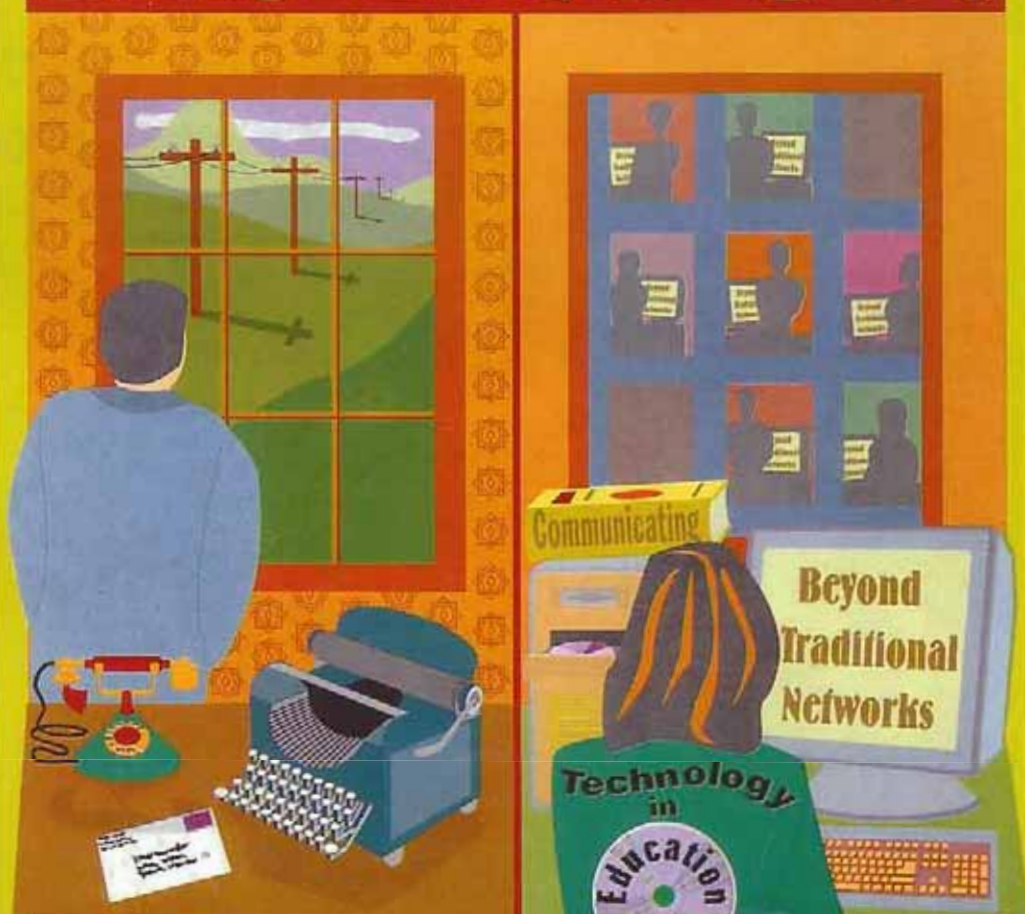




# Proceedings of the 1997 Korea TESOL Conference

Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

# KOTESOL



## Kyongju Educational & Cultural Center

DEMETRA GATES  
tel: (053)659-4292  
fax: (053)659-4293

e-mail: gatesde@taekyo.taegu-s.ac.kr

### OCT. 3-5, '97

KARI KUDIER  
tel: (053)659-5416  
fax: (053)628-3340  
e-mail: haseta@bora.dacom.co.kr

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# Approaches to Teaching Listening in the Language Classroom

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**DAVID NUNAN**

*University of Hong Kong*

I believe that listening is the basic skill in language learning. Without effective listening skills, learners will never learn to communicate effectively. In fact over 50% of the time that students spend functioning in a foreign language will be devoted to listening. Despite this, listening is often either overlooked or undervalued. For most people, being able to claim knowledge of a second language means being able to speak and write in that language. Listening and reading are therefore secondary skills - means to other ends, rather than ends in themselves.

From time to time, however, listening comes into fashion. In the 1960s, the emphasis on oral language skills gave it a boost. It became fashionable again in the 1980s, when Krashen's ideas about comprehensible input gained prominence. A short time later, it was reinforced by James Asher's Total Physical Response, a methodology drawing sustenance from Krashen's work, and based on the belief that a second language is learned most effectively in the early stages if the pressure for production is taken off the learners. During the 1980s, proponents of listening in a second language were also encouraged by work in the first language field. Here, people such as Gillian Brown (see, for example, Brown 1990, Brown et al. 1984) were able to demonstrate the importance of developing oracy (the ability to listen and speak) as well as literacy, in school. Prior to this, it was taken for granted that first language speakers needed instruction in how to read and write, but not how to listen and speak because these skills were automatically bequeathed to them as native speakers.

## **THE NATURE OF THE LISTENING PROCESS**

As already indicated, listening is assuming greater and greater importance in foreign language classrooms. There are several reasons for this growth in popularity. By emphasising the role of comprehensible input, second language acquisition research has given a major boost to listening. As Rost (1994) points out, listening is vital in the language classroom because it provides input for the learner. Without understanding input at the right level, any learning simply cannot begin. He provides three other important reasons for emphasising listening, and these demonstrate the importance of listening to the development of spoken language proficiency.

Spoken language provides a means of interaction for the learner. Because learners must interact to achieve understanding, access to speakers of the language is essential. Moreover, learners' failure to understand the language they hear is an impetus, not an obstacle, to interaction and learning. Authentic spoken language presents a challenge for the learner to attempt to understand language as native speakers actually use it. Listening exercises provide teachers with the means for drawing learners' attention to new forms (vocabulary, grammar, new interaction patterns) in the language (Rost, 1994).

Two views of listening have dominated language pedagogy over the last twenty years. These are the "Bottom-up" processing view and the "Top-down" interpretation view. The bottom-up processing model assumes that listening is a process of decoding the sounds that one hears in a linear fashion, from the smallest meaningful units (or phonemes) to complete texts. According to this view, phone-

mic units are decoded and linked together to form words, words are linked together to form phrases, phrases are linked together to form utterances, and utterances are linked together to form complete meaningful texts. In other words, the process is a linear one, in which meaning itself is derived as the last step in the process. In their introduction to listening, Anderson and Lynch (1988) call this the "listener as tape-recorder" view of listening because it assumes that the listener takes in and stores messages in much the same way a tape-recorder does; sequentially, one sound, word, phrase and utterance at a time.

The alternative, top-down view, suggests that the listener actively constructs (or, more accurately, reconstructs) the original meaning of the speaker using incoming sounds as clues. In this reconstruction process, the listener uses prior knowledge of the context and situation within which the listening takes place to make sense of what he or she hears. (Context of situation includes such things as knowledge of the topic at hand, the speaker or speakers and their relationship to the situation as well as to each other, and prior events.)

An important theoretical underpinning to the top-down approach is schema theory. Schema theory is based on the notion that past experiences lead to the creation of mental frameworks that help us make sense of new experiences. The term itself was first used by the psychologist Bartlett (1932), and has had an important influence on researchers in the areas of speech processing and language comprehension ever since. Bartlett argued that the knowledge carried around in our heads is organized into interrelated patterns. They are like stereotypical mental scripts or scenarios of situations and events, built up from numerous experiences of similar events. During the course of our lives we build up literally hundreds of the mental schemas, and they help us make sense of the many situations we find ourselves in during the day, from catching the train to work, to taking part in a business meeting, to having a meal.

Occasionally, particularly in cross-cultural situations, when we apply the wrong or inappropriate schema to a situation, it can get us into trouble. I am indebted to Erik Gundersen for the following vignette which eventually found its way into the *ATLAS* series (Nunan, 1995).

When I was in Taiwan, I went out to a restaurant for a business dinner with maybe five or six people, and I was the least important person. There was the manager of our Asian office, a local sales representative, and a few other important people. Our host offered me a seat, and I took it, and everyone looked sort of uncomfortable, but no one said anything. But I could tell somehow I had done something wrong. And by Western standards I really didn't feel I had. I simply sat down in the seat I was given. I knew I had embarrassed everyone, and it had something to do with where I was sitting, but I didn't know what it was... Towards the end of the evening, our Asian manager in Taiwan said, "Just so that you know, you took the seat of honor, and you probably shouldn't have." And I thought to myself, "Well, what did I do wrong?" And I asked her, and she said, "Well, you took the seat that was facing the door, and in Taiwan, that's the seat that's reserved for the most important person in the party, so that if the seat is offered to you, you should decline it. You should decline it several times, and perhaps on the fourth or fifth time that someone insists that you sit there as the foreign guest, you should, but you shouldn't sit there right away, as you did" (p. 147-148).

In this situation, Erik applied his Western schema which says that when you are offered a seat by a guest, you take it. However, in many Eastern contexts, this is the wrong thing to do, as Erik Gundersen discovered to his discomfort. However, the experience would have led him to modify his "restaurant" schemata. Seen in this way, even relatively uncomfortable learning experiences can be enriching. These mental frameworks are critically important in helping us to predict and then cope with the exigencies of everyday life. In fact, as Oller (1979) has pointed out, without these schema, nothing in life would be predictable, and if nothing were predictable, it would be impossible to function. The world would appear chaotic.

In addition to stereotypical cultural knowledge, local knowledge of participants, events and

persons is important. It is difficult to interpret the following text, for example, without knowing that Jack is a vegetarian.

Denise: "Jack's coming to dinner tonight."

Jim: "I'd planned to serve lamb."

Denise: "Well, you'll have to rethink that one."

The inadequacy of a strictly bottom-up approach has been demonstrated by research which shows that we do not store listening texts word-for-word as suggested by the bottom-up approach. When asked to listen to a text, and then write down as much as they can recall, listeners remember some bits, forget some bits, and often add in bits that were not there in the original listening. Additionally, it is highly unlikely that the pieces which are successfully recalled will be recorded in exactly the same words as the original message.

What has all this to do with listening comprehension? It suggests that in developing courses, materials and lessons, it is important, not only to teach bottom-up processing skills such as the ability to discriminate between minimal pairs, but it is also important to help learners use what they already know to understand what they hear. If teachers suspect that there are gaps in their learners' knowledge, the listening itself can be preceded by schema building activities to prepare learners for the listening task to come.

There are many different types of listening. We can classify these according to a number of variables, including listening purpose, the role of the listener, and the type of text being listened to. These variables can be mixed and matched to give many different configurations, each of which will require a particular strategy on the part of the listener.

There are numerous ways in which texts can be classified. One common division is between monologues (for example, lectures, speeches, and news broadcasts), and dialogues. Monologues can be further subdivided into those that are planned and those that are unplanned. Planned monologues include media broadcasts and speeches. Many of these are texts which are written to be read, although this is not necessarily always the case. Unplanned monologues would include anecdotes, narratives, and extemporizations. Dialogues can be classified according to purpose: whether they are basically social/interpersonal or transactional in nature. Interpersonal dialogues can be further classified according to the degree of familiarity between the individuals involved.

Listening purpose is another important variable. Listening to a news broadcast to get a general idea of the news of the day involves different processes and strategies from listening to the same broadcast for specific information, such as the results of an important sporting event. Listening to a sequence of instructions for operating a new piece of computer software requires different listening skills and strategies from listening to a poem or short story. In designing listening tasks, it is important to teach learners to adopt a flexible range of listening strategies. This can be done by holding the listening text constant (working, say, with a radio news broadcast reporting a series of international events), and getting learners to listen to the text several times, following different instructions each time. They might, in the first instance, be required to listen for gist, simply identifying the countries where the events have taken place. The second time they listen they might be required to match the places with a list of events. Finally, they might be required to listen for detail, discriminating between specific aspects of the event, or perhaps, comparing the radio broadcast with newspaper accounts of the same events and noting discrepancies or differences of emphasis.

This technique of developing flexibility in listening is exemplified in the following task. When engaging learners in such tasks, it is worth pointing out to learners the different strategies that are inherent in each phase of the task, and getting them thinking of situations in which the different strategies might be employed.

Another way of characterizing listening is in terms of whether the listener is also required to take part in the interaction. This is known as reciprocal listening. When listening to a monologue, either "live" or through the media, the listening is by definition, non-reciprocal. The listener (often to his or her frustration), has no opportunity of answering back, clarifying understanding, or checking that he or she has comprehended correctly. In the real-world, it is rare for the listener to be cast in the role of non-reciprocal "eavesdropper" on a conversation. However, in the listening classroom, this is the normal role. In the section on the role of the learner in the listening process, I will describe a technique that can be used in the classroom for giving learners a chance to respond as they might in a conversational exchange.

## RESEARCH INTO LISTENING

Dunkel (1993), in her excellent state-of-the-art overview of listening research and pedagogy, suggests that the current interest in listening comprehension research has been driven by relatively recent developments in second language acquisition theory. Krashen (1982) and others have suggested that comprehensible input is an important factor in second language acquisition, and that a comprehension-before-production approach can facilitate language acquisition, particularly in the early stages.

This research stimulated the development of a number of comprehension based methods, the best known of which during the 1980s was probably James Asher's (1988) intriguingly titled Total Physical Response (TPR). Asher's methodology was also heavily influenced by the implications he derived from research into first language acquisition. Asher derived three principles from his beliefs about the nature of first language acquisition:

1. We should stress comprehension rather than production at the beginning levels of second language instruction with no demand on the learners to produce the target language.
2. We should obey the "here and now" principle which argues that language should be associated with things that are physically present in the environment.
3. Learners should demonstrate comprehension by listening to, and carrying out instructions couched in the imperative.

An important consideration for pedagogy, (and a major challenge for course designers and materials writers using a task-oriented approach) concerns task difficulty. If grammatical complexity is not to be the sole determining factor in deciding the ordering of tasks within courses as a whole, and also within units of work, then what factors can be drawn on? In the first language arena, Watson and Smeltzer (1984) suggest that factors internal to the learner such as attentiveness, motivation, interest in and knowledge of the topic, can have a marked bearing on listening success. Textual factors include the organization of information (texts in which the information is presented in the same sequence as they occurred in real life are easier to comprehend than texts in which the items are presented out of sequence), the explicitness and sufficiency of information provided, the type of referring expressions used (for example, use of pronouns rather than complete noun phrases makes texts more difficult), and whether the text is describing a "static" relationship (for example a geometric figure) or a "dynamic" one (for example an accident). Brown and Yule (1983) suggest that there are four principal sets of factors affecting the difficulty of listening.

1. Speaker factors: How many speakers are there? How quickly do they speak? What types of accents do they have?
2. Listener factors: What is the listener's role - eavesdropper or participant? What level of response is required? How interested is the listener in the subject?
3. The content: How complex is the grammar, vocabulary and information structure? What



background knowledge is assumed?

4. Support: How much support is provided in terms of pictures, diagrams or other visual aids?

In their research, Anderson and Lynch identified five factors determining the difficulty of listening tasks. These were as follows:

1. The organization of information
2. The familiarity of the topic.
3. The explicitness and sufficiency of the information.
4. The type of referring expressions used.
5. Whether the text describes a "static" or "dynamic" relationship.

The tasks used by Anderson and Lynch in their research illustrate the way some of these characteristics function to facilitate or inhibit comprehension. One of these was a "trace the route" task, in which students listen to a description of a trip around a city or part of a city and then trace the route on a map. The researchers manipulated some of the features identified above, and these variations changed the difficulty of the task. Maps laid out in a rectangular grid, with all streets and features marked, were easier than those with irregular streets. Not surprisingly, completeness of information was an important factor. Texts became increasingly difficult according to the number of features mentioned in the listening that were omitted from the map. As the number of buildings and natural landmarks increased, so did the difficulty. The most difficult version of the task was one in which the listening text and the map contained contradictory information.

Another strand of research has focused on the types of classroom tasks that facilitate listening comprehension. Spada (1990) reports on an investigation demonstrating the effectiveness of structuring the listening for the learners by providing a set of predictive exercises to complete while carrying out the listening. The predictive work, plus the opportunity for students to stop the tape during the course of the listening exercise to ask questions, led to greater gains in listening than in classes where the teacher launched directly into the listening without any schema building activities, and students were not provided with the opportunity of seeking clarification during the course of the listening.

In the listening study reported in Nunan (in press), the use of a concept mapping technique also proved effective. Students were asked to listen to an interview with a television journalist, and complete a concept map which showed, not only the key words and phrases, but the relationships between these. This task resulted in sufficiently greater recall than subjects who were simply asked to listen.

Difficulty is also affected by the extent to which listeners are required to extract information directly from the text, or whether they are required to make inferences. In the study described in the preceding paragraph, I found that learners had greater difficulty determining the truth value of statements requiring inferences than those in which the truth value could be determined directly from the listening text (Nunan, in press). This study also investigated the types of tasks that facilitate comprehension. It was found that having learners perform tasks such as making notes, checking off key words and phrases, and completing concept maps while they were listening facilitated comprehension.

## **LISTENING IN PRACTICE**

As we have seen, listening and reading are often characterized as "passive" or "receptive" skills. The image conjured up by these terms is of the learner-as-sponge, passively absorbing the language models provided by textbooks and tapes. However, as we saw in the preceding section, there is evidence to suggest that listening, that is, making sense of what we hear, is a constructive process in which the learner is an active participant. In order to comprehend, listeners need to reconstruct the

original intention of the speaker by making use of both bottom-up and top-down processing strategies, and by drawing on what they already know to make use of new knowledge.

A challenge for the teacher in the listening classroom, is to give learners some degree of control over the content of the lesson, and to personalize content so learners are able to bring something of themselves to the task. There are numerous ways in which listening can be personalized. For example, it is possible to increase learner involvement by providing extension tasks which take the listening material as a point of departure, but which then lead learners into providing part of the content themselves. For example, the students might listen to someone describing the work they do, and then create a set of questions for interviewing the person.

A learner-centered dimension can be lent to the listening class in one of two ways. In the first place, tasks can be devised in which the classroom action is centered on the learner not the teacher: In tasks exploiting this idea, students are actively involved in structuring and restructuring their understanding of the language and in building their skills in using the language. Secondly, teaching materials, like any other type of materials, can be given a learner-centered dimension by getting learners involved in the processes underlying their learning and in making active contributions to the learning. This can be achieved by: (a) making instructional goals explicit to the learner, (b) giving learners a degree of choice, (c) giving learners opportunities to bring their own background knowledge and experience into the classroom, and (d) encouraging learners to develop a reflective attitude to learning and to develop skills in self-monitoring and self-assessment.

There are many different ways of classifying listening tasks. They can be classified according to the role of the learners - whether they are involved in reciprocal or non-reciprocal listening. They can be classified according to the types of strategies demanded of the listener - listening for gist, listening for specific information, making inferences based on what they hear, and so on. Alternatively, they can be classified according to whether the task focuses principally on linguistic skills (activating and extending the listeners' knowledge of phonology, grammar and discourse), or whether the focus is on the experiential content of the material.

Reciprocal listening involves dialogues, in which the role of the individual participants alternates between listener and speaker. Non-reciprocal listening involves listening to monologues. In listening courses, learners are involved in both reciprocal and non-reciprocal listening tasks. In the case of reciprocal listening, they can be cast in the role of participant, in which they alternate between listener or speaker, or they can be cast in the role of "eavesdropper" or "overhearer". In this second type of task, they listen in on conversations between two or more other speakers, but do not take part in the conversation themselves. Not surprisingly, this second type of listening is the more usual type in the listening class.

I try to simulate the interactive nature of listening, and also try to involve learners personally in the content of the language lesson through activities such as that in appendix A. In this task, the learners listen to one side of a conversation, and react to written responses. Obviously, this is not the same thing as taking part in an actual conversation, but I find that it does generate a level of involvement on the part of learners that goes beyond the usual non-participatory listening task. Because learners are providing personalized responses, there is variation between learners, and this creates the potential for following-up speaking tasks, in which learners compare and share their responses with other learners. This particular task is taken from a unit of work set in an airport.

Non-reciprocal listening tasks can draw on a rich variety of authentic data, not just on lectures and one-sided anecdotes. In my own listening classes, I have used the following data: (a) answering machine messages, (b) store announcements, (c) announcements on public transportation, (d) mini lectures, and (e) narrative recounts.

The increasing use of computerized messages on the telephone by companies and public utilities

can also provide a rich source of data. The text in appendix B, used in a lesson on "Entertainment", was adapted from a system developed by a chain of movie theaters through which it is possible to call up, select and pay for a movie over the telephone. While the listening is presented as a dialogue, the original source was a monologue.

A recurring theme in recent books and papers on language teaching methodology is the need to develop learners' awareness of the processes underlying their own learning so that, eventually, they will be able to take greater and greater responsibility for that learning. This can be done through the adoption of a learner-centered strategy at the level of classroom action, and partly through equipping students with a wide range of effective learning strategies. Through these, students will not only become better listeners, they will also become more effective language learners because they will be given opportunities to focus on, and reflect upon, the processes underlying their own learning. This is important, because if learners are aware of what they are doing, if they are conscious of the processes underlying the learning they are involved in, then learning will be more effective. Key strategies that can be taught in the listening classroom include selective listening, listening for different purposes, predicting, progressive structuring, inferring, and personalising. These strategies should not be separated from the content, but woven into the ongoing fabric of the lesson so that learners can see the applications of the strategies to the development of effective learning.

I particularly favor the development of inferential comprehension tasks because they force the learner to process the material more deeply. They also facilitate the development of vocabulary. In short, they require the learners to do more work than tasks that only require literal comprehension. The following exemplifies a task designed to foster inferential comprehension.

