summary in Korean, translated by Eohm Jae-ho. Korean colleagues have assured me that the clarity and preciseness of the translation of these summaries shows meticulous work and a high degree of understanding of the problems under discussion. Mr. Eohm should be congratulated for his part in the production of this book.

The book jacket and part of the introductory section are bilingual, making it more user-friendly for the Korean audience. Kosofsky advises students to use the Korean translation, presenting the key points and a few model sentences, only as a review, after studying the section written in English. It appears to me that he is worrying unnecessarily. The amount of Korean text has been kept to a minimum and is not designed to repeat the exhaustive explanation that has already been given in English.

There is a comprehensive index which will facilitate the use of the book as a remedial guide. The table of contents is short enough to make a quick search feasible.

The language style of Common Problems is informal and readable. It evokes the picture of a teacher sitting in a small classroom, surrounded by students, discussing this or that facet of language, and inviting his students to participate.

Another factor that makes this book more interesting than the usual remedial grammar book is the authenticity of the sentence examples. For example, tucked away in a chapter on the use of "despite/in spite of" is a sentence about myself that is unfortunately quite true: "In spite of her good knowledge of linguistics, Margaret doesn't learn languages

easily." The sentence "Medical things make me very uncomfortable" makes the reader feel that Kosofsky is sharing some information about himself, and not merely illustrating a particular grammatical point.

I can find little to criticize, except perhaps to regret the omission of several examples that set up a communication barrier for me when they come up in conversation with a Korean. One of these is students' frequent use of "In my opinion", which suggests argument rather than discussion. If you merely want to state your opinion, it is only necessary to begin with "I think". If what you state arouses disagreement, and you wish to support your statement, then by all means pull out the artillery and blast your opponent with "In my opinion..."

Although the sheer weight of the book in its present form is almost too great for ease of use, I would like to see another section included, covering social-linguistic problems. This could include the troublesome area of the use of titles, leading to the misuse of "sir" and "ma'am". I come from a dialect area where the use of "ma'am" suggests a servant relationship, and it makes me feel very uncomfortable to have students greet me with that word. In addition to the formalities of greeting, there are accepted ways of closing a conversation. I still feel slightly surprised when a student assures me, as he leaves my office, that he will "see me later," and expresses the hope that I will "have a nice time." I have no expectation of seeing this student again in the near future, and as I return to the work waiting for me at my desk, I have an uneasy feeling that I am doing something wrong if I do not have the "good time" that I have been advised to.

Kosofsky stresses that in most cases the examples covered in this book do not cause serious problems of confusion or emotional misunderstanding. They do, however, "make communication more laborious and uncertain and for that reason are worth the attention of Korean students." I heartily recommend this book to teachers and students of English in Korea.

#### THE REVIEWER

Margaret Elliott is a member of AETK who lives in Taejon, where she is in the Department of Language and Literature at Han Nam University. Formerly at Sogang University, Margaret has had many years of experience teaching English in Korea.

Looking for new ideas?

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AETK Spring Conference '87

May 15-16

Treasurer's Report

Paul Cavanaugh

BALANCE ON HAND (March 16, 1986)		W505,206
<b>RECEIPTS</b>		
Membership Dues	W680,000	
Interest on Bank Deposits	11,292	
Miscellaneous Income	22,718	
Total Receipts		714,010
<b>EXPENDITURES</b>		
Monthly Programs	375,338	
Newsletter Printing & Mailing	233,516	
Affiliate Relations	107,690	
Miscellaneous Expense	341,450 <sup>a</sup>	
Total Expenditures		1,057,994
NET CHANGE		-343,984
BALANCE ON HAND (March 21, 1987)		161,222

<sup>a</sup>Please note that the rather large amount in the miscellaneous category was due to expenses related to JoAnn Crandall's official TESOL visit here in November 1986.

*Job Center to be featured*

## Plans for JALT '87

The Japan Association of Language Teachers (JALT) has announced that this year's conference, to be held on November 21-23 at Meiji University, Izumi Campus, Tokyo will feature an expanded Job Information Center in order to better serve the needs of the 1,500 expected participants.