As indicated earlier, in addition to teaching direct strategies such as selective listening and listening for gist, the teacher can also emphasize learning processes by stating goals at the beginning of each lesson. Such statements are important because learners are made aware of what the teacher is trying to achieve. The goal statement can be reinforced by self-check exercises at regular intervals during the course. These will serve to remind learners of what they have learned, and give them an opportunity to monitor and evaluate their progress.

## CONCLUSION

In this paper, I have set out some of the theoretical, empirical and practical aspects of listening comprehension. I have suggested that listening classrooms of today need to develop both bottom-up and top-down listening skills in learners. I have also stressed the importance of a strategies-based approach to the teaching of listening. Such an approach is particularly important in classrooms where students are exposed to substantial amounts of authentic data because they will not (and should not expect to) understand every word.

In summary, we can say that an effective listening course will be characterized by the following features (see also the design features set out in Mendelsohn, 1994).

The materials should be based on a wide range of authentic texts, including both monologues and dialogues.

Schema-building tasks should precede the listening.

Strategies for effective listening should be incorporated into the materials.

Learners should be given opportunities to progressively structure their listening by listening to a text several times, and by working through increasingly challenging listening tasks.

Learners should know what they are listening for and why.

The task should include opportunities for learners to play an active role in their own learning.

Content should be personalized.

## THE AUTHOR

David Nunan is Professor of Applied Linguistics and Director of the English Centre at the University of Hong Kong. He is also Professor of Applied Linguistics and a member of the Board of Regents of the newly established Asia-Pacific University based in Hawaii. Prior to taking up his present position, he was Director of Research and Development, NCELTR, and Coordinator of Postgraduate Programs in Linguistics at Macquarie University. He has also held teaching, researching and consulting positions in Thailand, Singapore, the United States, Britain, Japan and the Middle East.

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## APPENDIX A<sup>1</sup>

### INSTRUCTIONS TO STUDENT

Imagine that you are taking part in an airport survey. Listen and circle responses for each question.

- a. Sure. / OK. As long as it doesn't take too long.
- b. Yes, I did. / No, it was rather short.
- c. Yes, it's fine. / Well, it could be a little cleaner, actually.

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1. Source: D. Nunan. (in 1997). *Listen In Book 2*. Singapore: International Thomson Publishing Asia.

- d. Yes, they're fine. / I don't think so. I think they need to do better.
- e. Yes, it did. / No. I had to wait quite a long time, actually.
- f. You're welcome. / Don't mention it.

### **TAPE SCRIPT**

Um, excuse me, we're doing a survey of what passengers think of facilities at the airport. Is it OK if I ask you a few questions?

Did you have a long flight?

Uh-huh. So what do you think of the airport? Is it clean?

What about the airport personnel? Are they efficient?

Right. Now, how about the baggage? Did it arrive quickly and in good condition?

Well, that's all. Thank you very much.

### **SPEAKING EXTENSION TASK**

Student A, interview your partner. Ask these questions:

Can I ask you some questions?

Did you have a short flight?

Is the airport clean?

Are the airport workers efficient?

Did the baggage arrive quickly?

Thank you for taking part in the survey.

### **APPENDIX B<sup>2</sup>**

A: (Jenny) "Feel like seeing a movie?"

B: (Bob) "Sure. What's playing?"

A: "Dunno. Let's try that new computerized booking service."

B: "The what?"

A: "That new service I was telling you about. You know, I was telling you about that survey I did."

B: "How does it work?"

A: "Well, you just call up this number ..... where is it? Here."

B: "OK." (sound of telephone being dialed.)

C: "Good afternoon, welcome to Ticketmaster. You can now book tickets to all current movies through Ticketmaster. To choose from a list of current movies, press 1 now. To choose from a list of theaters, press 2 now. To find out about Ticketmaster's new features, press 3 now. To repeat this list, press zero one."

B: "Hit one."

A: "OK." (beep)

C: "The following is a list of movies. Enter your selection at any time. For the Nutty Professor press one now. For Danger in Space, press two now. For Death at Midnight, press three now."

A: "Let's do the Crazy Professor."

B: "Oh no, I don't feel like a comedy."

2. Source: D. Nunan. (1997). *Listen In Book 2*. International Thomson Publishing.

A: "OK. I hate sci fi, so Let's got to Death at Midnight. I heard it's quite good."  
B: "OK." (beep)  
C: "Theaters showing Death at Midnight. For the Odeon Queensway, press one now. For the New York Cinema, press two now. For the ABC Theater Parkside, press 3 now. For ....."  
B: "OK. Queensway's the nearest."  
A: "One?"  
B: "Uh-huh."  
C: "You have selected the Odeon Queensway. Please select the day of show. For today, press one now. For tomorrow, please press two now. For the day after tomorrow, please press three now."  
C: (beep) "Please select a show time for today. For 12:30 pm press one now. For 2:30 pm press two now. For 5:30 pm press three now. For ....."  
A: "Five thirty?"  
B: "Uh-huh. (beep)"  
C: "You have chosen five thirty. Please enter the number of tickets you wish to purchase, up to nine. (beep). You have booked two tickets. If this is correct, press the hash sign to continue. To re-enter the number of seats, press zero two. (beep) You have confirmed two seats. Please select a credit card for payment. To pay by American Express, press one now. To pay by Mastercard, press two now. To pay by Visa, press three now."  
A: "Amex?"  
B: "No. Let me pay. I'll put it on Visa." (beep)  
C: "You have selected Visa. Please punch in your number followed by the sharp key ....."  
A: "Wow! I'm glad we're not calling long distance!"

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# Data-Driven Learning: Theory and Classroom Implementation

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**TROY BLAPPERT**

*KyungHee University*

In order to define a theory of learning that supports the use of Data-Driven Learning (DDL) for an EFL classroom, it is necessary to examine the different forms of classroom presentations and the role and implications of a DDL activity. It is also necessary to examine the process of planning a DDL classroom activity because these steps illustrate the incremental building blocks of learning and acquisition.

## DDL AS A CLASSROOM ACTIVITY

Data-driven learning is a form of classroom presentation or activity that has been associated with the lexical syllabus and the Communicative methodology. In *The Lexical Syllabus*, Willis (1990) defines three different forms of classroom activities of the Communicative Approach: citation, simulation, and replication. Citation activities or language drills involve simply quoting lines of dialog in order to use the language, "but such a concept is contradictory, since the essence of communication is choice and a basic requirement of drilling is the restriction of choice" (Willis, p. 58). Willis defines simulation activities as activities that seek to demonstrate a manipulation and mastery of the forms, but the exchange is not a genuine information exchange because the focus is form not meaning. Willis associates DDL with replication activities, activities that attempt to replicate "real world" communication, because true communicative exchanges entail an element of the unknown, of problem solving, and of information gathering.

For example, many Korean students have difficulty in distinguishing the usage of going to, will, and plan to for future plans. A citation activity with these structures might be a listening activity followed by a dialog that is recited in pairs to show the usage in the context of one contrived conversation. The learners would be exposed to an extremely limited use of these structures and the activity would not involve the students cognitively.

A simulation activity with these forms might be an open class "discussion" in which the teacher asks questions using the target tenses and the students respond in the target language. The focus would not be the students' weekend or summer plans, but accurate production of the target structures. The discussion would be an information exchange, but students would be aware that the focus of the activity is control of the form rather than the exchange of information.

A DDL replication activity for the structures might involve an attempt to uncover the rules for usage from a list of sentences that contain the target structures in context taken from a large corpus, such as the COBUILD corpus used for this study. In order to accomplish the task the learners would be engaged cognitively, and they would be focused on the target language for an extended period of time. With the learners working in small groups or pairs genuine discussion and negotiation of meaning would take place.

## IDENTIFY, CLASSIFY, AND GENERALIZE

In his article, *Should You be Persuaded - Two Samples of Data-Driven Learning Materials*, Johns (1991) describes his procedures of Identify-- Classify--Generalize for classroom based concordance and data-driven learning. Johns' classroom procedures complement Willis's replication activity because the procedure relies heavily on inductive learning and genuine discourse. Johns' procedure uses a machine produced concordance of citations that is edited by the teacher to emphasize a particular use of a structure in context. The teacher then creates a handout based on the selected citations. "While all the citations shown in the handout are authentic, there is in this handout a degree of "rule-hiding" in the selection of the citations, the categories adopted, and the sequencing of citations within each category" (Johns, p. 4).

### Identify

The first step of the procedure is to identify the structure under examination. Johns does not define the steps of Identify-Classify in detail, but it is possible for the structures or words to be teacher or class generated. Class generated questions would create an immediate interest in the lesson as it would be a response to a learner's question. After identifying the area of inquiry a concordance search is necessary to find the citations. The citations are then edited to produce a list of the structure or words in the chosen context. For this paper, the question was student generated; When do you use plan or going to for a planned future event? The student's question arose in a lower-intermediate conversation class at university in Seoul, South Korea and question was a response to a correction of the student's utterance in the following dialogue. The asterisk (\*) indicates an error in syntax.

Teacher: What are you doing this weekend? We have that long three day weekend.

Student: I have a plan with my friend on Saturday.\*

Teacher: What sort of plan?

Student: We'll go coffee shop.\*

Teacher: We don't use plan for something like going for a coffee. Plan is usually used for something important.

Student: But going to coffee shop is important.\*

Teacher: Well . . . not exactly . . .

Student: When do we use plan and going to?

Having been unable to give a satisfactory answer to the student the teacher decided to try a corpus based approach to uncover the context for usage and teach the appropriate usage for plan and going to. The question is of context and suitability as much as of syntax. The student generated question is important because the student is an active participant in his/her learning of English and not a passive observer. The student has a vested interest in conducting the research and finding an answer, in effect the problem solving activity has been personalized to the student's interest and level of ability.

### Classify

Classification is the second step of Johns' procedure, and it is necessary so that the learners will not be discouraged by encountering overwhelming files of data. The search of going to produced nearly 30,000 citations from the COBUILD corpus. On smaller concordancing programs classifying may be a student centered activity that again focuses the students' attention on the form and context of the words or structures, as well as an excellent catalyst for discussion in group or pairs as they attempt to solve a real problem of classifying the citations into categories that represent different uses or environments for usage.

For this lesson the classification was done by the teacher because of the students' limited under-



standing of the target language and the high level of vocabulary found in some citations. The teacher/researcher was also limited by the educational traditions of the Korean students because the students were uncomfortable with the act of classification even from a teacher prepared list of citations with a predetermined and set number of categories. The limitations imposed by working within the cultural context of an Asian country resulted in a reinterpretation of the suitability of DDL for low level Asian students. As a result the teacher prepared a list of teacher generated citations based on the data from the COBUILD corpus. The COBUILD citations were analyzed for the vocabulary associated with the words and the context the words were found to occur in. The teacher prepared a list of example sentences to illustrate the context for usage with vocabulary the students would not find difficult or demoralizing (Appendix A).

## **Generalizing**

Generalizing is the act of inductively constructing rules describing the usage of the structures or words. The act of generalizing represents an essential part of the learning process with a DDL activity because students are actively engaged with the cognitive process of generalizing rules for the language.

This process of generalizing is completely foreign to many Korean students who are educated in an educational system that values memorization rather than the production of generalizations or theories. Ambiguous situations that rely on intuition and analysis of data rarely occur in an educational context in Korea. As a result, Korean students ask many questions concerning rules that they perceive to be ambiguous, and through these questions the process of generalization takes place. For example, the teacher's classification of going to, will, plan to, and intend to was based on the context of usage. The citations revealed a tendency for going to to occur with do, say, go, and get. A generalization of the usage for going to was for situations or events that were perceived to be definite and decided. Going to and will were grouped together because in many cases will may be exchanged for going to; moreover, going to and will are also used in many different contexts. Plan to and intend to occur in a limited number of contexts, and they may be used interchangeably in many circumstances as well. These forms of classification were based on the teacher's Western background to group according to contexts and uses, not meaning.

In the classroom trial of the material, after the students had matched the examples with the descriptions, the students questioned the rules. This is similar in theory to creating the rules because students are attempting to memorize the rules, but the ambiguity of the generalizations interferes with the process. In order to commit the rules to memory the students needed more clarification. The students were disturbed by the classifications because they believed that the grouping should have been: going to/intend to and will/plan to. The students believed that because going to and intend to are usually used for actions or situations that are definite and decided that they should be grouped together despite the fact that the contexts for usage are different. The students were comfortable with the usage and contexts of the structures after forty-five minutes of clarifying the students' position, the position of the handout (and teacher), and the reasoning surrounding the decisions of classifying and generalizing. The discussion was an authentic communicative exchange because the students were attempting to gather more information about the contexts for usage of the words.

Although this extended negotiation of classification and generalization was unintended and unforeseen, it did bring to light valuable insight in developing and implementing DDL activities in an Asian context for low level students. In order to stimulate interest for the inductive negotiation of meaning it may be necessary to present material in a context that appears to be familiar, but requires the students to actively question and generate theories about the structures to memorize them. The students instinctively question the classifications and generalizations if they are contradictory or as in

this case, grouped according to context rather than meaning. Had the students been asked to classify and generalize the data from the beginning the task may have been overwhelming and discouraging. If the task is simple such as a matching exercise and it reveals ambiguity, it stimulates the cognitive process of analysis. The exercises act as a catalyst for analysis.

## **GRAMMATICAL CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING**

Consciousness-Raising (C-R) is a theory of language learning and language teaching which supports the use of DDL activities. C-R differs from traditional grammar teaching according to Rutherford (1996) in that

...C-R is a means to attainment of grammatical competence in another language (i.e. necessary but not sufficient, and the learner contributes), whereas 'grammar teaching' typically represents an attempt to instill that competence directly (i.e. necessary and sufficient, and the learner is a tabula rasa). (p. 24).

C-R is a theory of language learning that may incorporate DDL activities as a form of classroom presentation or practice. DDL activities are well suited to C-R because the focus of a DDL activity may be to create an awareness of a form, and also emphasize the function and context the form occurs in.

For this DDL activity (Appendix A) the focus of the activity is to create an awareness of the form, function, and context of the words. The handout was designed to focus the students' attention on the forms and contexts for use, not to be performed as dialogues in class. The two dialogues: Test your knowledge a pretest and How much do you remember a post-instruction test (Appendix B) were designed to illustrate the language in a context appropriate and useful to the high beginner students. The dialogues were checked for accuracy in class with two students reading the paragraphs aloud, but the function of this activity was to check the accuracy of the answers, not to memorize the dialogue. The matching activity was designed to stimulate questions about the uses and contexts for going to, plan to, intend to, and will, not to provide tidy rules of thumb to be memorized. The definitions were deliberately vague in some respects; for example, plan to and intend to are both followed by do, make, take, and use. This was intentional on the part of the teacher to stimulate questions about usage and context based on the students' intolerance of ambiguity. This form of C-R was extremely successful for the low level Korean students because the exercise provided a focus on form as well as a natural informational language exchange which lasted approximately forty-five minutes.

## **THE LEXICAL APPROACH**

The Lexical Approach is a method that provides learners with the necessary insight to understand and acquire grammar and expose them to the uses and meanings in context. The Lexical Approach uses lexicon as the basis of grammar instruction by illustrating the inter-connectedness of syntax and lexicon. Willis (1994) argues that "A lexical based approach is likely to be more powerful than a structural approach in three ways" (p. 63)

1. [I]t offers more powerful generalizations.
2. [T]he fact that a lexical description depends on a more powerful generalization means that the learner will have more evidence on which to base useful generalizations about the language.
3. ...words are more amenable to learner analysis and discovery than `structures.' (Willis, 1994, pp. 63-65)

A lexical syllabus is often associated with DDL activities because a corpus-based activity allows students to examine the language in context. DDL activities are also well suited to the Lexical Approach because concordancing programs are capable of producing the data necessary for students and teachers to generate rules for usage based on authentic language.

An example of the validity of the Lexical Approach is the language examined in this DDL activity (Appendix A) which would have likely been limited to going to and will in the traditional structure based approach. This assertion is based on the researcher's survey of two grammar reference books, Swan's (1993) *Practical English Usage* and Murphy's (1993) *Essential Grammar in Use*. Swan groups going to and will together with a lengthy explanation of usage, but completely neglects plan to, the original focus of the lesson. Intend to is also briefly mentioned in a section entitled "infinitive after noun" (p. 324). Murphy also neglects to address the usage of plan to and intend to. With the teacher's stated intention of uncovering the usage of going to and plan to, the lesson took on a Lexical Approach out of necessity because traditional structure based approaches did not cover these areas sufficiently. Using the words as a starting point for the investigation rather than the structures allowed for a more complete examination than by traditional grammar approaches. During the course of compiling the citations the teacher realized that if the focus of the search is based on words, as in the Lexical Approach, and not structures then will and intend to, which are extremely similar in meaning and usage should also be investigated. With the addition of these two words the lesson became more complete because the contextual relationships of these words were revealed, and it provided the data necessary to make informed generalizations about the words.

## **RESULTS**

The testing of the DDL activity was extremely informative about the nature of activities that stimulate the interest of low level Korean students. The activity was designed as a C-R activity based on the Lexical Approach, using the classroom procedures of Identity, Classify, and Generalize. The results of the pretest reveal that the average score of the eight students was approximately 60% and 87.5% on the post-test which was administered one hour after the instruction had been completed. While these results are preliminary, they do illustrate a marked increase in accuracy on the cloze test. Further field testing of the material is necessary to establish the reliability of the materials tested. The results may be considered surprising by some because the materials contained nothing in the way of a reproduction activity, or authentic citations, although the material was designed based on the COBUILD citations. The material design was intentionally ambiguous and not focused on form production but rather on C-R. The preliminary success of the DDL activity does reveal that activities for low level students may be beneficial in creating an awareness of forms and lead to authentic language exchanges in the classroom.

## **THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER**

In the past, the role of the language teacher in the classroom was that of a language expert, someone who is capable of simplifying language rules into generalizations based on their personal experience in using the language. Leech's (1994) term for the knowledge a teacher must possess is a "mature communicative knowledge of grammar," which would be necessary for a teacher to emphasize the interrelatedness of the system of grammar (p. 18). The grammar rules that a teacher gives to learners usually take the form of rules of thumb which are believed to simplify and adapt the language to a level that students can readily find accessible. The major drawback of this practice is that students internalize rules that are incomplete or often misleading. Leech asserts that

In responding to the problems learners encounter, teachers need to draw on their own mature knowledge of grammar, and at the same time to mediate, or 'filter' that knowledge in a form which satisfies the learner's immediate needs. (p. 20)

These prescriptive and descriptive grammar rules sometimes bear little resemblance to the actual

usage of the structure. DDL provides the basis for the formulation of rules based on data that may be accessed, investigated, and examined.

The teacher as a result takes on the role of teacher as a researcher or adviser, who has the responsibility of directing student inquiries and advising the learners on their problem solving tasks. Leech defines the new role for teachers as ..."Teacher the Seeker, who (like the academic scientist or scholar) knows only some of the answers, and would like to know more..." (p. 20). The new role of the teacher further encourages classroom interaction because learners are a part of the process of discovery. "The discovery that native speakers use the language in unforeseen ways and in ways which even contradict the grammar 'experts' is itself a salutary experience" (Leech, p. 20).

## CONCLUSION

The stated purpose of this study was to evaluate the teacher/researcher produced DDL lesson and the theories that underpin that lesson. The lesson while successful did not proceed exactly as the teacher had intended but yielded several valuable insights into using DDL based lessons for low level Asian students. The discussion section that followed the matching revealed the students had the ability to classify and generalize, but that the material needed to be graded in order for this to take place. The students were more willing to question the categories and classifications if ambiguity exists. The testing of the lesson also suggests that it is possible to base lessons on the data from a corpus without necessarily using the citations within the lesson for low level students. The study also revealed a need to generate lessons that provide students with the opportunity to examine the words in context and use their own analysis of the usage to question or clarify their understanding of the words. These insights suggests several valuable areas for future research with DDL.

## THE AUTHOR

Troy Blappert is a Lecturer of English at the International College of Hotel Administration, KyungHee University in Seoul. He is also currently a graduate student of the University of Birmingham.

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**APPENDIX A:**  
**FUTURE PLANS WITH GOING TO, WILL, PLAN TO, AND INTEND TO**

**Fun Facts about Future Plans**

Many students of English have difficulty in deciding which verb to use to express common future plans such as what are they going to do this weekend or on a vacation. In a search of a data base of 50 million words (COBUILD) from the University of Birmingham, going to appears 28,309 times, intend to 3,809 times, plan to 1,519 times, and will 315 times. This research shows that statistically going to is used far more frequently than will, almost 100:1. Intend to is used nearly twice as often as plan to in English.

Read the following rules and fill in the blank. Match the rules with the sentences. Put a 1, 2, 3, or 4 in the blank to show which sentences go with which rules.

1. \_\_\_\_\_ is commonly followed by do, say, go, and get. It is used for something that has been decided or definite.
2. \_\_\_\_\_ is commonly followed by be or it in a question form. It is usually used with commit, learn, send, able, probably, hope, and ask. \_\_\_\_\_ is usually used for situations that are changeable or that are dependent on some condition.
3. \_\_\_\_\_ is commonly followed by bring, build, cut, do, make, marry, sell, take, and use. It is usually used with future plans of businesses, governments, groups or couples.
4. \_\_\_\_\_ is commonly followed by continue, do, make, stay, take, and use. It is usually used to show conviction for something.

- \_\_\_\_\_ The government plans to build a highway next to my house.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I'm going to go to the beach this weekend.
- \_\_\_\_\_ He intends to stay here until he finishes.
- \_\_\_\_\_ Christine plans to marry this summer before she has the baby.
- \_\_\_\_\_ The secretary is going to get the phone.
- \_\_\_\_\_ My mother plans to sell her house this summer.
- \_\_\_\_\_ He will learn to cook if he is hungry enough.
- \_\_\_\_\_ They intend to continue fishing until they catch something.
- \_\_\_\_\_ She will probably be late. She takes the bus.
- \_\_\_\_\_ He is going to say it is your fault but don't listen to him.
- \_\_\_\_\_ The company plans to cut salaries to save money.
- \_\_\_\_\_ John intends to make a million dollars with his lawsuit.
- \_\_\_\_\_ They plan to take a chance on the stock market.
- \_\_\_\_\_ He will ask her to go for a drink after class.

**Discussion Questions**

1. Which words are the closest in meaning.

2. What do you think of these descriptions of when to use these words? How would you describe the differences?

**APPENDIX B:**  
**TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE**

Fill in the blank with going to, will, plan to, or intend to.

Henry: We are \_\_\_\_\_ the beach this weekend. Are you coming?

Todd: Yes, I \_\_\_\_\_ bring the jet ski, but Catherine might have to work.

Henry: Well, If she's not \_\_\_\_\_ go, are you coming anyway?

Todd: I'm not sure. I \_\_\_\_\_ just wait and see.

Henry: I \_\_\_\_\_ make the most of this three day weekend.

Todd: Is Joanna going?

Henry: Are you kidding? Since we \_\_\_\_\_ marry next month she won't let me out of her sight for more than a few hours.

Todd: Do you \_\_\_\_\_ stay in that tiny apartment of yours after you're married?

Henry: No, we \_\_\_\_\_ build a house soon; we are looking for an architect.

Todd: That's great! We \_\_\_\_\_ probably build a house next year too.

**HOW MUCH DO YOU REMEMBER?**

Fill in the blank with going to, will, plan to, or intend to.

Todd: Are you \_\_\_\_\_ be able to go to the beach this weekend?

Catherine: I \_\_\_\_\_ ask Mr. Rogers tomorrow if we are \_\_\_\_\_ work on Saturday.

Todd: I bumped into Henry today, and he said that they \_\_\_\_\_ build a house soon.

Catherine: Really, I thought Joanna said that they were \_\_\_\_\_ get the old Victorian around the block?

Todd: I don't know, but he \_\_\_\_\_ probably live anywhere that she wants too.

Catherine: What about you, are you \_\_\_\_\_ live anywhere I want?

Todd: Sure, as long as you don't \_\_\_\_\_ build too close to your mother's house. I don't \_\_\_\_\_ live near my parents either.

Catherine: No, we aren't \_\_\_\_\_ live near your parents or mine.

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# Godzilla Gets Virtual About Language Teaching

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**LARRY DAVIES**

*Nagoya University*

On-line language teaching has no precedents, no tried and true methods or approaches, no pool of teacher's experience to draw from, no texts, nor materials that previous teachers have left behind in the staff room. In short, it has little, if any, history. The author's initial explorations into virtual language teaching have suggested several benefits, disadvantages and possibilities for real and virtual classroom practice and research. Internet-based language education offers a chance to exploit the huge educational opportunities unavailable in the "real" classroom. In particular, the ability to bridge the distance between the classroom and the outside world, so often absent in real classrooms, is "embarrassingly easy" for the on-line teacher. This paper will explore these issues in detail, demonstrate some of the author's on-line work, and conclude that on-line teaching's place works both ways: as a complement to "real world" teaching, and on its own, as a powerful tool for the self-access/distance language learner.

## AN AGING MONSTER

Imagine a language student within five to ten years from now. Will the student be studying in the 150-year old tradition of the industrial revolution: rote learning, studying to pass the "final test", competing with classmates to be the best, learning disjointed phrases, giving "right" or "wrong" answers, sitting, bored to tears, in a teacher-centered classroom, where the teacher decides what material needs to be studied at what time, the teacher asking "display" questions where she already knows the answer or "dichotomous, yes/no" questions (Patton, 1990 p. 297)? Or, will the great educational revolution be full blown, where students work together on projects supporting the local community: designing a website for a non-profit organization, creating an original informational booklet for a local craft collective, assembling a newsletter for a homestay organization, in a learning-centered classroom with the "guide on the side" teacher, showing students how to use particular software or search engines, helping students to form questions that will help them to gather information about their particular organization, the teacher asking "open-ended" (Patton p. 295) questions to help her meet the needs of the students? I am a diehard utopian, but I am far from a technological utopian. In fact, I subscribe wholeheartedly to the words of Edward T. Hall, (1983) the cultural anthropologist, who writes...

...while I have great respect for the powerful theories of physical science and what they have taught mankind about the physical world, and for the many advances that science and technology have made, I am constrained to remind myself that life itself, and particularly life for the human species, is the ultimate value against which all else should be measured. Without people, technology means nothing. If the world's problems are to be solved, it will be by human beings, not by machines; the machines are only here to help us. Technology is an inevitable result of mankind's propensity to evolve outside his body. The record on this score is impressive, but it is now time for the human race to begin again to direct attention to human beings and the social institutions that make this technology possible. By focusing our attention outward, we have been diverted from the real task of life: the understanding and mastery of life itself. This is where our two

great but very different philosophical traditions (Western Philosophy and Zen) become increasingly relevant. (p. 9)

In this paper, I will attempt to answer the question; How can I teach my curriculum with this technology that is impossible to teach any other way? I will not answer the question; How will I change my curriculum to fit with this technology? It is important to understand the distinction, as some educators when faced with technology fall back on the latter question when it is critical to focus on the former. The style of this paper is purely anecdotal and based on personal experience. I do this, as I feel that my context, like all teaching and learning contexts, is unique and deserves to be personalized and as descriptive as possible. Nothing I write here should be taken as a prescription for a better way of doing things. I am merely trying to take a snapshot of where I stand at this moment.

## **A WAY AND WAYS**

I have been fortunate to have my very own private Internet connection for the past two years. It has given me the opportunity to "tinker" (Papert, 1980). This tinkering has been interesting and fun, but more importantly, I have learned a great deal about what the future holds for language students. As the Constructivist movement, including Brooks and Brooks (1993), Papert (1980, 1993, 1996), Piaget (1973), Resnick (1996), Vygotsky (1978) van der Veer and Valsiner (1994) and others have so aptly pointed out, (and taking a cue from Dewey, 1966) children, and perhaps older learners, gain understanding in social settings. As language teachers, we need to think carefully about constructing a social and cultural setting that promotes learning. The teacher should be taking on a new role, not as a giver of information or a "bank" (Freire, 1980) of knowledge, but as the "head learner". With the Internet moving quickly from sensation and novelty into more mainstream reality as the greatest learning tool devised by humankind, it is time that educators catch up with its potential uses.

In the past three years of using the Internet, I have settled on four important ways in which to use the Internet: (a) teaching students whom I can neither see nor hear, at their pace, on an individual basis, asynchronously; (b) not teaching, but being with learners, synchronously on a MOO; (c) teaching a "normal" class of students and using the Internet to supplement my lessons; and (d) using a MOO for my personal and professional development.

Below, I will describe as briefly as possible, each of these four ways of using the Internet.

## **VIRTUAL TEACHING**

Study.com (<<http://www.study.com>>), alternately called English for Internet (EFI), is run by professor David Winet at the University of California at Berkeley. He has been trying to set up a free English source for the past two years. It caters mainly to ESL/EFL students, but can include native speakers in some of the more advanced and content-based courses. Like a regular college catalogue, EFI lists its 13 courses, its teachers and their experience, and has a list of other resources. Students must take an on-line placement test in order to take certain classes, and are sent a certificate of completion for the 12-week courses.

I chose to give a teacher training course called "Internet for Professional Development" (now located at <<http://www.webcom.com/lbdavies/text/ipd/syll.html>>), from January, 1997, as my contribution to EFI. The idea of the course was to train both Native Speakers (NS) and Non-Native Speakers of English (NNS) in the uses of the Internet in language teaching. My class list originally consisted of six students from around the world. My first e-mail to the students asked them to introduce themselves and to help me to develop the course by making suggestions for what they wanted to learn.

Only three of the original six students responded to this first request. Two were NS from the United States, though one accessed the site from the Czech Republic. The other, a NNS, was in



Brazil. Very quickly, however, and most likely for technical reasons, the class was reduced to only one NS in New York City. We corresponded regularly and the student helped me to develop a full 12-week course, which is a general overview of tools and sites available for teachers of English. Though I ended up with only a single student, the degree of personalization and the feedback I received from the student helped me to develop, quite successfully, the site as it exists today.

The site itself contains twelve work sheets, each with a short set of objectives and a task-based organization. Students are asked to explore certain sites and report their findings, both through e-mail, but also through the use of a MOO (explained below). Stressing communication both via e-mail and in the synchronous environment of the MOO, the course was tailored to meet the flexible schedules of the students, though I was unable to use the MOO with the NS in New York in the initial construction of the site. The course finishes with a request that the student create a miniature website for language teaching and to pedagogically justify the site. As there are no grades, no attendance to take and no consequences for "wrong answers", students have the freedom to work where they want, when they want.

## **SCHMOOZING AT SCHMOOZE U.**

MOO stands for "Multi-user domain Object Oriented". This acronym within an acronym (SchMOOze <telnet://schmooze.hunter.cuny.edu:8888> is more simply defined as real time "conversation" in a text-based medium. In simplified technical talk, a MOO is a computer program sitting on a server. Any user from around the world can log into the server and issue commands to the program, which returns results based on the commands the user inputs. For language learning, though, a MOO is a virtual world, where real people exist in text-based descriptions with objects that can be virtually created and manipulated in whatever way any "programmer" on a MOO might imagine. MOOs, unlike chat rooms, are permanent entities that are under continuous construction. Users move through MOO space, much like they move through REAL space, with the realm of imagination substituting for the realm of the physical. They name themselves, either as themselves, or more usually as "characters" whom they play while on the MOO. They also have the option of immediately setting attributes of their gender and abilities, and can write a description of what they look like.

Imagine a character named "Fred". As other users type the command "look Fred" the server would return something like "You see a tall young man wearing a very ugly hat. He is awake and looks alert". The description had already been entered by "Fred" in anticipation of others "looking" at him. The more ambitious "Fred's" can go on to "build" rooms and other objects, as they gain knowledge and experience in how to use the MOO.

The pedagogical implications of MOO space and their various uses are described in some detail by Davies, Shield and Weininger (in press), McCarty (1996), Kirkpatrick (1996) and many others.

I do not "teach" on SchMOOze. I am simply there, when I want to be, and interact with the other NSs and NNSs who happen to log into the server. MOOs completely defy current educational paradigms. There is a lot of learning and building going on, but there is no set curriculum, no grading, no competition, no right or wrong way to do something, almost no inhibition in the practice of the language, no grammar teaching, no drilling. In short, it is not a "university" or an educational institution in any traditional sense of the word. Yet it is, from my view, an incredibly strong learning culture. NNS and NS, usually working together in various permutations, have built a virtual bar and dance floor, a virtual swimming pool, virtual games and even virtual classrooms.

On SchMOOze, my "character's" name is Godzilla. I originally chose the name for it's instant recognition, and the images that it would put into other users minds; the fearsome Japanese monster that ate Tokyo. Well, I am in Japan. My original description of Godzilla was the giant monster, but with the sniffles, symptoms from a lingering head cold that the monster had. Upon meeting new

people on SchMOOze, I would have Godzilla sneeze fire at people and apologize profusely for burning the eyebrows and hair of the other players. Lately, I have changed the description of Godzilla to "An indignant Fish." The giant lizard has literally devolved in MOO space, but retains its cutting edge wit and touch of cynicism, a remnant of the movie monster.

On SchMOOze, I have been working and researching with two virtual colleagues, which will be described below.

## **THE WORLD'S GREATEST TEXTBOOK!**

Of course, I teach in traditional "real life" universities, too. One course I teach at Nagoya University is called Introduction to Intercultural Communication. It is a 14-week course, meeting once a week for 90 minutes. This traditional time schedule for Japanese universities makes it difficult to create the human bonds necessary, I believe, for a good teacher-student relationship that would help in the student's language learning. Twenty-one total contact hours is, to be blunt, insufficient. Here is one place where the Internet can facilitate teacher-students contact. The course has a textbook which I have developed over the last two years. The text now fully integrates with a website I have developed as a supplement to the course material presented in class (<<http://www.webcom.com/lbdavies/text/l2lc/syll.html>>). Taken together, the text and site comprise over sixty-five pages, with each of the four units in the textbook represented by their website counterparts. This on-line version of the text is not a replication, but a way for students to independently pursue and deepen their knowledge of the materials presented in the class.

Many of the activities on the website ask for students to sort through resource sites on the Internet, the world's greatest textbook, related to the topics and report back to me via form-embedded pages that send e-mail to me. I usually then respond to the e-mail and I can further deepen the dialogues that I have previously started in the classroom activities.

I have described these work sheet activities in more detail (Davies, 1997a), as well as other features of the course, including an in-depth key pal component (Davies, 1997b), where the key pals are more accurately described as "supplemental teacher(s)" (p. 49).

One last activity of note in the work sheets is a "self-ethnography" that I have designed (<<http://www.webcom.com/lbdavies/text/ws4.html>>). This "self-ethnography" is a series of five work sheets that ask the student to visit one site per work sheet and evaluate it according to personal criterion. This work sheet encourages some very in-depth self-exploration and has more deeply cemented some of the personal relationships I have had with the students. Much of the feedback I received from the course emphasized the appreciation of these work sheets as part of the overall learning experience. Yes, much of what I am reporting here is anecdotal at the moment, but it has helped me to focus more on some of my research questions about the usefulness of the Internet. My intuition tells me that there is a lot of untapped power to be found through using the Internet in this way.

## **BACK TO THE MOOTURE**

Hall's focus on the human side of the technology is something I would like to stress again here. The Intercultural Communication site is still under development, as it is missing the key component: using the MOO in supplemental classes, or using the MOO to discuss and document, in more detail, the developing relationship between teacher-student and student-student. (<<http://halley.yadata.com.br/schMOOze/index.html>>)

The other very rewarding relationship I have been able to develop on SchMOOze is my professional work with Lesley Shield and Markus J. Weininger. Lesley (with the character name Lesley on SchMOOze) and Markus (with the character name Markus on SchMOOze) are the great unseen

forces at work in my professional world. I do not know their voices. I do not know Lesley's face, though Markus' picture can be found at our mutually developed website. The three of us have understood firsthand, how inherently revolutionary the Internet is.

Lesley works as project officer advising on the use of new technology for distance language learning and participating in materials development for the Open University in Milton Keynes, United Kingdom, a full eight-hours' time difference behind me. Markus, a German language, culture and literature lecturer, who also teaches linguistics and the use of computer based resources for language learning purposes, is at a university in Florianopolis, Brazil. He is exactly twelve hours behind me. Yet, with these vast differences in time and space, we have been meeting regularly on SchMOOze since February, 1997. Our meetings are sometimes spontaneous, sometimes pre-scheduled, sometimes purely social, sometimes strictly business, sometimes amazingly productive, sometimes an unorganized mess. Yet, we have come to understand and work together to develop professionally within our closely related fields. We have written articles, presented virtually and developed a full website, documenting our interactions, and gathering data from our MOO sessions for discourse analysis on a MOO (Markus is a NNS, Lesley, a NS).

Industrial Language Learning R.I.P. (1840??-2000??)

This type of long distance, disjointed time and space relationship is completely impossible without the Internet. Yet Hall, again, reminds me of the importance of the human relationship as the means to discover the life that is within all of us and is enhanced through lifelong learning. The importance of the relationship, though, lies within our capacity to understand the human elements involved in the Internet and to look beyond the "gee whiz" technology that brings us together. Whether it is in a "real" classroom, or a virtual classroom, I hope to see the death of the type of "learning", not just language learning, that has been around since the beginning of the industrial revolution; the type of learning that creates not producers of knowledge and inquiry, but passive recipients and consumers of unrelated bits of useless information. The use of the Internet to create this new type of learning that I have, very admittedly, merely summarized above is, I believe, a great positive force of change that is whipping through the phone lines and optical cables of the world, and I welcome it with open arms.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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## THE AUTHOR

Larry Davies has been researching technology in the language classroom since 1991. He has led online workshops for Neteach. He has taught virtual courses via the Internet and is currently conducting research on using the internet for collaborative projects. He is also the JALT World Wide Website editor.

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# An Experience and some Ideas in Using Computers in the ESL Classroom.

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**IRINA GADOLINA**

*Yong-in Technical College*

In this paper the author, a former Computer Science teacher, shares her ideas on using computers to maintain good ESL teaching approaches. Often even simple computer programs can help the teacher (a) to stimulate students to work independently, (b) to check class participation and (c) to avoid excess paper work. Many grammar and vocabulary exercises can be easily performed using computers. We do not need expensive multimedia computers for all of these programs, 486 series IBM-compatible machines are sufficient.

Using highly-sophisticated multimedia programs can leave an English teacher out of a job, the joke tells us, because students are so busy with the computers they do not pay attention to the teacher. However, we are not likely to destroy computers as the workers in the Middle Ages did when they destroyed the then new manufacturing machines. We can think of ways to use computers in the ordinary ESL classroom for better understanding between the teacher and the students. That is especially important when they speak different languages.

## COMPUTER TESTING

Many people are looking for something extraordinary to motivate students to study. Why during the semester do we often forget grades? Most teachers grade their students at the end of the semester regardless of student performance. If students receive more tests during the semester, they may not be as stressed at the final exam. The final grade would be more representative of the students achievements. Students may be motivated to study steadily and may also improve attendance.

Computer testing can be helpful in organizing a constant monitoring of the students' knowledge with a system of many tests. It is possible only with cooperation between the various departments in the school. At Yong-In Technical College we have an example of such cooperation. The Department of Electronics puts their computer lab at our disposal twice a month at a time which is convenient for them and for us. Students have a chance to show their knowledge of English vocabulary and grammar rules. The classroom situation during such a test is much more relaxed in comparison with the ordinary pen-and-paper test. The students look forward, not down or away. The teacher is not angry, because he knows that all the questions are randomly selected and the students could not cheat. The teachers are happy because it does not involve a lot of paper work with checking and grading. All results are provided by the computer. A Local Area Network (LAN) is better for integrated scoring and testing. Still, the computer is considered a toy by young learners as well as older ones.

The programs in use at Yong-in Technical College have been written by a team of Computer Science and English teachers in Moscow (Zhukova, Kухlevskaya, & Semenov, 1997). They are ready to share them without fee<sup>1</sup>. The programs were written for the MS DOS system, and it is easy to

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1. For more information please contact <Andrew.A.Semenov@p3.f1224.n5020.z2.fidinet.org>

"fill" them up with any exercise. See Zettersten (1986) for a description of a similar system. This approach has been undeservedly forgotten in recent years. Teachers still have piles of papers to check, and they can prepare at most only one test variant using a photocopy machine. This can lead to students' cheating.

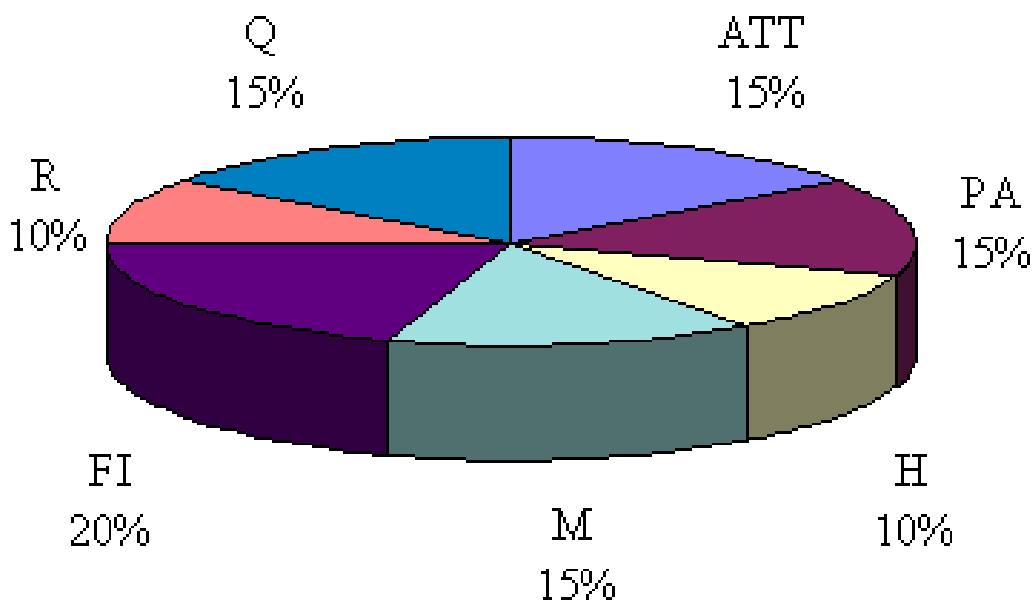
I do not want to be like the professor who is kind and pleasant in class but turns mean and disagreeable during tests. It is better to be in the middle; just do not forget that teaching is a game, like everything in our life. Let us play it using the rules and let us not make it too boring.

## GRADING

Do you know which currency is currently strong in Korea? The value of the Won is falling, sometimes the Dollar does too, but a grade of A is always very valuable currency in Korea. We can play "gamble games" in class to improve interest, the payoff is an A for the half of the class who win. Students enjoy the activity, but the teacher is going to have a difficult time making grades at the end of the semester.