The service, which will be available to all registered participants free of charge, will feature information on some 200 positions available throughout Japan. Facilities will be provided for conducting interviews on the spot.

JALT '87 will feature some 250 concurrent sessions, plenaries by distinguished scholars such as Mary Finocchiaro and Gerhard Nickel, a large book exhibit and a number of social events.

For further information contact: JALT, c/o Kyoto English Center, Sumitomo Seimei Building, 8F, Shijo Karasuma Nishi-iru, Shimogyo-Ku, Kyoto 600, JAPAN



## Report--

### April AETK Meeting Direct Oral Testing in English

Brian Moran of the Department of English Education at Inha University in Incheon gave a special presentation at the AETK April Meeting held on Wednesday, April 15, at the Yonsei University Foreign Language Institute. The topic was "Direct Oral Testing in English." Moran began with the question of why we need direct oral testing, discussed some general guidelines, then went on to describe three models for oral testing which he has developed over the past several years in his work at Inha.

In considering the reasons why direct oral testing is necessary, Moran pointed out the traditional bias against it and stated that the skills needed for oral proficiency are too often neglected in the foreign-language classroom. He indicated, however, that the situation is changing and that we need to give more attention to developing tests which are valid measures of the skills students are supposed to be learning in the courses we teach. In particular, he referred to the "English Conversation" course where attention is given more to strategies for communication than to specific aspects of grammar, pronunciation or vocabulary. Why should tests in such courses be based on discrete points of grammatical knowledge (or certain sound contrasts or individual items of vocabulary) when course goals call not only for the integrated use of such discrete points of linguistic knowledge but also for bringing them into action as needed in order to get one's message across to someone else? A test of conversational ability ought to be a test of conversational ability, not a test of just some of its component parts.

This conclusion led to the statement of the first general guideline for test construction, which was that test objectives should be directly related to course objectives; and to its corollary guideline, that the formats for testing ought to be related to the formats used for teaching. The third guideline which Moran referred to was that tests ought to consist of recombinations of familiar material. Here he was most insistent that we should not ask for mere regurgitated responses of material students may have memorized in preparation for the

test. We should go beyond that to test their responses in situations that are new but that are linked in content to situations familiar from previous classroom experience. In addition, he pointed out that test directions ought to be clear and unambiguous, that the situations to be tested ought to be clearly defined but not too strictly, and that testing should be conducted in a suitable environment. He said that there should be a purpose behind each speech activity that is to be tested and that communication activities on oral tests should include both "short turns" and "long turns" (this last point being a reference to research on the nature of discourse). Finally, he indicated that communication on tests should include structured, organized speech; that test activities should proceed from easy to difficult; that tests should provide a variety of communication activities; and that students should be given credit for what they know.

The three models for oral testing that Moran described were (a) the job interview model, (b) the task-oriented pair exercise and (c) the conference model. He pointed out how these models were based on specific classroom activities and provided a sample of materials which illustrated some ways of making connections to the real world that students will soon face when they leave the world of the classroom.

Moran also provided an extensive bibliography of materials on language testing as an aid to further study of the points raised in his discussion. Those who attended the meeting came away with many new insights about the problem of direct oral testing and a number of practical suggestions for more effective evaluation.

## **AETK NEWS NEEDS YOUR HELP . . .**

Do you know about upcoming meetings, conferences, workshops, etc., related to language teaching in Korea (or elsewhere) that would be of interest to other AETK members?

Send us an announcement for publication in *AETK News*.

Are there particular issues or problems that you think AETK should address?

Write a letter to the editor of *AETK News*.

Have you found a particularly useful technique for teaching or testing?

Write a description of it for *AETK News*.

Are you interested in a certain aspect of theory or research related to language teaching and language learning?

Write an article about it to share your interest with readers of *AETK News*.

Have you discovered an important new book?

Write a review of it for *AETK News*.