Imagine you have 400 students each semester to grade (a common situation). You may have many different marks in your list. First, you check for absences. Next, you will have the grades for the midterm and final tests that ranged from A to F. You may also have these grades for the quizzes, which may count for less. Our As for our gamble games are very cheap (I am not sure, if my students know that). Sometimes I just give them Fs as a punishment, if they do not do the pair practice or their homework. In this case F, is a negative value. But if I give F for a test, it must be positive, at least it indicates that the student came to English class and did not play basketball. The mark H means the student presented a written note for being absent (i.e. student went to a hospital).<sup>2</sup>

FIGURE 1



2. I took the idea of a detailed list from Peter Ackroyd's presentation at the 1996 KOTESOL Conference. He told us about his list: it was huge so all his sixty students could see it. I am sorry I did not see it. It must be wonderful!

There may be more than 1000 marks of ten different types in one of my lists. I was terrified when I first realized I needed to balance all these marks, and was almost sorry about being too generous with As during our the "gamble games." I like EXCEL, so I decided to use this tool to calculate the student's score.

First, in our school we were asked to use the formula:

$$100\% \text{ SCO} = 20\% \text{ ATT} + 20\% \text{ PA} + 10\% \text{ HO} + 20\% \text{ M} + 30\% \text{ FI}$$

where SCO is the total score; ATT is attendance; PA is participation; HO is homework; M is midterm exam and FI is final exam. Then I developed the following formula:

$$100\% \text{ SCO} = 15\% \text{ ATT} + 15\% \text{ PA} + 10\% \text{ H} + 15\% \text{ M} + 20\% \text{ FI} + 10\% \text{ R} + 15\% \text{ Q}$$

Here all former notations are the same with R as easy reading, and Q is quizzes. Figure 1 shows the formula as a pie chart. Each component (ATT, PA,.....Q) is estimated in its own way. To appreciate the participation (PA) for example, you could choose the different weights for the different activities. The marks H here also have to count for a little (it may be an average score for this student per hour).

This formula is not a law. We could change the formula if, for instance, we had not enough time for easy reading. Using the computer program alleviates any difficulties.

In the future I would like to discuss the formula with all the students in each class and even use student polls. In this case, students may have a sense of responsibility about their grades. It also would be nice to use these calculations during the semester for the constant monitoring of the class, so students could see their progress (at least comparatively) every week. It would be possible with a fully computerized grading system and a screen projector. Someday students who are not doing very well may look at their low scores and will think: "It is just the time to start studying!"<sup>3</sup>

## ELECTRONIC TEXTS

Many teachers already appreciate the opportunities provided with a system of pair practice (information gap activities). The task is often clear and the material is often interesting. To complete the activities, students must ask questions to their partners and fill in the missing information on their pages. The activities are meant to stimulate students' conversation. What do we see in reality? Our dear partners-students are very busy in copying from page A to page B without troubling themselves to ask questions and the teacher is furiously running around the classroom not trying to explain the importance of pair practice, but just slamming the Student's books closed while crying out: "Only one page!"<sup>4</sup>

The problem with such tasks is in giving feedback. In reality, we should check both the filling in of the missing information and the conversation. It is difficult to manage. What can be done to develop this approach using computers? A computer variant of a student's book (such as *Interchange* Richards, 1990 etc.) for pair practice. I venture to make the following proposal.

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3. One day a good friend of mine, a Korean, who is a teacher of Textile Design in our College, mentioned it may be harmful to tell the good Korean students their grades, because they may be too proud of their scores and may even stop studying. So far the last word is from the pedagogical psychologists, who say that our students need support. The best way to give support is to appreciate their contribution to school life. Taking part in games means much for a sense of collectivism, which is so strong in Korean students and also gives support to the individual.

4. It would be nice to have different books for partners. Lesley Koustaff has written a more advanced book, *A Marathon Mouth* from Intercom Press, Fukuoka, Japan. This book contains four different pages: A, B, C and D. At the presentation of the book at the 1997 Korea TESOL Conference I asked the author, why he did not write four books, he replied; "It is too expensive". And then added: "Someone will lose his book anyway".

Nowadays some English teachers already use a LAN for writing and composition in English classes. Let us imagine our English classroom, which is equipped with a LAN and an appropriate program. This LAN and program connects the teacher with all students and connects each pair of partner-students. This connection should provide a chat connection as well as voice contact (like a telephone). We also need an interactive program, which allows filling in of blanks (pages A and B) and shows students' progress.

## **THE AUTHOR**

After graduating from the Moscow Technical University, Irina V. Gadolina was employed at the Moscow Engineering Research Institute. In 1990, she received a PhD in Mechanics. In 1996, she was invited to Korea by Yong-In Technical College to teach Mechanics and English.

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# Culture in the Classroom: Perceptions and Misperceptions

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**STEVE GARRIGUES**

*Kyongbuk National University, Taegu*

Language is an integral part of culture, and language is also the conveyor of culture. Whenever we deal with a language we are also inevitably dealing with cultural phenomena. And if we are engaged in teaching a second language are we not also somehow engaged in teaching a second culture? As obvious as this may at first seem, the answer is not really so simple. Even though there has recently been a notable increase in the number of English teachers in Korea who are consciously attempting to introduce an intercultural perspective into their classes, this has been at best sporadic and uneven. There exist no agreed-upon guidelines for dealing with culture in the English classroom, nor is there even any consensus among English teachers in Korea regarding the extent to which intercultural issues should be a part of language teaching.

What is really needed at this point is open discussion among English teachers in Korea about the position of cultural issues in the teaching of English as a foreign language. It is with the hope of stimulating further discussion and debate in this area that I would like to raise several issues relating to the interface between culture and language as it effects the teaching of English in Korea. In this paper I will touch upon three general areas: (a) the question of "standard" English and the role of dialectal variants in English teaching, (b) the question of body language and "English" gestures, and (c) cultural aspects of words and meanings.

## **SPOKEN ENGLISH: "STANDARD" AND DIALECTS**

There is a decided bias in Korea toward North American English (NAE) as THE spoken standard (see Gibb, this issue). This, of course, has its basis in recent Korean history, but it is sometimes rather surprising to see the extent to which NAE is favored over any of the other major variants (i.e., British, Australian, etc.). This bias is most visible in the recruiting practices of language institutes, but it is also seen in the explicit preferences of students and parents as well. (I will not get into the further issue here of racial bias favoring "white" over "colored" EFL teachers in Korea.) This bias is even stronger when NAE is compared with other varieties of English (Philippine, Indian, Pakistani, etc.). The fact that the overwhelming majority of native-speaker EFL teachers in Korea are from North America only compounds this bias.

In the past, Korean students learned English in order to pass English language examinations, and little more. There was scant likelihood that any particular individual would actually find himself in a situation where English as a means of spoken communication would be useful. But things are rapidly changing, and with Korea's emergence onto the world stage there is a real and growing need for competent English speakers in all spheres of public and social life, including business, technology, academics, diplomacy, transportation and of course mass communications. Willy-nilly, like it or not, English has emerged as the major language of world communication. What this means, ultimately, is

that most Korean speakers of English throughout their future careers, if they use English at all, will be interacting mostly with those who are not NAE speakers. Some of them will be native speakers of British, Irish, Australian, New Zealand or South African English, but most will speak English as a second or foreign language. Given this world context of English as an International Language, it is provincial indeed to consider NAE to be the world standard.

When my students ask me about intensive English courses overseas I always advise them to consider taking a winter vacation course in the Philippines. There are a number of reputable programs in the Philippines, the cost of living there is much lower than in North America or England, and the weather is ideal compared to winter in Taegu, Toronto or London. The objection which inevitably follows is almost always the same: "But they talk with a funny accent. I do not want to learn English with a Filipino accent." Is this response logical? First, I would hardly consider Filipino English to sound any more peculiar than Korean English; and secondly, despite years of study with North American English teachers, Koreans still speak English like Koreans rather than North Americans. It would be an exceptional individual indeed who could pick up a Filipino accent within two or three months. Such objections are merely surface manifestations of the underlying NAE bias.

Apart from the question of accent and pronunciation, is the issue of grammar and dialectal variants. Along with the NAE bias in Korea is a wide spread acceptance of the *wanna-gonna-gotta* triad. While some North American English teachers do seem to teach their students the use of these forms, or at least their recognition, it seems to be mostly the Korean English teachers who emphasize their usage. I have even seen this on educational TV. Regardless of where they are getting it, there is a general feeling among students that the use of *gonna-wanna-gotta* somehow enhances their level of apparent fluency (it seems to be especially common among those students who are ex-KATUSAs).<sup>1</sup> It is not uncommon to find these forms even in students' written compositions, something an educated native speaker might avoid.

There are several problems related to the usage of *gonna-wanna-gotta*. First, these forms are distinctively a feature of the NAE dialect and are not prevalent in other parts of the world, a fact which neither Korean students nor Korean English teachers seem to realize. Their usage can therefore hardly be considered "standard" as far as international English is concerned.

Secondly, although students readily adopt the use of *gonna-wanna-gotta* and find it easier to pronounce than "going to", "want to" and "have got to" (and why else do we have them?) they fail to learn the actual grammatical rules for their usage. This to a large degree is the fault of the teacher. For instance, students indiscriminately use "wanna" in place of "want to" as well as "wants to". While it may be appropriate to say "I *wanna* go" it is never appropriate to say "He *wanna* go." The correct third person singular of *wanna* is *wansta*. But is this ever taught in English class? And should it be taught?

There are also sociolinguistic considerations in the usage of those words which Korean teachers and students are seldom aware of. In every language there are social levels of speech, some are all-pervasive and obligatory (as in Korean and Japanese) while others have a wider degree of flexibility (as in English). In NAE the usage of *gonna-wanna-gotta* is generally associated with informal speech on the one hand (by those who shift between "gonna" and "going to" depending upon the social context), and on the other hand with lower class, uneducated speech (i.e., among those who do not shift between "gonna" and "going to").

To illustrate what I mean here, when speaking with a close friend or with one's family members, an educated NAE speaker may use "gonna" or "gotta", but in a more formal situation, say speaking with a prospective employer or negotiating an important business deal with new clients, the same

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1. Korean Augmentation Troops to the United States Army. Korean soldiers assigned to American military units.

individual may shift to "going to" and "have got to." On the other hand, an educated salesman or a politician may use "gonna" and "gotta" in more formal situations consciously and explicitly for the purpose of projecting an image of being a "regular guy", someone just like you and me. There is no doubt that we judge others by such linguistic cues, often subconsciously, but these cues are seldom perceived by most non-native speakers. Thus, if a Korean businessman, speaking clearly non-native English, were to say something like "I gonnæ give you a good deal if you wanna buy this product", he would probably not project to the listener a very appropriate image. Rather than appearing to be the urbane and well-educated professional he actually is, he might inadvertently be projecting the image of a sleazy back-alley entrepreneur who had picked up his English without formal training.

It is crucial that the language learner, not to mention the language teacher, should be aware of the differences between dialectal speech and "standard" speech, and especially with the sociolinguistic levels of speech. To teach one's students to use such forms as gonna-wanna-gotta without also helping them understand the appropriate patterns and contexts for their use would be doing them a great disservice.

### **BODY LANGUAGE AND "ENGLISH" GESTURES**

Verbal expression, of course, is not the only form of communication. A large proportion of actual interpersonal communication is through kinesic and proxemic cues, which are always used to supplement the spoken word. Everyone is aware of the fact that "Korean gestures" and "English gestures" are not the same, but there are some common misunderstandings in this area. If you were to ask anyone, "Who gestures more, Koreans or North Americans?", the answer would almost inevitably be "North Americans." In order to compare gestures cross-culturally it is necessary to first divide them into two distinct categories. I call these two types "emphatic gestures" and "semantic gestures." The first type, which can also be called gesticulation, is used for emphasis while speaking, like underlining words or using italics in writing, and does not generally carry any specific semantic content. These gestures do not really mean anything, but are a common component of expressive speech. The second type of gesture, however, does convey specific meaning. Semantic gestures are like words or phrases, except that they are kinesic rather than vocal. For example, any native English speaker would be able to visualize the gestures for "come here", "I don't know", "so-so (not bad)", or "quote-unquote." A Korean, on the other hand, would probably not visualize the same gestures.

Now, if we return to the question of who gestures more while speaking, Koreans or North Americans, we would have to qualify the question as to which type. Generally speaking North Americans use emphatic gestures more than Koreans. But Koreans use them more than Japanese, and Italians use them more than Anglo-Americans. When it comes to the second type, however, things are much more equal. Although comprehensive data is not available, I think it would be fairly safe to say (on the basis of my own observations over the past thirty years in some 25 countries) that all cultures/languages contain a similar range of semantic gestures. Koreans and North Americans employ roughly the same amount of semantic gestures while speaking. The difference lies not in the degree of gesturing or the number of distinct gestures used, but rather in the form and meaning of the gestures themselves. Thus the above-mentioned "come here", "I don't know", "so-so" and "quote-unquote" gestures may be quite natural and familiar to a native English speaker, but to a Korean they might seem awkward (as with "I don't know"), incomprehensible ("so-so" and "quote-unquote"), or downright insulting ("come here"). On the other hand, the Korean gesture for "come here" is likely to be misunderstood as a wave by a North American or European, while the Korean gestures signifying "boss" or "lover" would probably be incomprehensible.

This brings us to the question of the role of gestures in the teaching of English in Korea. Should students be taught to use appropriate "English gestures" while speaking English? And more to the

point, are there really any true "English" gestures at all?

Over the past 12 or 13 years I have been asked to judge innumerable English speech contests. These have ranged from incredibly cute pre-schoolers to articulate and sophisticated university students. One thing I have noticed time and time again, especially with middle and high school speech contests, is that many of the students have obviously been coached by their teachers to use plenty of gestures. The effect, however, is usually less than impressive. Why should this be? First, many teachers seem to assume that since North Americans tend to use many emphatic gestures while speaking, in order to appear fluent Koreans should also use similar gestures. But emphatic gestures are not easily faked - if you do not feel them they appear stilted and wooden at best. Actually, such gesticulation is more a matter of personal and ethnic style rather than being an inherent part of English speech. An Oxford don may be unlikely to gesticulate at all while speaking, while an Italian American from the Bronx may be hard put to speak expressively while keeping his hands in his pockets, and yet both would equally be considered to be speaking fluent English. Therefore, if a Korean feels comfortable speaking English without much use of emphatic gestures, I would say this is much more natural and appropriate than forcing oneself to use stilted and self-conscious gestures. My advice to those school teachers preparing their students for an English speech contest would be, help them with their spoken English but let them use their own body language. In effective public speaking the most important features of body language are actually eye contact and posture; gestures are secondary.

Now when we consider the use of semantic gestures in English speech we again come to the question of which gestures are truly "English." Shrugging one's shoulders to mean "I don't know." or "I don't care." is quite natural for a North American or an Englishman, but feels strange and unnatural to most Koreans. Is this a necessary feature of English communication, to be learned by Korean students of English in the same way as other vocabulary items? And how about the standard Euro-American beckoning gesture for "come here"? Should Koreans use this gesture while speaking English, despite the fact that it is extremely insulting in any Korean context?

If we look more carefully at typical "English" semantic gestures we begin to see that there is no clear one-to-one correspondence of gesture to language. Just as words may be borrowed between languages and words also differ between dialects of the same language, the use of individual gestures cuts across linguistic boundaries. The "English" shrug, for instance, is also the "Gallic" shrug. The back handed "V" gesture may signify the number two or be an uncommon alternative for the palm-out "Victory/Peace" gesture in North America, but in England or Australia it must be used with caution since it is the equivalent of the North American middle-finger gesture (as George Bush discovered, much to his chagrin).

These few examples should suffice to make it clear that gestures, while an extremely important part of interpersonal communication, are not necessarily an integral and inseparable feature of any specific language. In the present globalizing world environment, when Koreans are more and more likely to be interacting with others in English, it would also be a valuable part of language instruction to learn about the range of different gestures and their various meanings and contexts (if only to know what to avoid), but at the same time it would seem to be rather provincial for an English language instructor to insist that particular gestures must accompany the speaking of English. This is more a question of culture and ethnicity than a question of "standard" English. After all, if the 30 million or so Indian English speakers can use South Asian body language while fluently speaking English, it would seem to be equally appropriate for Korean English speakers to use Korean body language while speaking English in Korea. They should, however, also be able to use the appropriate kinesic cues in other cultural contexts.

## WORDS AND MEANINGS: THE PROBLEM OF "DICTIONARY ENGLISH"

One of the major problems facing students of English in Korea is the prevalence of the "dictionary approach" to the language. This approach is based upon the naive assumption of the absolute equivalence of words between languages, as recorded in standard concise bilingual dictionaries. The students learn to internalize a set of word equivalents and then draw upon these in the appropriate context. The hybrid result of this approach to language learning (and language teaching, for that matter) is a kind of "translation English" which has quite appropriately been termed "Konglish" since it makes use of English-sounding words with a Korean range of meaning. The actual fact is that no two languages have words with the same range of meaning, and this is especially the case with languages as diverse as English and Korean. The hapless Korean student of English, even after many years of meticulous study of "translation English," may likely find himself in a cross-cultural encounter in which his language knowledge actually proves to be a greater barrier to communication than it is a bridge to understanding.

To illustrate what I mean here, let us consider the Korean word *yaksok* [약속].<sup>2</sup> If a Korean student is asked how to say *yaksok* in English, the word "promise" inevitably pops up. Whenever a Korean student says "I have to break my promise," their intended meaning is usually quite different. A promise is a very sincere and binding commitment, and it is considered a serious infraction to break one's promise. The Korean word *yaksok* is not the simple equivalent of the English word "promise." The Korean word has a wide semantic range encompassing much more than any single English word. It does mean "promise" but it can also mean "appointment, date, engagement, contract, agreement," etc. Thus, instead of "breaking a promise", which would have been a very serious thing to do, the speaker most likely simply intended to cancel an appointment, which is a common enough occurrence. And how often have we heard someone say "I have a promise tonight," which sounds rather strange in English. It would really be more appropriate to say that they have an "appointment" or "date". The reason for such statements is that the speaker is thinking the Korean concept *yaksok* and then translating it into verbal English (or rather Konglish).

It might be useful here to consider the basic question, what is a word? On the surface, a word seems to be a symbol (spoken, written or otherwise) for a thing. But that "thing" does not really exist as a discrete entity. Rather a word is a symbol for a category of things. Reality may be conceived of as an infinite range of discrete "things" (objects, colors, textures, feelings, emotions, actions, smells, etc.). To make manageable order out of this chaotic reality we (our cultures) create a limited number of categories, and these categories we think of as words. Since different cultures/languages arrange these categories somewhat differently, we can see that words may have a greater or lesser degree of overlap between languages, but they will never be precisely the same. Therefore, to use the above example, the Korean category/word *yaksok* encompasses a relatively wider range of phenomena than the English word "promise".

Another word which is commonly misused is "friend." If the Korean student thinks that "friend" is the same as *ch'in'gu* [친구] he is sorely mistaken. In this case the Korean word has a narrow range of meaning, while the English word is much broader. Indeed, some "friends" are *ch'in'gu*, but many individuals we call by that term would not be. At its broadest, the term "friend" can be applied to anyone who is known to some degree and who is not an enemy. I may call someone a "friend" who is 40 years my senior, or 40 years my junior. The person we apply the word "friend" to may be either man or woman, well-known or merely an acquaintance, of the same social standing, or higher, or lower. I may refer to the old lady in the market whom I buy fruit from every week (and whose name I do not even know) as "a friend of mine." My old professor, whom I visit every few years, is certainly a

2. Romanization of Korean words in this article follows the McCune-Reischauer system.

"friend" of mine, and so is the child of my neighbor. An elementary school teacher may address her first class of the year by saying that she wants her students to consider her as a good "friend", and many parents and children consider each other to be among their best "friends" (some, of course, are "enemies"). None of these, however, would be appropriately considered to be within the category *ch'in'gu*. In Korean the relationship referred to as *sonbae-hubae* [선배-후배] would not be considered *ch'in'gu*, but to say that "juniors and seniors cannot be friends in Korea" would be confusing the Korean words with the English words. While *sonbae* and *hubae* are not *ch'in'gu*, they certainly can be considered "friends".

It is necessary to understand that we are not talking about the meaning of friendship, or what kind of friends a person may have; we are discussing the usage of the words "friend" and *ch'in'gu*. This distinction is very important. For example, in English we can distinguish between someone who is "my friend" and someone who is "a friend of mine". The former may indeed be a friend, while the latter is often just an acquaintance. Context and sociolinguistic cues often vary the meaning we give a word, and those same meanings do not apply to the dictionary-equivalent word in Korean (or vice versa). Nor can any word be thought of as being monolithic, with an established and invariable range of meaning. The Korean word *ch'in'gu* is a good example of this. Koreans themselves do not use this word in identical ways. There are generational differences, gender differences, and regional differences in its range of meaning and usage.

It is held by some linguists that no single word means exactly the same thing to any two individuals, even within the same language. Even though the denotative meaning (or dictionary meaning) may be virtually the same, the connotative range (nuances) may vary extensively from individual to individual, depending upon their various life experiences and the associations made with the words in question. Nor do the meanings of words remain static from generation to generation; there is inevitable change over time in all languages. Language exists, after all, not in grammar books or dictionaries, but in the usage of its carriers, and every speech act in a sense recreates and modifies that language.

It should therefore not be surprising that when we compare such diverse and unrelated languages as Korean and English, we find wide differences in the semantic range of individual words. Just as the differences in individual idiolects are due to the unique life experiences of each individual, likewise the differing range of meaning to be found in similar words between languages is due to the collective experience of the language users. In short, these differences are a cultural phenomenon. The following are a few more examples of the kind of common misuse and misunderstanding of English words which often occur when Korean speakers use English words with Korean meanings.

One simple English word that sometimes causes confusion and miscommunication is the word "hip". For instance, a year or so ago the English language newspapers in Korea rather gleefully carried the story of a confrontation and fight between a group of American soldiers and some Korean citizens in a Seoul subway, which reportedly broke out when one of the soldiers touched a Korean woman "on her hip". (The woman, incidentally, turned out to be the wife of the "offending" soldier.) Now hardly any English speaker would consider touching a person on the hip to be such a serious matter, and the newspaper accounts left readers with the impression that Koreans were overly sensitive or too quick to take offence. Similarly, I recall being asked by a group of my students who were studying *Readers Digest* to help them understand a difficult passage. The puzzling quotation referred to old people who "fell and broke their hips". How could someone break their hip, the students wanted to know. Both of these misunderstandings come from the fact that almost all Koreans think "hip" means *ongdongi* [엉덩이] (after all, that's what all the dictionaries say). Actually the word "hip" has no equivalent in Korean, while the Korean word *ongdongi* almost always refers to one's posterior. In English we have many words for this part of the human anatomy ("buttocks, butt, fanny, ass, bottom,

behind, rear," etc.), some of them polite and some of them not, but the word "hip" is definitely not one of the alternatives. The fault often lies with bilingual dictionaries which make the simple equation *ongdonggi* = hip. I have found very few Korean speakers of English who knew that this was in fact not correct.

In the same vein, the English word "lap" also has no precise Korean equivalent, and is often confused with "knee", "thigh" or "leg". In English, "lap" refers to the place or area extending from one's knees to one's waist when one is seated. This is not a part of the body, and it ceases to exist as soon as one stands up. So a seated person has one lap, but a standing person has none. Very few English-Korean dictionaries make this clear. And it is because of this confusion that many Korean speakers of English use the word lap in the plural rather than singular.

Another common error is heard whenever someone says that their hobby is listening to music, or reading, or drinking *soju*. None of these are actually "hobbies" in the normal English sense. The problem arises from the assumption that the Korean word *ch'wimi* [취미] has the same meaning as the English word "hobby". The Korean word actually has a very wide range of meaning, and includes the English words "interest", "avocation", "pastime", and "taste" as well as "hobby". To most native English speakers the word "hobby" has quite a narrow range of meaning. It usually refers to a regular activity of either making things (such as knitting, making model airplanes, or photography) or collecting things (such as coins, stamps or match boxes) for enjoyment rather than income. Other activities that one does regularly for enjoyment and relaxation, such as listening to music, hiking or swimming, would normally be called "pastimes" rather than hobbies. And doing something because we have nothing better to do would just be "killing time". As pointed out above, however, we should understand that different speakers may use the word with a somewhat different range of meaning, but in any case I think it would be safe to say that native speakers would not extend the word "hobby" to include such things as watching TV or visiting with friends. The word "hobby" is one of the most common English words learned by middle school students; it is a pity that it is so often misused.

I would like to give one more common example of the difference in the range of meaning between Korean and English words. I can not count the times I have heard my students say something like "On Sunday I played with my friends." This creates in the mind's eye of the native English speaker the peculiar and humorous image of a couple of big individuals frolicking about or playing with dolls or toy cars! Here again the common bilingual dictionary, or its mental equivalent, is the main culprit. The Korean word *nolda* [놀다] has a very wide semantic range, and is usually translated simply as "play" although that English word has a more restricted range of meaning. In English, adults may "play something" but only children simply "play". In the common Korean usage of the word *nolda*, "play" would seldom be appropriate. Actually in English we do not have a single simple word with the same range of meaning as the Korea word. Instead, we would have to use some idiomatic expression such as "I hung out with my friends on Sunday" or "My friends and I had a good time together on the weekend."

These examples illustrate a very important point in the approach to teaching any foreign language. It must be realized that the range of meaning for individual words will differ greatly from language to language, and if effective communication is the goal, then these differences must be taken into consideration. When foreign English teachers find their students making the same mistakes over and over again, that is a good indicator that the underlying cause might be the contrasting cultural content and semantic range of the terms and patterns in question.

## CONCLUSION

A living language cannot be isolated from its cultural context. Some languages, such as Korean, can be considered monocultural, but this is decidedly not the case with English. English is a prime

example of a truly multicultural language. If English is to be taught in Korea as a means of communication rather than merely as another test item, then the cultural component must be dealt with in the classroom as well. This in turn requires us to develop a better understanding of the diverse cultural dimensions in which English exists, the multiplex ways in which the language and culture interact, and the bearing this has upon the teaching and learning of English in Korea.

### **THE AUTHOR**

Steve Garrigues was born in the United States but prefers to think of himself as a world citizen, having have spent most of his life outside of the US, primarily in Asia. With his wife and their two daughters, they have travelled extensively, usually by car, throughout North and Central America, Europe, the Middle East, and Asia. His greatest joys are meeting the peoples of the world, listening to the musics of the world, and eating the foods of the world.



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# Attitudes Toward Language Varieties: a Survey of University Students in Seoul

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**MICHAEL GIBB**

*Yonsei University*

This paper examines the attitudes held by university students toward varieties of English prevalent in Korea: American English (AmE), Australian English (AusE), and British English (BrE). It reports the findings of a survey that focuses on students' education, attitudes toward teachers and classroom materials, career plans, attitudes toward English varieties, and attitudes toward foreign cultures. The main objective is to establish which varieties of English these students prefer to learn, and why.

There are three main sections to the paper. Section 1 contains a review of recent research into attitude and motivation in second language acquisition (SLA), and attitudes toward varieties of English. It also describes the formation of the research question. Section 2 provides an account of the research procedure, covering the research instrument, the respondents and the research procedure. Section 3 presents and discusses the results of the survey. Section 4 looks at the implications of the results and makes several recommendations for future research, and Section 5 concludes the study.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

Gardner's (1988) social psychological model of SLA provides the theoretical background to this study. First, this section defines attitude and motivation, and discusses Gardner's distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation. Secondly, this section reviews previous studies into attitudes toward varieties of English. Thirdly, there is a brief examination of the research question.

## ATTITUDE AND MOTIVATION

Gardner and Gardner et al. (1985) provide the functional definitions of attitude and motivation used in this study. He defines attitude as "an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred from the individual's beliefs or opinions about the referent," (p. 9). He defines motivation as "the combination of effect plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward the language," (p. 10). Both definitions are considered appropriate for this study because they emphasize psychosocial factors. That is, both definitions acknowledge the significance of individuality and society in deciding a person's attitude and motivation. This study examines the psychosocial factors that might influence attitudes toward varieties of English such as attitudes toward education, teachers, jobs, and different cultures.

This paper, though, does not support Gardner's integrative motivation theory. His theory claims that integrative motivation is more powerful than instrumental motivation. Integrative motivation is a sincere desire to understand the people and culture of a target language group, and instrumental

motivation is a desire to learn a language for employment/ career goals (Gardner & Lambert 1959). Gardner argues that there is a clear-cut distinction between these two categories of motivation, and that integrative motivation is the more powerful force in language learning. He claims that people who are integratively motivated "will probably be more successful in learning a language than individuals not so motivated." (1988 pp. 105-106) The implication is that integratively motivated learners are more successful than instrumentally motivated learners.

Recent research, though, has weakened Gardner's theory. Dornyei (1990), in a study of attitudes held by Hungarian students toward language learning, notes that "learners with a high level of instrumental motivation and need for achievement are more likely than others to attain an intermediate level of proficiency." (p. 70) He argues that, in EFL contexts, learners often have not had enough exposure to the culture of the target language to feel integratively motivated. Subsequently, long-term career goals become strong instrumental reasons for studying a language. The implication for this study, then, is that students are more likely to be instrumentally motivated, since they are studying in an EFL context, rather than an ESL one in which there would be daily contact with the target culture.

An additional problem with Gardner's theory is that he clearly distinguishes between integrative and instrumental motivation, whereas other researchers suggest that the terms overlap. For example, Chihara and Oller (1978) suggest that it is possible to use both terms to refer to the same phenomenon, arguing that "in some cases either interpretation may do." (p. 4) Dornyei reiterates this point, claiming that the desire to integrate into a community is probably both integrative and instrumental. That is, a desire to integrate with another culture may be motivated by future employment plans, not necessarily by a desire to understand the culture more clearly. Therefore, in this study, the two types of motivation are regarded as overlapping concepts, rather than distinct entities.

### **Attitudes toward different varieties of English**

This section looks at the relevance of geopolitical factors and the influence of institutionalized exams.

First, recent research suggests a close link between learners' attitudes toward varieties of English and geopolitical factors. A language variety is identified by particular linguistic features that associate it with a particular geographical location, ethnic group or social class (see Sato 1989). Shaw (1983) argues that the choice between BrE and AmE is influenced by historical factors, such as British colonialism and the spread of American culture. He notes that whereas Indians and Singaporeans preferred BrE to AmE, Thais preferred AmE to BrE. Kachru (1982) supports this hypothesis, arguing that historical links probably account for Indians preference for BrE rather than for AmE. Therefore, it is possible that America's strong historical ties with Korea may influence attitudes toward varieties of English. To investigate this hypothesis, questions related to geopolitical factors are included in this study.

Secondly, regarding testing, Prodromou (1992) proposes that language exams have a possible 'backwash' effect on attitudes toward varieties of English. He notes that 75% of Greek students prefer to learn BrE. One explanation is that most Greek students take British-based language exams, such as the Cambridge proficiency exams. The implication is that the nationality of proficiency exams might influence choice of language variety. In Korea, the standard proficiency test is TOEFL, an American-based exam. This may be a significant factor in influencing learners' preferences. To investigate this hypothesis, a question on attitudes toward tests and test-scores is included in this study.

With the theoretical basis for the research question established, the next section describes the research question.

## **The research question**

The research question is formulated thus: What are the attitudes of Korean university students toward different varieties of English, and what is the rationale for their preferences?

It was thought that this group would prefer AmE, considering the geopolitical factors and the institutionalized exams administered in Korea. It was hypothesized that the group would be instrumentally motivated to learn AmE, considering that the students are in an EFL situation, and that career plans would play a significant role in determining choices. The following section describes the investigation into the research question.

## **RESEARCH METHOD**

This section begins by reporting the nature of the research instrument, and then proceeds to describe the respondents and the research procedure.

### **Research instrument**

The survey took the form of a questionnaire. An initial questionnaire was piloted, consisting of thirty-four closed format direct questions. It was based on the Attitude/ Motivation Test Battery (Gardner & Lambert, 1972), and used a five-point Likert scale (see Seliger and Shohamy, 1989). The results were unsatisfactory, though, since the questions were too restrictive. A restrictive question is "I prefer AmE teachers: do you agree or disagree?" A more open question would be "I prefer my teacher to be: (a) American, (b) Australian, (c) British, (d) Other, (e) all." Open-type questions offer the student more choice, and offer the researcher more information.

The revised questionnaire consists of fourteen questions: eleven open-type questions and three closed-type questions. The three closed-type questions use this Likert scale: 5= agree very much, 4= agree, 3= neutral, 2= disagree and 1= disagree very much. The questionnaire is contained in Appendix A.

The results of the eleven open-type questions are represented by raw scores. Raw scores are used because the sample group is small, only 58 respondents, so there is a greater degree of clarity. Percentages are included, but only to relate raw scores to the size of the sample group.

The results of the three Likert-scale questions are expressed as mean score averages. A score of 3.6, for example, means neutral to weak agreement. A score of 2.6 means neutral to weak disagreement.

The full set of results is contained in Appendix B. To save space, in Section 3 there is only a raw score for the "Other" option in Questions 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14 and 15. The reader is referred to Appendix B for full details of the learners' choices.

### **Respondents**

The respondents were 58 Yonsei University students studying English at the Foreign Language Institute (FLI). There were 42 females and 16 males, and the average age was 21.4 years. The respondents were studying in one of seven different levels of proficiency, ranging from Level One, lowest proficiency, to Level Seven, highest proficiency.

The FLI course is not part of any undergraduate programme at Yonsei University. The course is not compulsory and students participate during their free-time. Students are highly motivated and maintain a positive attitude toward language learning.

At the time of the study, the respondents were studying a range of degree courses, including Science, Engineering, Liberal Arts, Nursing, Business Administration. Only a small number took

English as a major subject within their degree programme.

### Research Procedure

The questionnaire was administered in May 1997 during class-time. Teachers were instructed not to discuss the questions with the students before they had completed their answers. It was thought that prior discussion might influence the respondents' decisions. Teachers were told that the questionnaire was part of a research assignment for postgraduate study, and that it was not connected to Yonsei FLI administrative policy. It was considered appropriate to do so since most teachers were sensitive to issues related to varieties of English.

All 58 questionnaires were completed according to instructions, and were collected the same day. The results were tabulated by hand, and, to maintain validity and reliability, all calculations were checked by a research assistant.

### Results and Discussion

The results are presented in the same sequence as on the questionnaire to maintain consistency: (a) Education, (b) Attitudes toward the teacher and materials, (c) Future employment, (d) Attitudes toward AmE, and (e) Attitudes toward foreign culture. A full set of results and key is included in Appendix B. In addition, the following variables are used: N = number in group, f = frequency ( the number of times an item was selected ), and X = the mean (the average score).

### Education

Questions related to Education reveal significant information about respondents attitudes towards different varieties of English. First, they suggest that respondents have strong integrative and instrumental motives to learn AmE. Secondly, they reveal that institutional examinations do not affect choice of English variety (cf. Attitudes toward different varieties of English).

In Table 1, question one shows that, if given a choice, most of the respondents would prefer to

**TABLE 1**  
**EDUCATION**

| Question   | Descriptor | Results<br>N=58<br>f | %    | X   |
|--|------------|----------------------|------|-----|
| 1. I would like to study English in :  | America    | 35                   | 60.3 |     |
|  | Australia  | 2                    | 3.4  |     |
|  | Britain    | 9                    | 15.5 |     |
|  | Other      | 9                    | 15.5 |     |
|  | NP         | 3                    | 5.2  |     |
| 2. I want to learn AmE because I want to improve my TOEFL score                                | 5          | 1                    | 1.7  | 2.9 |
|  | 4          | 17                   | 29.3 |     |
|  | 3          | 23                   | 39.7 |     |
|  | 2          | 14                   | 24.1 |     |
|  | 1          | 3                    | 5.2  |     |
| 3. Which variety(s) of English is/are the most useful for your university course (your major)? | AmE        | 48                   | 82.3 |     |
|  | AusE       | -                    | -    |     |
|  | BrE        | 2                    | 3.4  |     |
|  | Other      | 2                    | 3.4  |     |
|  | All        | 6                    | 10.3 |     |

study English in America. The results show that 35 respondents chose America, and three respondents put America equal first with Britain (see Appendix B: Q1). In comparison, nine people chose Britain and two people chose Australia. The data suggest that the respondents are integratively motivated, because studying in a country requires living there. This, in turn, suggests a desire to learn more about the country, the people and the culture. The data also suggest that the respondents are instrumentally motivated, since educational experience abroad can help in securing future employment.

Question three is also significant, revealing strong instrumental motivation to learn AmE. Forty-eight respondents believe AmE to be more useful than other varieties to their educational needs. Only six respondents regard 'All' varieties of English to be useful, and only three respondents chose from AusE, BrE or Canadian English (see Appendix B: Q3). Evidently most respondents regard AmE as more educationally advantageous than other varieties.

Question two investigates the relationship between proficiency exams and choice of language variety. The data fail to support Prodromou's (1992) hypothesis that attitudes toward a variety of English are influenced by the institutionalized proficiency exams within a particular country. The mean score of 2.9 suggests that respondents do not associate learning AmE with success in TOEFL, the most widely administered language test in Korea.

### Attitudes toward the teacher and materials

These three questions (see Table 2) elicit significant information concerning respondents' attitudes toward the teacher and materials used in class. Although several students report No Preference (NP), the results clearly indicate American teachers, textbooks, and issues are the most popular.

In Question four, the respondents are divided between those who prefer American teachers, and those who have no preference: 29 chose American, and 24 chose NP. This division between AmE and

**TABLE 2**  
**ATTITUDE TOWARD THE TEACHER AND MATERIALS**

| Question  | Descriptor | Results<br>N =58<br>f | %    |
|---|------------|-----------------------|------|
| 4. I prefer my teacher to be:                       | American   | 29                    | 50.0 |
|   | Australian | -                     | -    |
|   | British    | 3                     | 5.2  |
|   | Other      | 2                     | 3.4  |
|   | NP         | 24                    | 41.4 |
| 5. Which textbooks do you prefer to use?            | AmE        | 36                    | 62.0 |
|   | AusE       | 1                     | 1.7  |
|   | BrE        | 3                     | 5.2  |
|   | Other      | 3                     | 5.2  |
|   | NP         | 15                    | 25.9 |
| 6. In class I prefer to discuss issues related to : | America    | 13                    | 22.4 |
|   | Australia  | 1                     | 1.7  |
|   | Britain    | 4                     | 6.7  |
|   | Other      | 3                     | 5.2  |
|   | NP         | 37                    | 63.8 |

NP is consistent from Level One through to Level Seven (see Appendix B: Q4). This inter-level consistency suggests that the results are reliable.

In Question five, 36 respondents prefer AmE textbooks and 15 chose NP. Levels One and Two are overwhelming in their preference for AmE books, but there is more diversity in the higher levels (see Appendix B: Q5). All but one respondents, in Level One and everyone in Level two chose AmE, whereas the results from Levels Four to Seven show more equal distribution of AmE and NP. The diversity in the upper-levels is probably due to experience. Respondents in the lower-levels may not have had as much exposure to textbooks from different countries.

Question six indicates that respondents do not necessarily want to discuss issues related to a single country. Thirty-seven respondents chose NP, and 13 chose America. The general attitude is that the issue is more important than the country. The results are consistent from Level One to Level Seven, suggesting a high degree of consistency. This also rules out the possibility that attitudes to issues are influenced by proficiency level. It seems to be a general attitude within this learner group.

### Job and career

These two questions (see Table 3) elicit valuable information regarding future career plans. It emerges that America plays a significant role in deciding respondents future career plans.

Question seven, clearly shows the strength of the instrumental motivation. Forty respondents say that AmE is the most useful variety for their future career plans, whereas only two chose BrE. Fifteen students chose 'All' implying that all varieties of English would be useful. These are similar results to those concerning Education, in which AmE is regarded as more advantageous than other varieties. This degree of instrumental motivation is not surprising given the extent of America's global economic and cultural domination (see Block 1997 and Prodromou 1997). Since America is associated with economic and financial success, university students, preparing for future employment, are understandably motivated to learn AmE.

Question eight explains that the most popular country to work in is Korea: 17 respondents report Korea as a single preference and a further 22 respondents placed it first in combination with other countries, making 39 in total (Appendix B: Q8). The most popular country other than Korea is America: 8 placed it first, and 23 placed it first in combination with other countries, making 31 in

**TABLE 3**  
**JOB AND CARREER**

| Question  | Descriptor | Results<br>N=58<br>f | %    |
|---|------------|----------------------|------|
| 7. Which variety(s) of English is the most useful for your future career? | AmE        | 40                   | 70.0 |
|   | AusE       | -                    | -    |
|   | BrE        | 2                    | 3.4  |
|   | Other      | 1                    | 1.7  |
|   | All        | 15                   | 25.6 |
| 8. I would like to work in :  | America    | 8                    | 13.8 |
|   | Australia  | -                    | -    |
|   | Britain    | -                    | -    |
|   | Other      | 33                   | 56.7 |
|   | Korea      | 17                   | 29.3 |

total. The results suggest a great deal of diversity of choice since several respondents, about 50%, chose either 'All' or reported combination choices. America is the most popular country outside Korea, though, and this is likely to affect choice of language variety.

### Attitudes toward varieties of English

These three questions focus explicitly on respondents attitudes toward different varieties of English. The results clearly show that AmE is the most popular variety, but suggest that this is not because AmE is easier to understand or more accessible.

In Table 4, Question nine establishes that AmE is the most popular variety. Thirty-nine respondents chose AmE and six respondents placed AmE equal first with BrE (see Appendix B: Q9). This information confirms the findings of Conner (1997) who reported that 81% of Korean students wanted to learn AmE. The figures reflect the positive attitude toward AmE described in this paper.

Question ten suggests that respondents do not believe AmE is different to other varieties. Thirty-six respondents report that they 'agree' with the statement and six report that they 'agree very much'. Only four disagree and twelve remain neutral. A mean of 3.8 suggests that several Korean students would agree with the statement, but that there is only weak support. Although respondents believe differences exist, it appears difficult to identify their exact nature.

Question eleven reveals weak agreement with the statement. Twenty-three respondents 'agree' that AmE pronunciation is easier to understand, and 13 report that they 'agree very much'. This implies that many Korean students prefer AmE variety because it is easier to understand than other varieties. Nine respondents remain neutral and 13 disagree, showing that support for the statement is low. The mean score of 3.6 confirms weak agreement. Pronunciation is a factor, but it is not clear to what extent it affects students' choice of English variety.

### Attitudes toward foreign culture

These three questions (see Table 5) reveal information related to the respondents attitudes toward

**TABLE 4**  
**ATTITUDES TOWARD VARIETIES OF ENGLISH**

| Question   | Descriptor | Results<br>N=58<br>F | %    | X   |
|--|------------|----------------------|------|-----|
| 9. What varieties of English do you want to learn ?  | AmE        | 39                   | 67.2 |     |
|  | AusE       | 3                    | 5.2  |     |
|  | BrE        | 5                    | 8.6  |     |
|  | Other      | 6                    | 10.3 |     |
|  | NP         | 5                    | 8.6  |     |
| 10. There are differences between AmE, BrE and AusE. | 5          | 6                    | 10.3 | 3.8 |
|  | 4          | 36                   | 62.0 |     |
|  | 3          | 12                   | 20.7 |     |
|  | 2          | 4                    | 6.7  |     |
|  | 1          | -                    | -    |     |
| 11. AmE is easier to understand than BrE and AusE.   | 5          | 13                   | 22.4 | 3.6 |
|  | 4          | 23                   | 39.7 |     |
|  | 3          | 9                    | 15.5 |     |
|  | 2          | 13                   | 22.4 |     |
|  | 1          | -                    | -    |     |

different cultures. The results demonstrate that the respondents are more familiar with American culture than with any other country, but that their cultural interests are diverse.