Material submitted for publication should be neatly typed, double-spaced, and in general should follow the APA style used in the *TESOL Quarterly*. (See a recent issue of the *TESOL Quarterly* for examples.) If you use a computer, please consult with the editor about submitting material on disk. Writers for *AETK News* should review their manuscripts before submitting them for publication to make sure that:

- material from other sources is properly acknowledged
- bibliographical references are accurate
- sexist language and that which reflects unfair attitudes or assumptions about particular groups or individuals are avoided.

For further information, please contact Dwight Strawn, Yonsei University English Department, Sinchon-dong, Sudaemoon-Ku, Seoul 120. TEL 392-3785 (evenings).

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### **Words of appreciation . . .**

For their cooperation and assistance throughout the past year, AETK extends its appreciation to:

The Yonsei University Foreign Language Institute for providing facilities for AETK meetings.

Ms. Kim of the Korea Baptist Mission Office for help with publicity and other arrangements for AETK meetings.

Members and invited guests who presented programs at AETK meetings.

Authors of articles for *AETK News*.

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Join AETK for

- sharing on a professional level about all aspects of language teaching in Korea
- information about current trends in the theory and practice of language teaching
- increased self-awareness of your role as a language teacher in your own situation

Comment--

The Fallacy of Accuracy as a Basis for English Teaching

by Young Shik Lee

The purpose of this article is to consider some problems posed by the current teaching of English which is biased towards an accuracy-based approach, and to suggest a need for shifting the focus of English teaching from accuracy to fluency.

Traditionally, English teaching approaches in Korea, neglecting fluency in favour of accuracy, have always had a basis in the accurate construction of English which has resulted in undesirable effects on the teaching and learning of English for communication. What is needed here, therefore, is to point out the misleading concerns for language teaching based on accuracy and to show how ineffective or inflexible the accuracy model of teaching might be for English teaching for communication. If we insist on the model of accuracy as the basis for English teaching, we are likely to take a number of risks as opposed to actual use of English in communication, such as too much concentration on unconnected parts of the language rather than the language as a whole; learners' psychological inhibition against expressing their ideas spontaneously; their over-using the Monitor in learning English; their lack of motivation to learn or acquire English; and English teaching in disassociation from normal communication.

For some cases of the fallacy of accuracy-based teaching of English, we may take a kind of listening practice which tries to achieve 100 percent correct comprehension by processing every incoming word; word-to-word translation or sentence-by-sentence interpretation without due attention to the speed in reading classes; correcting all of the mistakes that learners may make in trying to convey their ideas in speaking classes; and too controlled writing practice only at the sentence level. In order to prevent our teaching of English from falling into the fallacy of accuracy, we have to broaden our perspectives by discarding methodological ease of accuracy as the basis for English curriculum; we have to get some feedback from actual teaching experience which can reinforce the whole process of English teaching for communication; and we have to draw the model of language which should be appropriate to language learning requirements,

not derived from theoretical linguistics or literary criticism. Particularly, if we rely solely on language description derived from linguistic theory in finding the model of language for teaching, we capture a partial generalization of language, thus leading to the accuracy model of teaching from the language analyst's viewpoint rather than that of the language user.

Incidentally, although we need to change English teaching's emphasis from accuracy to fluency, the point which must not be ignored here is that we must ensure a balanced approach where both fluency and accuracy are developed, eventually achieving an effective communicative methodology through classroom teaching of English.

THE AUTHOR

Young Shik Lee is a member of the AETK Council and teaches at Sogang University.

A reminder--

Is it time to renew your AETK membership?

ASSOCIATION OF ENGLISH TEACHERS IN KOREA  
Membership Application  
(Annual Dues ₩10,000)

Name ..... Date .....

Mailing address .....

City ..... Province ..... Postal code .....

TEL (Office) ..... (Home) .....

Position title ..... Institution .....

Application is for:

- New membership       Renewal

Area or level of work:

- Primary school       College/university  
 Middle school       Language institute  
 High school       Other .....

Major interests:

- Fellowship and sharing with other teachers  
 Teaching methods and techniques for classroom use  
 Materials development  
 Theory and research on language learning/teaching  
 Language testing  
 Other .....

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