Question twelve reveals that 21 respondents singled out American films as preferable, indicating a high degree of cultural appreciation. Question thirteen provides comparable figures, with 20 respondents choosing American music. Some respondents display a degree of cultural diversity, giving preference to Italian, French and other Asian cultures (Appendix B: Q12 and Q13), but the data strongly suggest that respondents prefer American culture. Finally, question fourteen offers overwhelming confirmation that Koreans are more familiar with American culture than with Australian or British.

## IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This section looks at the implications of the results and makes recommendations for further research.

### Implications for ELT in Korea

The results of the survey demonstrate that Korean university students are instrumentally, and integratively motivated to learn AmE. The survey demonstrates that this group of learners maintain a positive attitude toward American-oriented classrooms and American culture. The respondents believe that AmE is advantageous to their education and career prospects.

The implication is that AmE should form the basis of English language teaching in Korea. Previous research has indicated that integratively and instrumentally motivated students make more successful language learners. Since Korean university students maintain a strong preference for AmE, it follows that AmE is preferable to other varieties of English. The psychosocial model of SLA implies that Korean university students will be more successful language learners if they learn AmE, rather than another variety such as BrE or AusE.

**TABLE 5**  
**ATTITUDE TOWARD FOREIGN CULTURE**

| Question  | Descriptor | Results<br>N=58<br>f | %    |
|---|------------|----------------------|------|
| 12. Apart from Korean music I like films from :   | America    | 21                   | 36.2 |
|   | Australia  | -                    | -    |
|   | Britain    | 5                    | 8.6  |
|   | Other      | 11                   | 19.0 |
|   | All        | 21                   | 36.2 |
| 13. Apart from Korean music I like films from:    | America    | 20                   | 34.5 |
|   | Australia  | -                    | -    |
|   | Britain    | -                    | -    |
|   | Other      | 12                   | 20.7 |
|   | All        | 26                   | 44.8 |
| 14. Which culture are Koreans most familiar with? | American   | 53                   | 91.4 |
|   | Australian | 1                    | 1.7  |
|   | British    | 4                    | 6.7  |



Such an approach, though, would lead to ethnocentricity, that is, the overemphasis of a particular culture's views, values, beliefs, attitudes and feelings (Alptekin 1996). As a result, one culture may attain a certain degree of prestige at the expense of others. This has potentially negative implications for language teaching. Abbott (1996) asks "To what extent and in what conditions may education through the medium of a 'language of power' result in a lack of faith in one's own culture and therefore in the language that expresses it?" Consequently, in terms of this study, the promotion of AmE might be a potential threat to Korean culture and language.

Such an approach would also lead to discrimination against experienced and qualified teachers from other English-speaking countries, and against 'non-native' teachers of English. It would mean policy changes among ELT managers in Korea, and an 'Americans-only' recruitment drive. This is clearly not the path one would wish to take.

### **Recommendations for further research**

First, it would be useful to survey adult learners, and to compare the results with those obtained from university students. The respondents in this study were all university students, presently preparing for their future careers, and several respondents cited career prospects as a reason for preferring AmE. It would be interesting to contrast the attitudes of the students with a group of professionals already in the work force, who did not have the same job/ career pressures.

Secondly, it would be interesting to conduct a similar survey at the British Council, Seoul. A major reason for studying at the British Council is that, presumably, students wish to learn BrE. It would be useful to examine the attitudes and motivation that prompt such groups to learn BrE in a society that appears to prefer AmE.

Thirdly, it would prove fruitful to examine the issue of gender, since most of the respondents were female. There are usually more female students at the FLI because male students have to complete their military service during their undergraduate years. Males have less time to commit to a language course. It might prove useful to administer the questionnaire to all-male/ all-female groups. There may be affective factors related to gender influencing attitudes to language varieties.

### **CONCLUSION**

This study concludes that university students in Korea prefer to learn AmE. The primary reason for this choice is that AmE is regarded as more advantageous to future career and education plans. This information should prove useful to English language teachers in Korea, providing an indication of learners' attitudes toward varieties of English. The results, though, have serious implications for language teaching in Korean and further research is required before more definitive conclusions can be drawn.

### **THE AUTHOR**

Michael Gibb has taught in Korea for five years. He presented papers at the 1996 KOTESOL conference, and the first Pan-Asia Conference, 1997. He holds a RSA Certificate and MA in Applied Linguistics.

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#### APPENDIX A

#### YONSEI SURVEY: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR YA STUDENTS

This questionnaire will be used to evaluate Yonsei students' attitudes toward different language varieties. Please ALL the questions.

Instructions: A number of questions use the following scale of agreement:

5 = agree very much 4 = agree 3 = neutral 2 = disagree 1 = disagree very much

Age: \_\_\_\_ Sex: m f Level: \_\_\_\_

#### Education

1. I would like to study English in:
  - a) America b) Australia c) Britain d) any other (s) \_\_\_\_\_ e) no preference
2. I want to learn AmE because I want to improve my TOEFL score.
 

5 4 3 2 1
3. Which variety (s) of English is / are the most useful for your university course ( your major ) ?
  - a) AmE b) AusE c) BrE d) any other(s) \_\_\_\_\_ e) all

#### Attitudes toward teachers and texts

4. I prefer my teacher to be:
  - a) American b) Australian c) British d) other(s) \_\_\_\_\_ e) no preference
5. Which text books do you prefer to use ?
  - a) AmE b) AusE c) BrE d) other(s) \_\_\_\_\_ e) no preference
6. In FLI classes I prefer to discuss issues related to:

- a) America b) Australia c) Britain d) other(s) \_\_\_\_\_ e) no preference

### Job and career

7. Which variety (s) of English is / are the most useful for your future career ?

- a) AmE b) AusE c) BrE d) other(s) \_\_\_\_\_ e) all

8. I would like to work in (you may choose more than one):

- a) America b) Australia c) Britain d) other(s) \_\_\_\_\_ e) Korea

### Attitudes toward English varieties

9. Which varieties of English do you want to learn ?

- a) AmE b) AusE c) BrE d) others \_\_\_ e) no preference

10. There are differences between AmE ,BrE and AusE.

5 4 3 2 1

### 11. AmE pronunciation is easier to understand than BrE and AusE.

5 4 3 2 1

### Attitudes toward foreign culture

12. Apart from Korean films, I like films from (you may choose more than one):

- a) America b) Australia c) Britain d) other(s) \_\_\_\_\_ e) all

13. Apart from Korean music, I like music from (you may choose more than one):

- a) America b) Australia c) Britain d) other(s) \_\_\_\_\_ e) all

14. Which culture are Koreans most familiar with:

- a) American b) Australian c) British

## APPENDIX B

**Key:** X= mean, AmE= American English, CanE= Canadian English, N= number, AusE= Australian English, NP= no preference, Resp= respondants, BrE= British English, NS= not sure, Jap= Japan, Fr= France, Ger= Germany, Euro= Europe, HK= Hong Kong, L= Level (proficiency)

|   | Level      | L1   | L2   | L3 | L4   | L5   | L6   | L7   | N  | %    | X    |
|---|------------|------|------|----|------|------|------|------|----|------|------|
|   | Resp       | 9    | 7    | 12 | 8    | 7    | 10   | 5    | 58 |      |      |
|   | Age (X)    | 22.2 | 20.7 | 21 | 21.9 | 21.5 | 20.4 | 22.2 |    |      | 21.4 |
|   | Sex: F     | 6    | 5    | 11 | 4    | 4    | 9    | 3    | 42 |      |      |
|   | M          | 3    | 2    | 1  | 4    | 3    | 1    | 2    | 16 |      |      |
| 1 | Am         | 6    | 4    | 8  | 6    | 2    | 6    | 3    | 35 | 60.3 |      |
|   | Aus        | -    | 1    | -  | -    | -    | -    | 1    | 2  | 3.4  |      |
|   | Br         | -    | -    | 2  | -    | 3    | 3    | 1    | 9  | 15.5 |      |
|   | Other: Can | 2    | 1    | -  | 1    | 1    | 1    | -    | 6  | 10.3 |      |
|   | Am/Br      | 1    | -    | 1  | -    | 1    | -    | -    | 3  | 5.2  |      |
|   | NP         | -    | 1    | 1  | 1    | -    | -    | -    | 3  | 5.2  |      |

|       |                |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |      |      |     |
|-------|----------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|------|------|-----|
| 2     | 5              | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  | 2.9 |
|       | 4              | 2 | 2 | 6 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1  | 17   | 29.3 |     |
|       | 3              | 6 | 1 | 2 | 6 | 1 | 7 | -  | 23   | 39.7 |     |
|       | 2              | 1 | 3 | 3 | - | 3 | 1 | 3  | 14   | 24.1 |     |
|       | 1              | - | 1 | - | - | 1 | - | 1  | 3    | 5.2  |     |
| 3     | AmE            | 8 | 7 | 9 | 4 | 7 | 8 | 5  | 48   | 82.3 |     |
|       | AusE           | - | - | - | - | - | - | -  | -    | -    |     |
|       | BrE            | - | - | - | - | - | 2 | -  | 2    | 3.4  |     |
|       | Other: AmE/BrE | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|       | Can            | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
| All   | -              | - | 2 | 4 | - | - | - | 6  | 10.3 |      |     |
| 4     | Am             | 4 | 5 | 6 | 3 | 5 | 4 | 2  | 29   | 50.0 |     |
|       | Aus            | - | - | - | - | - | - | -  | -    | -    |     |
|       | Br             | - | - | 1 | - | - | 2 | -  | 3    | 5.2  |     |
|       | Other: Am/Br   | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|       | Can            | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
| NP    | 4              | 2 | 4 | 5 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 24 | 41.4 |      |     |
| 5     | AmE            | 8 | 7 | 6 | 4 | 2 | 6 | 3  | 36   | 62.0 |     |
|       | AusE           | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|       | BrE            | - | - | 1 | - | 2 | - | -  | 3    | 5.2  |     |
|       | Other: Am/Br   | - | - | 2 | - | 1 | - | -  | 3    | 5.2  |     |
|       | NP             | 1 | - | 3 | 4 | 2 | 4 | 1  | 15   | 25.9 |     |
| 6     | Am             | 2 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 4 | - | -  | 13   | 22.4 |     |
|       | Aus            | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|       | Br             | - | - | - | - | 2 | 2 | -  | 4    | 6.7  |     |
|       | Other: Am/Br   | - | 1 | - | - | - | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|       | Kor            | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|       | All            | - | - | - | 1 | - | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
| NP    | 7              | 4 | 7 | 6 | 1 | 8 | 4 | 37 | 63.8 |      |     |
| 7     | AmE            | 7 | 5 | 9 | 4 | 6 | 5 | 4  | 40   | 70.0 |     |
|       | AusE           | - | - | - | - | - | - | -  | -    | -    |     |
|       | BrE            | - | - | 1 | - | - | 1 | -  | 2    | 3.4  |     |
|       | Other: CanE    | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|       | All            | 1 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 4 | 1  | 15   | 25.6 |     |
| 8     | Am             | 2 | - | 3 | 2 | - | 1 | -  | 8    | 13.8 |     |
|       | AusE           | - | - | - | - | - | - | -  | -    | -    |     |
|       | BrE            | - | - | - | - | - | - | -  | -    | -    |     |
|       | Other: All     | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | - | -  | 4    | 6.9  |     |
|       | Am/Kr          | - | 1 | 3 | 2 | - | 2 | 3  | 11   | 19   |     |
|       | Am/Can         | - | 1 | - | - | - | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|       | Am/Br/Kr       | 2 | - | 2 | - | 4 | 3 | -  | 11   | 19   |     |
|       | Aus/Br         | - | 1 | - | - | - | - | 1  | 2    | 3.4  |     |
|       | Can            | 1 | - | - | - | - | 1 | -  | 2    | 3.4  |     |
|       | Euro           | - | - | - | - | 1 | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|       | NS             | - | - | - | - | 1 | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
| Korea | 3              | 3 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 17 | 29.3 |      |     |

|     |                |   |   |    |   |   |   |    |      |      |     |
|-----|----------------|---|---|----|---|---|---|----|------|------|-----|
| 9   | AmE            | 7 | 6 | 5  | 7 | 4 | 7 | 3  | 39   | 67.2 |     |
|     | AusE           | 1 | - | -  | - | 1 | - | 1  | 3    | 5.2  |     |
|     | BrE            | - | - | 2  | - | 1 | 2 | -  | 5    | 8.6  |     |
|     | Other: AmE/BrE | 1 | 1 | 4  | - | - | - | -  | 6    | 10.3 |     |
|     | NP             | - | - | 1  | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1  | 5    | 8.6  |     |
| 10  | 5              | 2 | 1 | -  | 2 | - | 1 | -  | 6    | 10.3 | 3.8 |
|     | 4              | 4 | 4 | 7  | 4 | 6 | 7 | 4  | 36   | 62.0 |     |
|     | 3              | 1 | 2 | 4  | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1  | 12   | 20.7 |     |
|     | 2              | 2 | - | 1  | - | - | 1 | -  | 4    | 6.7  |     |
|     | 1              | - | - | -  | - | - | - | -  | -    | -    |     |
| 11  | 5              | 1 | - | 5  | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2  | 13   | 22.4 | 3.6 |
|     | 4              | 4 | 3 | 4  | 3 | 1 | 6 | 2  | 23   | 39.7 |     |
|     | 3              | 1 | 3 | 2  | - | 2 | 1 | -  | 9    | 15.5 |     |
|     | 2              | 3 | 1 | 1  | 3 | 3 | 1 | 1  | 13   | 22.4 |     |
|     | 1              | - | - | -  | - | - | - | -  | -    | -    |     |
| 12  | Am             | 4 | 4 | 5  | - | 3 | 3 | 2  | 21   | 36.2 |     |
|     | Aus            | - | - | -  | - | - | - | -  | -    | -    |     |
|     | Br             | 1 | - | 2  | - | 1 | 1 | -  | 5    | 8.6  |     |
|     | Other: Am/Br   | - | 1 | -  | - | - | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|     | Am/Fr          | - | - | -  | - | - | - | 2  | 2    | 3.4  |     |
|     | Am/HK          | - | - | -  | - | 1 | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|     | Aus/Br         | - | - | -  | 1 | - | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|     | Euro           | - | - | 1  | - | - | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|     | French         | 1 | 1 | -  | - | 1 | 1 | -  | 4    | 6.9  |     |
|     | Italy          | 1 | - | -  | - | - | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
| All | 2              | 1 | 4 | 7  | 1 | 5 | 1 | 21 | 36.2 |      |     |
| 13  | Am             | 3 | 2 | 5  | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3  | 20   | 34.5 |     |
|     | Aus            | - | - | -  | - | - | - | -  | -    | -    |     |
|     | Br             | - | - | -  | - | - | - | -  | -    | -    |     |
|     | Other: Am/Br   | - | 2 | -  | - | 1 | 3 | -  | 6    | 10.3 |     |
|     | Am/Jap         | - | - | -  | - | 1 | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|     | Aus/Br         | - | - | -  | - | 1 | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|     | Dutch          | 1 | - | -  | - | - | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|     | French         | - | - | -  | - | - | 1 | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|     | Fr/Ger         | - | - | -  | - | 1 | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|     | Italy          | - | - | 1  | - | - | - | -  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
| All | 5              | 3 | 6 | 5  | 1 | 4 | 2 | 26 | 44.8 |      |     |
| 14  | Am             | 9 | 6 | 10 | 8 | 7 | 9 | 4  | 53   | 91.4 |     |
|     | Aus            | - | - | -  | - | - | - | 1  | 1    | 1.7  |     |
|     | Br             | - | 1 | 2  | - | - | 1 | -  | 4    | 6.7  |     |



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# The POSTECH Live-In English Program: A Language Environment

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**GABRIELLE GOODWIN AND LAURIE BAKER**

*Pohang University of Science and Technology (POSTECH)*

## INTRODUCTION

The main complaint we teachers hear from university students and adult learners of English is that they have studied for six to ten years, but they still can not speak English well. While we believe that the years of Grammar-Translation and Direct Method taught in Korean schools have not necessarily been wasted, we think that they have ignored the primary role of a language -- to communicate. Memorized vocabulary and grammar rules perhaps provide a foundation for language acquisition, but until performance is exercised, language lies dormant, while students often remain unmotivated and nonproductive. This is not a hopeless situation, however, as many native English speaking teachers have found. Once their students lose some of their fear and trepidation about speaking a foreign language (will it really work?), they find that communication can come fairly easily, and will improve quickly. Pohang University's three Live-In English Program (PLEP) sessions have attempted to break down some of the barriers to using English, by creating a language environment conducive to the motivations that make students want to study and use a language.

Our paper will attempt to show how, while keeping test scores in mind, this program has provided opportunities for authentic communication in English in an environment that promotes "awareness, autonomy and achievement" on the part of the language learners. The original objectives of the program were to improve students' English skills and cultural awareness through an intensive program of formal classroom instruction and informal, extracurricular activities. English-speaking college students were brought from North America to act as group leaders to small groups of Korean students, living in the dormitories with them, and interacting with them both in structured and unstructured activities. "Second language learning can be based on learners' exposure to, exploration of and an interaction with materials produced within a society by its members for its members, and through opportunities to communicate in and experiment with the target language" (Lian, 1996). Interaction between self and materials can, in our case, be applied to the interaction between students and native English-speaking peers. The "materials" of the North American group leaders' verbal presence, questions and survival needs as foreign visitors, forced the Korean students to develop strategies and integrate communication skills-listening, discussing, writing, and reading-in order to establish relationships with both their teachers and group leaders. We will describe the program's components, how it has evolved over the three sessions, and the reasons why we believe it has been successful.

A strongly interactive approach has been stressed throughout all three sessions of PLEP, and our curriculum and activities have evolved, hopefully leading to promoting relationships important to students' awareness and motivation for using English. While the first PLEP's activities centered on functional activities and self-awareness, the second shifted to a more skills-centered approach, and the third, while maintaining many of the activities of the first two, moved to a content-centered curricu-

lum, thereby creating a more cohesive, in-depth study of culture.

## **BACKGROUND**

In 1995, POSTECH's President, Soo Young Chang, set some new graduation requirements. He mandated that all POSTECH graduates would attain a score of 550 or better on the TOEFL by the time they graduate. This took the English Department somewhat by surprise, but they started moving to adapt their course offerings and curriculum to help students achieve that goal. They offered a TOEFL practice course during the summer and winter breaks, and they made plans for an intensive English program called the POSTECH Live-In English Program (PLEP).

For the first PLEP, in the summer of 1995, POSTECH contracted the University of Maryland, one of its sister universities, to design the program. Two University of Maryland EFL teachers planned the curriculum, hired two college students as group leaders, bought the textbooks, and came to Korea to train six other group leaders and two other MATEFL teachers who were currently working at POSTECH in its freshman English courses. These four teachers and eight group leaders taught the first PLEP.

The President's initiative behind PLEP was to increase TOEFL scores, but its methods were strictly communicative. Students attended four hours a day of listening and speaking classes with teachers, and then spent an additional four hours a day with the American group leaders in discussions, simulation games, pronunciation classes and other activities which will be discussed below. In addition, it was hoped that since the American students were living in the dormitories with the students, informal encounters would contribute to a camp-like atmosphere, encouraging authentic language. The theory was that exposure to English-speaking peers would put the Korean students at ease and promote natural communication, which would then translate into higher achievement on the TOEFL.

## **PROGRAM DESCRIPTION - PLEP I, SUMMER 1996**

### **Students and staff**

There were 60 students with eight group leaders (two American-born, six Koreans who had been living in the United States most of their lives), and four teachers (two visiting, two POSTECH faculty, all American-born) involved in the program.

### **ACADEMIC CLASSES**

Video Listening--This class was held each day for two hours (except Wednesday, one hour) and was based on a textbook and videotape. The videos ranged from five minutes to twelve minutes in length and included news reports from ABC News, 20/20, and Nightline, organized into four categories: Education, Science and Technology, Social Reform, and The Arts. The textbook included the following activities: Previewing--key questions for discussion; predictions about what would be included in the video; key vocabulary; Postviewing--main idea; answering global comprehension questions; Intensive Reviewing--listening cloze; comprehension of part of the program; Language Focus--vocabulary and structure practice; Postviewing--small group discussion questions; one or two related readings with questions; a writing project; and suggested readings. This book was used for all three levels of classes, and for the lower level, it was reported to be very difficult. One segment (there were three segments in each category) would take the lower level students all week to complete; yet one segment would take the upper level students only one or two days. The students' frustration level



contributed to their attitude toward the videos, and many students commented that they would rather have watched movies. We still feel that close listening is valuable, and in spite of the difficulty of the news programs, after two or three viewings, students began to understand. Toward the end of the program their ability to understand more quickly increased.

**Articulation Gymnastics**-This class was a pronunciation class given one hour a day for a total of four hours each week. Group leaders used units selected by the curriculum specialist to drill students in segmentals and supra-segmentals particularly troublesome to Korean speakers of English. This class eventually alternated pronunciation drills with word games, as group leaders did not feel they were qualified to teach pronunciation.

**Oral Communication and Presentation Skills**-This class met one and a half hours a day, every day. This class gave students an opportunity to practice strategies for learning English, to develop their own learning plan, to learn new patterns and practice them, and to work on individual and group projects for presentation at the end of each week. Vocabulary, study, and instruction into presentation skills contributed to the successful completion of the projects. Projects included a process speech (how to do something) and a group research project to find and advertise a city to host the World Cup in 2006.

**Topic Discussion Seminars**-Two hours each Friday students met with group leaders in a discussion of a topic of their choice. Students generated possible topics at the beginning of the program, and then signed up to be leaders of the discussions. Students generated vocabulary and questions for the members of their class before the discussions, and led the discussions with the help of their group leaders. This activity has been named the most successful by most students and group leaders in all three of the PLEP sessions.

## **EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES**

**Film Viewing**-One night a week group leaders prepared questions about films chosen by the teachers. Twice during the course of the film questions were asked of the students orally, and at the end of the film an approximately thirty minute discussion about theme was held.

**Culture Evening**-Once a week for two hours, with group leaders, the students went to the POSTECH gymnasium for basketball, ping-pong, billiards, or other recreational activities. This activity was to be alternated with a cultural presentation by the group leaders, but without sufficient preparation by the group leaders, sports overtook cultural exchange.

**Internet Communication**-Two times a week, one hour each, a culture exchange with students at the University of Maryland was planned for this Internet exploration. What we found was that a lot more planning had to be done. We also found that the high level of English on the part of the American class inhibited or overwhelmed our Korean students. Conversely, this frustrated the American students. Two classes of EFL speakers could communicate more equitably, we believe.

**Saturday Excursions**-The entire student body took field trips, by university-arranged bus, to Pomo Temple, Kyongju, etc. on Saturday mornings. The group leaders were responsible for informal conversation with a group of eight students during the trip. Group leaders were also asked to write up an evaluation after each field trip. Though these trips were a little hard to handle, and uneven in their communicative effectiveness, they were generally a good way to get some authentic relationships going. On the other hand, shyer students felt that they did not have enough contact with the group leaders.

**Small Group Projects**-In the third week of the program, group leaders proposed different long-term projects which the students then volunteered to join. Depending on the project needs, from six to 12 students signed up for one project each. Groups met approximately six hours a week to work under the direction of the group leaders, assisted by the teachers. At the end of the program, a closing

ceremony included the products of these projects—a video yearbook, a web page, chorus of English songs, and a photo yearbook.

## **TEXTS AND MATERIALS**

In addition to the two textbooks: *Focus on Innovators and Innovations* (Duffy, 1993), and *Clear Speech: Pronunciation and listening comprehension in North American English* (Gilbert, 1993), teachers and group leaders made extensive use of taped video and audio materials, and various resource materials and books brought by the University of Maryland teachers.

## **OUTCOME**

The program worked extremely well in its communicative function. While we have no statistical evidence, all teachers noticed great improvement in speaking as well as enjoyment in communicating. Within three weeks, confidence levels had obviously risen, students were using English slang, making and laughing at jokes, and spending a lot of time together in informal communication. The improved attitude and performance were noticeable in the classroom as well. But at the end of the program, there was one problem: the TOEFL scores had not improved much.

## **PROGRAM DESCRIPTION - PLEP II, WINTER 1997**

The next PLEP Winter 1997 was modified to answer some student and teacher concerns and to include a TOEFL practice class. As students had been chronically late to the 9:00 am classes in PLEP I, the hours were changed to begin at 10:00 and this helped tardiness considerably. In addition, the administration felt that more different skills should be stressed, so writing and speaking tasks were more formalized. PLEP II was definitely a skills-based curriculum.

A significant change was made in the size and make-up of the staff. Because the group leaders of PLEP I spoke and understood Korean, many students in the first session felt that their opportunities to speak only English had suffered, so a decision was made to hire only monolingual English speakers for PLEP II. It is interesting that the students had seen a reduced necessity to learn English because their group leaders had been able to understand the mother tongue. Without the absolute need to speak English, the relationship between learner and instructor or group leader became compromised, and the learners felt this to be detrimental to their target language acquisition. The program expanded to twice the size of the first one and American and Canadian students were hired as group leaders. Also, group leaders were no longer expected to teach any of the academic classes. Because of the lack of formal training, group leaders did not feel comfortable in a teacher role, and it was felt that MATEFL teachers should teach this class.

## **STUDENTS AND STAFF**

There were 110 students, 16 group leaders (14 recent college graduates, two currently in college, Canadian and American), and seven teachers (5 visiting, 2 POSTECH faculty) involved.

## **ACADEMIC CLASSES**

### **Video Listening**

No changes were made to this class, except that it was shortened to four days a week.

Expository Speaking-After practising listening and reading skills on a specific topic in the Video Listening class, students presented a speech related to the content of the week's work. Functionally, it allowed students to exercise their speaking skills, and individual teachers gave instruction on public speaking techniques to improve students' projection, fluency, and ability to present themselves in English.

TOEFL Practice-We decided to concentrate on listening skills since most students scored lowest on the Listening Comprehension section of the TOEFL. This class was held one hour a day. Strategies, as outlined in the Longman textbook, were practised and discussed.

Conversation/Pronunciation-This class was held one hour a day, and teachers each decided how to structure it. Units from the previously used pronunciation text were taught again, either each day, or several times a week. Alternating with the pronunciation instruction were games and simulations designed to increase conversation skills and interaction between students.

Guest Speaker-Each Thursday night, one of the teachers presented a lecture on a topic of his or her choice. The student body attended together with the group leaders. After the lecture, groups met to discuss the main points of the lecture and students wrote a summary which was turned in to their video class teacher the next day.

Extracurricular Activities.-As in the first PLEP, North American students were assigned eight students to work with over the course of the program on various activities.

## **LONG-TERM PROJECTS**

Week one: *Yut* Game.-The Korean students taught the group leaders how to play the traditional Lunar New Year game of *yut*. After the initial excitement of teaching in English, and playing for one day were over, the students wrote instructions for the game and turned in their projects to their teachers at the end of the first week.

Week two: Skit Contest.-The only instructions given were that the skit should be about ten minutes long, and would be presented and judged the following week. Eight hours were scheduled for this activity, but students and group leaders spent many extra hours working out themes and stories. Both original stories and dramatizations of traditional Korean stories were enacted.

Weeks three through five-As in the previous sessions, group leaders offered their talents in leading a number of projects which were presented at the concluding two-day ceremonies. In the gymnasium we saw a badminton tournament, a *samulnori* demonstration and explanation, and a performance by a cheer leading squad. The next evening the groups presented a webpage, video yearbook, photo essay and story board, literary yearbook, soul singing and dancing group, an A Cappella choir, and a fashion show with commentary.

Sports Days and Cultural Activities-Each Wednesday, students went either to the gymnasium for games and exercise led by the group leaders, or attended cultural presentations by the group leaders. Included in these presentations were lectures about three different colleges in the United States, a slide show of a bicycle trip through Texas, a slide show and lecture about Idaho, a demonstration of games at a typical children's party in America, an opportunity to play the game "Twister," a lecture and discussion about American "fringe and special interest groups," and a hula and belly dancing lesson.

Topic Discussion-As in the first PLEP session, this was one of the most interesting and popular classes.

Language Games-Every Friday night, students gathered in the dormitory lounges or Student Union to play Scrabble or Boggle, two popular word games. Playing with partners, students soon became proficient, and a Scrabble tournament was held at the end of the program.

Internet-This class, held once a week, continued to be a challenge. Its main purpose during this session was to expose the students to different websites and to get them to write to each other, their

group leaders, and a keypal they found on the web. After work sheets were developed by one of the group leaders, this activity seemed to be much more successful than it was in PLEP I, but did not fully develop to its potential during this PLEP.

### Saturday Field Trips

Field trips were significantly changed in an effort to get students and group leaders to form more intimate bonds. Groups went out individually each Saturday morning, after their destination was approved by the program administrator. Occasionally two or more groups found themselves on the same trip, but an effort was made to have them go different places, so that the group was pretty much unified. Many students said that these experiences off-campus demanded the most authentic language usage as they had to help their group leader get around and understand what they were seeing and doing.

### TEXTS AND MATERIALS

In addition to the Duffy and Gilbert texts from PLEP I, *Longman Preparation for the TOEFL Test, Volume A* (2nd Ed.) (Phillips, 1996) was added to the list of textbooks. And teachers and group leaders made extensive use of taped video and audio materials, various resource materials and resource books.

### OUTCOME

Some students complained that PLEP II was too big with no sense of intimacy, but many liked the excitement that was generated by a large group. More creativity was contributed by group leaders as well as students, and there was a great variety of cultural activities and sports, as well as personalities provided by the group leaders. Confidence in speaking English improved, as in PLEP I, and TOEFL scores rose significantly (see Table 1).

### PROGRAM DESCRIPTION - PLEP III, SUMMER 1997

The major change in the third PLEP was a shift from a skills-based to content-based program.

**TABLE 1**  
**TOEFL MEAN SCORES**

|  |                   |                           |              |       |
|--|-------------------|---------------------------|--------------|-------|
| PLEP I   | no data available |                           |              |       |
| Percentage of students who increased their total score performance             |                   |                           |              |       |
| PLEP II  | 67.9%             |                           |              |       |
| PLEP III   | 86.4%             |                           |              |       |
| PLEP II  | Listening Comp    | Structure & Written Expr. | Reading Comp | TOTAL |
| Pre-test   | 45.3              | 50.0                      | 52.2         | 491.8 |
| Post-test  | 49.5              | 50.3                      | 53.1         | 509.6 |
| PLEP II  | Listening Comp    | Structure & Written Expr. | Reading Comp | TOTAL |
| Pre-test   | 46.8              | 51.6                      | 51.9         | 501.4 |
| Post-test1   | 48.9              | 54.1                      | 54.0         | 524.0 |
| 1.Pre- and post-tests were different versions of the Institutional TOEFL Test. |                   |                           |              |       |

The overall theme was the exchange of culture. Although the number and variety of courses offered remained almost the same as in PLEP II, the courses were structured around five topics, one each week, taken from the Video Listening textbook:

1. Introductions and Korean Culture
2. Immigration and Race
3. Poetry and Music
4. Women and Work
5. Movies and Technology

The change to a content-based program was done in hopes of providing more context for communication. Exchanging information about the topics with group leaders and key pals gave students a valid reason for communicating in English. The design of the "Culture Exchange Portfolio" class attempted to give students more responsibility for their own learning. They were given topics to study, but how and what part they focused on was up to them.

The size of the program changed again, becoming smaller than the first two PLEPs. Also, the group leaders hired for summer PLEP were college graduates with some ESL experience or training. Because of their advanced training, group leaders were asked to teach the pronunciation and communication class. Feedback on the group leaders performance in this capacity was more positive and confident than in the first PLEP. The TOEFL class focused on the structure and grammar section since no other part of the program addressed these skills.

The final change was one of finances. The entering class of 1996 was allowed to take PLEPs I and II with a complete tuition waiver in order to encourage students to participate in the new program. Starting with PLEP III, students other than those of 1996 were required to pay half their tuition.

## **STUDENTS AND STAFF**

There were 40 students, six group leaders (North American college graduates), and three teachers (POSTECH faculty) involved.

## **ACADEMIC CLASSES**

Video Listening-The textbook and video set was changed to one whose themes focused on culture, although it came from the same video/text series. One culture topic was covered each week and provided the context around which most classes and activities were structured.

Guest Lecture-Every Monday at the Video Listening class time, teachers gave a lecture related to the weekly topic to the student body. After the lecture, groups met to discuss the main points of the lecture and students wrote a summary which was turned in to their portfolio class teacher.

Focus on Communication-This class was taught by the group leaders and covered pronunciation and conversation skills.

TOEFL Preparation: Structure and Grammar Skills Section This is the only part of the program that taught explicit grammar/TOEFL skills.

## **Culture Exchange Portfolio**

This was a newly designed content-based course studying culture and the exchange of culture. Although most of the activities in the course had been done in past PLEPs, it was felt that by maintaining a common theme among them, they would be more meaningful. Students kept a portfolio of their work throughout the program. Content for the activities changed each week and followed the cultural themes of the Video Listening class. Students filled in a work sheet before and/or during each

day's activities, and these work sheets made up the bulk of the portfolio.

Monday: E-mail messages sent to key pals. Key pals were arranged for in advance with an English class in Germany and an EFL class at the University of California at Berkeley. Students were supposed to discuss the weekly topic with their keypal.

Tuesday: Group leader culture presentations. Group leaders were given the weekly topics and asked to prepare for these presentations before arriving in Korea. Presentations ranged from "Teaching the Macarena and other dances" to "Odd jobs I've had" to "The exploitation of women in fashion".

Wednesday: Internet research and e-mail responses. Students were given some training on browsing the web in order to do research on the weekly topic. They researched one aspect of the topic that interested them. Further exchanges with key pals were also done at this time.

Thursday: Student-led topic discussions. Each week, one student was assigned as leader and had to prepare for and lead a small-group discussion on the topic.

Friday: Student presentations. Each student gave a five-minute presentation to his/her class on one aspect of the weekly topic. This was the culmination of all they had learned throughout the week. Students evaluated each other on such criteria as preparation, voice, poise, etc.

Portfolios contained:

1. Summary of guest lectures
2. E-mail and Internet work sheets
3. Summary of group leader presentations
4. Discussion work sheets
5. Peer evaluations of presentations

## **EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES**

Long-term Projects-There was no change from the previous program. Week one was *yut* game, Week two a skit contest. Weeks three through five: These projects included a PLEP Web Page, PLEP Video, Radio Show, Cooking Class and Recycling Project.

Movie Night-Movie themes tied in to the weekly topics. Group leaders used specific language forms from the movies in their next day's communication classes.

Game Night-Students played language games or sports. A Scrabble tournament was held at the end of the program.

There was no change from the previous program in regard to Saturday Field Trips.

## **TEXT AND MATERIALS**

In addition to those books used in PLEP II, *Culture Watch* (Tomalin, 1995) was added to the list. In addition to textbooks, teachers and group leaders made extensive use of taped video and audio materials, various resource materials and resource books.

## **OUTCOME**

Confidence and ease in speaking and listening were greatly improved. TOEFL scores improved more than in the previous programs. Because of its small size, PLEP III seemed more intimate. Some group leaders and students became very good friends and still continue their relationships. The only negative outcome was that the student dropout rate was higher than the previous programs.

## **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

According to the evaluation criteria used thus far, PLEP has been a success: students' scores on

the TOEFL rose (Table 1) and student evaluations consistently indicated that students were satisfied with the program and felt their English had improved due to the program (Appendix A). Final teacher and group leader program evaluations have also supported the benefits of PLEP. Every evaluation has confirmed the noticeable increase of students' confidence and listening/speaking skills. What has been responsible for this success and what does that mean for future programs?

As mentioned in the introduction, one of the implicit objectives of PLEP has been creating a learning environment that promotes "awareness, autonomy and achievement". Forms of awareness include the awareness of individual learning objectives, and the awareness of needing, wanting and being able to communicate in a foreign language environment. Using only native English speaking teachers has given students a need for real communication in the classroom. Interaction with North American group leaders gives students the desire to learn. Getting to know each other, working together on projects and travelling together have been just some of the areas in which students learn English in order to communicate. Exchanging ideas with people in other countries via the Internet also makes students aware of the benefits of being able to communicate successfully in English.

Students achieving autonomy in the learning environment can be accomplished in many ways. When they choose to initiate and engage in communication, they become responsible for their own learning. Providing the broad topics within which to study personal interests necessary is another way of promoting autonomy. Another way is allowing students to choose how they learn. PLEP has attempted to give students this choice by including different forms of instruction that appeal to different learning styles. While all students were required to take part in all classes and activities, academic classes were not given greater emphasis than extracurricular activities. Thus, students felt comfortable learning in the method of their choosing.

How does one measure achievement? Achievement is and should be a personal goal, but in a program of this kind, individual goals may be wide and varied, ranging from meeting and talking to a foreigner to scoring 550 on the TOEFL. In an effort to increase self- and language-awareness, students were encouraged to assess their own progress, and to set long- and short-term goals for their study of English both during and after PLEP. Future PLEP sessions are planned for winter and summer breaks at POSTECH. The best that we can do is provide the kind of environment that makes students' goals attainable.

## THE AUTHORS

Gabrielle Goodwin was awarded an MA in linguistics, second language emphasis, TESOL, and a BA in psychology from the University of Utah. She taught English as a Second/Foreign Language in Japan and the United States before coming to Korea. At present, she teaches Freshman English at Pohang University of Science and Technology. She was an instructor in the PLEP Winter 1997 and the Curriculum Specialist for PLEP Summer 1997.

Laurie Baker received her MA in language studies/TESOL from California State University. She taught English and ESL in a California high school and at university intensive English as a Foreign Language Programs in California and Michigan. Currently she is teaching English at Pohang University of Science and Technology. She was an instructor in PLEP Summer 1996 and the Curriculum Specialist for PLEP Winter 1997.

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**APPENDIX A**  
**STUDENT EVALUATIONS**

**PLEP I**

- NA% were very satisfied
- 83% were satisfied
- NA% were dissatisfied
- NA% were very dissatisfied
- NA% said their English improved
- NA% said their English listening/speaking improved

**PLEP II**

- 8% were very satisfied
- 71% were satisfied
- 21% were dissatisfied
- 0% were very dissatisfied
- 66% said their English improved
- 89% said their English listening/speaking improved

**PLEP III**

- 9% were very satisfied
- 59% were satisfied
- 32% were dissatisfied
- 0% were very dissatisfied
- 95% said their English improved
- 90% said their English listening/speaking improved



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# Linking English Classes at Two Different Universities

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**MITSUAKI HAYASE**

*Mie University*

**ETSUO KOBAYASHI AND SHINOBU NAGASHIMA**

*Rikkyo University*

With personal file/web/e-mail servers, it has become easier for all teachers to make use of electronic environments. This leads to many possibilities of using the internet as a way to combine traditional teaching methods and computer related teaching methods. It also creates the opportunity to link learners to one another regardless of physical distances.

The authors, in 1996, began a three-year project in which they educationally linked their universities together using the internet. They created directories for their composition classes which they would begin teaching in April 1997 using servers at each university. In total, three file servers were used: a public one at each university and the one installed in Kobayashi's office.

Hayase and Kobayashi collaborated to promote their students' learning by sharing e-mail mailing lists, an electronic notice board and homepages. The students found it more meaningful to practice and use their English skills through doing their class projects using internet resources.

## INTRODUCTION

With the advancement of technology, it is now possible for computers to be personal instructors for learners and for servers to be teaching assistants. It is then the teacher's responsibility to effectively use computers and servers through developing necessary programs and teaching tools.

Many schools and universities have been conducting on-line learning and teaching over the network for a while now. AT&T Virtual Classroom Contest at <<http://www.kids-commons.net/vc97/96report/>> is a case in point.

According to its home page, the AT&T Virtual Classroom Contest selects 50 schools in Japan and 100 schools outside Japan to participate. Each group must then devise a collaborative project to undertake for the duration of the program, for example environmental research, drawing pictures, and composing music. In the final presentation, each group designs a web site displaying the results of their activities. At the end of the program a prize is awarded to the group with the best website.

In learning institutions, it is crucial to have an environment where servers can be used very freely by teachers and students.

The question then arises: How can foreign languages be taught through on-line team teaching? How effective would it be? In this paper, we will discuss a project where the composition courses were taught on-line between two universities in Japan: Rikkyo University in Tokyo and Mie University in Mie Prefecture. The distance between the two universities is about 250 miles. From April to July, 1997, Etsuo Kobayashi taught an English composition course at Rikkyo University while Mitsuaki

Hayase taught another at Mie University. Shinobu Nagashima, a computer-science teacher, developed the programs and tools used by Kobayashi, Hayase and their students.

## **SERVER USE CLASSIFICATION**

The use of the servers can be classified into three modes: (a) a centralized mode, (b) a self-sufficient mode, and (c) an eclectic mode.

In the centralized mode, the control of all the servers and programs are centralized and are open to public use free of charge. In the near future, many kinds of programs and files, including programs developed by individuals for research and teaching, will be centralized in each university and will be available for everyone on campus, and possibly for people off campus.

The self-sufficient mode allows individuals or a group of individuals to control a server. This mode is particularly suitable for research and teaching. The extent of availability will be decided by each individual or group.

The eclectic mode is a mixture of the centralized mode and the self-sufficient mode. In this mode, some servers and programs are open to the public but others are not. Therefore, even non computer science teachers can use the electronic environment taking advantage of the programs and tools developed by other individuals.

For many non computer science individuals, it may be easier and more convenient to use only the necessary functions of the different servers. One problem here is whether individuals can use them whenever they wish. Another obstacle is that it is necessary for each server to have enough storage capacity. If one megabyte is allocated for one person, 100 megabytes are needed for 100 people, and if pictures and sound are used, one megabyte may not be enough for one person. Therefore, storage becomes a problem.

## **USE OF DISPERSED SERVERS CONNECTING UNIVERSITIES**

### **Mailing lists**

For the present research and for the classes that Kobayashi and Hayase taught, a mailing list was initially created for both Mie University students and Rikkyo University students. This was done at a university server for Mie University students and at Kobayashi's personal server for Rikkyo University students. A third mailing list was then created for both Rikkyo University and Mie University students in Kobayashi's personal server which stayed under his control. This was done because neither university had ever encountered a situation in which students from other universities were allowed to use their servers. Consequently, it would take time for each university to form policies for server use of this nature and thus, this obstacle was avoided.

## **CREATING HOME PAGES BY SENDING THEIR CONTENT BY E-MAIL**

Nagashima developed a program in his server in which a home page is created by using information sent through e-mail. This program has been experimentally used only by Rikkyo University students so far, but the program will certainly facilitate the creation of home pages for anyone. The details of Nagashima's system will be soon publicized and it is expected that it will be open for public use thereafter.

Also using the same program developed by Nagashima, a notice board was created on a common home page for Rikkyo University and Mie University students. On this notice board, the students can read messages sent by their teachers. A coding system was developed for this: messages in black are

for both Rikkyo University and Mie University students, the ones in brown are for Mie University students only, and the ones in green are for Rikkyo University students only.

### **WHAT CAN BE SHARED ON HOME PAGES?**

It has been popular to keep course syllabi on home pages. Look at the forerunners in this area at Chubu University <<http://langue.hyper.chubu.ac.jp/>> and Wakkainai Hokusei Junior College <<http://www.wakhok.ac.jp/>> in Japan, for example. Hayase has his course syllabus on his home page using his university server, while Kobayashi has his on his home page using his own personal server named *koby* using the Webstar software. The URLs are at the end of this paper. For students, this is helpful in knowing the task for each class meeting. For Kobayashi and Hayase, this is helpful in knowing what each other is doing. It is especially useful for exchanging ideas on teaching composition and on the use of home pages, as well as using each other's teaching materials such as pictures and drawings from the home pages.

### **FUNCTIONS AND CONTRIBUTIONS OF SERVERS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING**

#### **Distance learning support**

According to *Guiding Principles for Distance Learning in a Learning Society*, (Dixon, 1996 p. 6), one definition of distance learning goes as follows: "Distance learning is a system and a process that connects learners with distributed learning resources." Because of the endless possibilities, distance learning is becoming popular around the world.

In traditional teaching and learning contexts, learning resources (teachers, books, videos, etc.) are located at fixed places (classrooms, libraries, audiovisual rooms, etc.) at fixed times (class hours, library hours, etc.), and learners need to present themselves at the places during the available times. Other resources such as radio and television, however, do not dictate the location and the numbers of people who can learn through them. Likewise, videos can be watched by learners at any time they like.

With the advent of the internet, not only has the traditional restrictions disappeared, but it is possible for countless people to employ computers and to take advantage of its abundant learning resources very easily.

### **CREATION OF ON-LINE ENVIRONMENTS FOR LANGUAGE USE**

Traditionally, learning how to use English has been the principal purpose of English classes. For example, if students learn grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, they can compose sentences and utter or write them. This much has been given in traditional school education. What has not been given are abundant opportunities for students to use English for real communication with other people.

In traditional composition classes, student work has been evaluated from the point of accuracy, and in most cases by the teacher only. Student work on home pages kept in servers, on the other hand, can be read not only by the teacher but also by the students' peers, and theoretically by anyone who visits their home pages. Students write not just for their teacher, but for readers around the world. At the same time, students themselves are given opportunities to read their work, which is neatly arranged on their home pages.

## **Changes in teaching mode**

When the server is under the direct control of teachers, all the functions of the server are at their disposal. It is as if they had a very skillful assistant working for them. It is true that most of the things they do by themselves with their server can be done with the university servers, but it is very handy for them to be able to add or change student names on the mailing lists and to do other things by themselves without depending on other servers and other people. In addition, it is much more convenient for teachers to sort accumulated files from on-line conference rooms if they have their own server.

Teachers can share their ideas from their classes easily and those shared ideas can be stored for future common use. Their syllabi, teaching methods, evaluation criteria and other information are shared and used among themselves, without being monopolized by individual teachers.

At our universities, the computer center is open from nine am to nine pm at Mie University, and from nine am to eight pm at Rikkyo University. If students start using computers in their homes, they will be able to have on-line access to their teachers at any time they want to since automated functions of the server will be able to meet their demands twenty-four hours a day. Teachers will also be able to respond to them without waiting for the following week's lessons.

## **Changes in the role of the teacher**

It is said that the traditional role of a teacher will be replaced by that of facilitator for student learning. Traditionally, teachers have mainly passed on the knowledge they have accumulated through their lives to their students. However, in network classrooms, teachers assist and support the learning of the students. In other words, learning will be student-led rather than teacher-led.

By connecting classrooms virtually, teachers create on-line situations where students are inspired to use English for communication. When teachers give feedback on the content and English on the students' home pages, students are motivated to improve them based on the feedback.

Kobayashi motivated his students by making a home page of a list of student link pages. When the students completed their home pages, their names appeared on the link pages. He noticed that the students whose names appeared on top of the list were motivated to work harder on the next tasks.

## **New dimensions in evaluation**

Students are evaluated mostly on the achievement of their home page making tasks, rather than on their test scores. They are evaluated not only on their English and the content of their writing, but also on the entire layout of their home page, their use of pictures and drawings, and their visual impressions.

## **Changes in learning mode**

Students themselves have direct control over their home pages. They can modify and renew their home pages whenever they like. As their writing progresses, so does the accumulation of material on their home pages.

## **Boosting learner motivation**

Muehleisen (1997) stresses that "learning to use computers provides a strong intrinsic motivation for learning English," and she explains its reasons succinctly referring to the situation in Japan as follows: "For most of my students, using computers is still a relatively new (and thus exciting) experience, so students are eager to use computers in class. Currently, Japan is experiencing an internet boom, and students want to be part of it. Practical considerations also motivate some stu-

dents; they expect that they will need to use computers and English in their careers or when they study abroad, so they appreciate learning the practical skill of writing and sending e-mail in English." Similar statements can be made about our students.

Ilona Leki (1993) argues that writing composition on home pages is a type of publication, which motivates students to write. English compositions by our present students are certainly different from those by previous students in their quality, length, and effectiveness.

### **WHAT DID THE STUDENTS THINK ABOUT THEIR COURSES?**

A questionnaire was conducted in Kobayashi's and Hayase's classes in order to find out what the students thought about the courses and to get ideas for future on-line teaching possibilities.

#### **Positive opinions**

\*It is strange communicating with people you do not know on the computer, but I find it interesting to imagine what kind of person the writer is by reading the passages written by him. Also, having friends at a different university widens my horizons. I want to keep communicating with students at Mie University.

\*The task in which we were told to compose a poem looking at pictures of cherry blossoms was very good, because I have not had many opportunities before to use my imagination and to express what I feel. Also, I got to know myself better through creating my self-introduction home page.

\*If it had not been for home pages, it would have been very cumbersome to read all the work by other students and copying them would have wasted a lot of paper.

\*I have never met a student from Mie in person, but I now know a lot about them through the network communication. So, I like the on-line class with Mie University.

\*I am enjoying the course since I've made friends in it. We encourage each other to study English through e-mail.

\*I have more opportunities to read English written by people in my generation. I have also learned how to use Macintosh and Eudora.

\*In this course I have been exposed to more English than in any other course I've taken. It's helped me remember words and expressions that I had forgotten while I also learned new words and expressions. My classmates are very friendly, so I really enjoyed the course. Before, I was afraid of making mistakes in speaking English, but through taking this course, I have learned that it is not embarrassing to make mistakes.

#### **Other opinions**

\*After school, the free access computers were occupied when I wanted to do my homework from class. At the beginning of the course, I did not have enough time to write compositions since I had to learn how to use the computer first.

\*The emphasis was on developing skills in using the computer rather than writing composition. My English did not improve as much as I had planned because I chose an easier approach by just writing compositions with the words and expressions I already knew and left out challenging new vocabulary.

\*E-mail exchange is the only effective way to improve my writing skills. Turning in homework compositions to the teacher and putting our writing on home pages is not effective because they are rather one-sided and because there is not a quick response to them.

\*I did not try to use different sentence structures in my compositions. I did not study my compositions in order to learn from the possible mistakes, and in many cases I could not find my own mistakes, thus losing out on opportunities to learn. However now, as I can express myself in English, although I make mistakes. I

cannot say that the course was completely meaningless.

These ideas from the students show at least three things. First, many students are interested in studying English using an on-line medium. Second, this use of an on-line medium does motivate many students to study English. Third, teachers need to work on making a better environment in which students can improve their English.

## **POSSIBILITIES FOR THE FUTURE**

### **Access to networks from home**

No student at Rikkyo University and Mie University tried to gain access to the network from home during the execution of our project. However, very soon students will have access to the network from their computers at home, making it possible for both teachers and students to work at home without travelling to school. It will be an entirely different teaching and learning situation. Trial and error may be needed in order to create a desirable environment for both teachers and students.

### **Function of retrieving information**

When there is a lot of data, how can we retrieve the information we need quickly and easily? To guide students to the location of the information they want will be one of the most important roles of future teachers. We all know that a lot of useful information is on the internet, but finding the right information at the right time is not easy. In what way can computers help teachers and their students?

We know that there are search engines that help us find information, but unfortunately many of them are very slow. One search engine called "goo" <<http://www.goo.ne.jp/index.html>> is very different from the others. "Goo" instantaneously makes a list of all the home pages in which the searched for word or words appear. One drawback is that depending on the information you are searching for, "goo" may give too many home pages to visit. Nonetheless, it is very helpful and very quick.

### **Other tools and functions**

Dixon refers to video-conferencing as "a real-time session in which full-motion, full color systems send one- or two-way signals through satellite, fiber, or coaxial lines." (pp. 118-119.) What are the merits of video-conferencing? Some may think that video-conferencing is not as efficient as on-line conference rooms in written mode. We certainly would like to experiment with this system in our teaching situations. We are also interested in functions such as test-making, grading, and advising in our future research and studies and their application in our classrooms.

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## **THE AUTHORS**

Mitsuaki Hayase has an MA in English Linguistics from Kansai University of Foreign Studies, Japan and another in Speech Communication from the University of Minnesota, United States. He is involved in a joint

research on the use of home pages for teaching English with Professor Nagashima and Professor Kobayashi. He is Associate professor in the English Department, Faculty of Education, Mie University, Japan. He may be reached via e-mail at <hayase@edu.mie-u.ac.jp>. His home page can be found at <<http://www.cc.mie-u.ac.jp/~lq20102/jugyo/eisaku.html>>.

Etsuo Kobayashi's major field of study is Teaching English to the Japanese as a foreign language. He is currently interested in the use of computers in teaching English. He has a MA in Linguistics from Tohoku University. He is involved in a joint research on the use of home pages for teaching English with Prof. Hayase and Prof. Nagashima. He is Associate professor in the Institute of Foreign Languages and Physical Education, Rikkyo University, Japan. He may be reached via e-mail at <kobayasi@rikkyo.ac.jp>. His home page may be found at <<http://koby.rikkyo.ac.jp/comp97/pub/kobayashi/introduction.html>>.

Shinobu Nagashima's major field of study is Information Science. He is currently interested in developing computer programs to help students study their general and specific subjects. He has a PhD from Tokyo University. He is involved in a joint research project on the use of home pages for teaching English with Prof. Kobayashi and Prof. Hayase. He is Associate professor in the Department of Economics, Rikkyo University, Japan. He may be reached via e-mail at <nagasima@rikkyo.ac.jp>. His home page may be found at <<http://www2.rikkyo.ac.jp/nagasima/>>.

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# Task-based Teaching in a Traditional Setting: Understanding the Students

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**HYUN TAE-DUCK AND ANDREW E. FINCH**

*Andong National University*

Given the current emphasis on English conversation at all levels of education in Korea, this paper investigates how valid and authentic opportunities for communicative use of the target language might be offered, using task-based methods and ideas in a traditional setting. Current teaching styles in secondary education in Korea would need to be significantly changed if a complete shift to a process approach were made, so this paper suggests how the present learning environment might become fertile soil into which the seed of task-based theory might be planted. Such a proposed progression from propositional to process attitudes would be facilitated by sequenced use of language tasks in the classroom, according to characteristics such as linguistic/communicative complexity, information content, and learning-level. In this manner, authentic English conversation skills could be developed within the present system, and in doing so would help to transform it, preserving that which is appropriate, while promoting use of English in a meaningful context.

## **PRESENT SYSTEM**

The purpose of this presentation is to illustrate how modern EFL teaching methods can be used within the educational framework which is currently found in Korean secondary schools, and which produces students with traditional learning preferences in post-secondary education. We would also like to explain what induced us to opt for a task-based approach for our students and for our in-service Korean English teacher-training courses.

Various studies have looked at the problem of large classes, but we would like to investigate the input of the English teacher, and to suggest a way in which students can be assisted in the development of their oral skills, without drastically confronting or opposing their learning environment.

We all know the dangers of comparing cultures in the language classroom. Comparison leads to value judgements, which in turn lead to dissatisfaction. The same is true if we try to impose a new teaching methodology on students whose daily diet is a traditional style of learning. We are not helping them by implying that our methods are better than the ones they have experienced for the whole of their learning life. Instead, it is possible to integrate and to introduce new ways and means gradually. The workshop part of the presentation therefore tries to demonstrate how a task-based methodology can in fact be placed into the present framework, inputting authentic opportunities for use of the English language.

Before the workshop begins however, I would like to say a few words about the learning experience of Korean students. As native speakers, it is normal to see the result of this process rather than the actuality, so I would like to share my knowledge of what our students have been through.

As students in secondary and post-secondary education, we are under great pressure to produce results and these affect the rest of our lives. We therefore work long and hard to achieve those results,

and to get into the right University. When I was a middle school student I heard my teacher saying that if I slept 3 hours a day, I would pass, but if 4 hours a day, I would fail. I think this is true of these days. You have also probably met students who sleep in libraries, and rarely go home. This is our reality -- a continuous round of rote learning, trying to absorb as many facts as possible for a continuous round of examinations. Thus there is little chance to take up a hobby, or to develop a skill such as conversation in another language. Our education comes through our eyes, and not through our lips. We read and learn, read and learn.

Let me give you a brief introduction of how one textbook lesson is taught in English class at secondary schools. This is what I heard from English teachers who take my course given at the graduate school of education. One lesson is divided into six or seven periods. Listening to the tape recorder and doing some tasks, comprehension of the main reading, comprehension checkup, dialogue drills, analysing and practising language form, class activity, and exercises. Most of the teaching is done in Korean, not in the target language, and even in dialogue drills students just memorize the whole dialogue and some are asked to act it out in the front as they have learned it by heart. There is no real communication. Class activities will be a good chance for communicative drill. However teachers do not prepare for it in advance, and merely ask students to practise as directed in the text. Again, there is no real communication. In one word Korean English teachers advocate a text-based teaching/learning. There is no other preparation than the text.

One result of this situation is that our view of language learning is affected by the general methodology, so that we tend to see language as a collection of discrete facts to be learned, memorized, and repeated without meaning. This situation will be understood when you know how pre-teacher training is done at universities. They spend most of their time in studying linguistics and literature and spend less time in developing English proficiency. They take some methodology courses. However, these courses pay attention only to theories. Even if teaching practice is a required course, no practical teaching techniques are taught. Therefore most teachers teach English as they were taught as secondary school students. The teacher training curriculum is partially to blame for this. When I ask teachers to prepare communicative activities for their class, they simply say they do not know how to prepare them and they do not have enough time to do so.

Having been through this system, I am now in a position to affect it in a small way, and to do this from within, by training future generations of teachers. If they can bring a different view of language-learning into the classroom, then whatever the restrictions, the situation will gradually change.

Professor Finch and I had workshops, similar to today's workshop, with secondary school English teachers at the Kyongbuk Teacher Training Center. Most teachers showed great interest in a task-based approach. They are hungry for new techniques and communicative materials. We have to help teachers in this matter.

Thus we advocate a task-based approach for the students, as an authentic and interesting way of motivating them. A new curriculum was introduced this year at my university. Every student must take English conversation courses for three years. This helps us to apply a task-based approach for my students who have been accustomed to a traditional style of learning.

Finally, while asking that language teachers be sensitive to the learning culture in which they find themselves, I would also like to ask that they do not reproduce it! We need new ideas and methods, so that we can go forward. If native speakers fall back on grammar and code-based teaching, the students will simply be getting more of the same. However, they need stimulation, motivation, and enjoyment.

When I interview prospective employees, I ask "Who does the talking in your classroom, you or the students?" The students need to speak and to use English. This must be our primary aim.

## EXPLANATION AND WORKSHOP: SEQUENCING OF TASKS

Tasks lend themselves to stimulating, intellectually challenging materials, especially those of a problem-solving nature, and of a kind which seem meaningful to teachers planning and implementing lessons (Long, 1990 p. 36).

Given the present lack of conversational English skills in post-secondary students in Korea, the approach advocated is to tackle this problem gradually, taking present learner-expectations as a starting point, rather than trying to replace them with unfamiliar practices based on even more unfamiliar concepts. New attitudes to learning are instead allowed to evolve in the classroom, while students are encouraged via the task-based format to optimize their learning opportunities and to at least begin to become autonomous learners.

One means of providing such an environment is to construct a learning-bank of communicative problem-based activities (see Prabhu, 1987), which students can use as a starting point for further progress. However, it must be recognised that this will be the first experience of such an approach for the majority of students, and that they will feel more assured of its educational validity if it is seen to grow out of currently accepted norms. As Corder (1990) points out, success in language-learning is nothing to do with people's innate ability to learn a second language, but has to do with variations in motivation, attitude, and so on; that's where the variation is, and any attempt to help students maximize their learning potential must therefore examine methods of positively affecting such factors, recognizing that current perceptions can be a valuable starting point from which to grow.

Given therefore that students cannot (and should not) be expected to take on such changes at the drop of a hat, it is proposed that a learning-bank might be presented in a manner sufficiently flexible to incorporate a propositional approach to its use in the early stages. The simple use of tasks does not guarantee success or learning efficiency, after all, and in order to provide a springboard for development which would promote familiarity with the concept of task-based learning and which would provide a linear progression of activities in which learning in the traditional sense could be seen to be occurring, tasks could be presented in a sequence reflecting their status and purpose, and learning could then be observed in the development of oral skills along a such a path of graded tasks.

In this context, Brown et al. (1984) distinguish between static and dynamic tasks. Static tasks involve simple transmission of information in a linear sequence, often using easily prescribed language (e.g. where is it?), while dynamic tasks involve the speakers in two-way conversations in which language is not prescribed, and in which relations may vary (e.g. telling a story). Nation (1990) further differentiates between: (a) experience tasks (using the learners previous experience); (b) shared tasks (getting learners to help each other bridge the learning gap); (c) guided tasks (providing support while learners perform the task, by giving exercises and focused guidance); and (d) independent tasks (in which learners work alone without planned help).

Combining these, we can produce a table of task-types (see Table 1, next page) which deal in different ways with the gap between the learners present knowledge and the demands of the learning task. This table can then allow us to select and sequence activities according to their learning characteristics.

Further classification can be made according to Candlin's (1987) list of factors determining the difficulty (and therefore the sequencing) of tasks (1-6), and to Anderson & Lynch's (1988) extension of this list (7-12):

1. cognitive load
2. communicative stress
3. particularity and generalizability
4. code complexity and interpretative density
5. content continuity

6. process continuity
7. the sequence in which the information is presented
8. the familiarity of the listener with the topic
9. the explicitness of the information contained in the text
10. the type of input
11. the type and scope of the task to be carried out
12. the amount of support provided to the listener (speaker)

Thus teachers and students can be presented with a series of activities sequenced according to the above considerations, and can follow this, confident that new content is being presented, practised, and performed (a methodology used by the British Council), according to established educational tenets.

However, recent research has questioned the link between linguistic predictions of difficulty and what learners actually do find difficult (Nunan, 1988), and an important aspect of this gradual introduction of the process ethos is that students are given the freedom to select activities seen to be appropriate to learning needs and difficulties as identified by themselves, performing such activities

**TABLE 1**  
**TASK-TYPES**

|                   | static  | dynamic   |
|-------------------|---|---|
| experience tasks  | *memory games review activities (one-way)<br>*lexis activities  | *brainstorming<br>*free-talking<br>*discussions<br>*review activities (two-way)   |
| shared tasks      | *pair-work (one-way - fixed language) group-work (one-way)  | *pair-work (two-way - eg interviews)<br>*group-work (two-way)<br>*jigsaw activities<br>*pyramid activities<br>*role-plays<br>*simulations<br>*peer-error-correction<br>*peer-assessment |
| guided tasks      | *classroom English<br>*lexis activities (e.g. discovering meaning new vocabulary)<br>*structural activities (drills)<br>*questionnaires (one-way)<br>*comprehension activities<br>*dictation activities | *questionnaires (two-way)<br>*obtaining/sharing information that has/leads to various outcomes and allows various uses of the language  |
| independent tasks | *homework<br>*independent evaluation via question sheets<br>*individual questionnaires<br>accessing controlled information from others in the class   | *ongoing self/group-evaluation<br>*materials design (making activities inventing games designing questionnaires undertaking projects)   |

according to the needs of the group rather than the class. Thus within any particular unit of the learning bank, different groups can be working on different activities, and progressing onto new ones at their own speed. This allows students to set learning objectives according to their own preferred learning rate, and to determine factors regarding the assimilation of new content matter. Some groups will therefore concentrate on static/guided tasks (e.g. example dialogues or activities which are essentially substitution drills). Other groups will pass over such activities, and will choose to perform more dynamic shared activities. From this situation, they can (with the teachers counselling) move onto more independent tasks, developing and following-up the activities in a project-based format, designing their own materials, and performing more extended tasks relevant to their needs and abilities. In this way, oral skills are promoted according to the appropriate needs of the learner, instead of being applicable to a small minority at either end of the learning scale.

### **Example activities**

For an example of how this process (i.e. using tasks to move from propositional learner-expectations to a process attitude to learning) might be employed in reality, a sample unit from *Tell Me About It* (Finch & Hyun, 1997) is shown in the appendix. In this unit (Food & Restaurants), a Notional/Functional topic is set, and tasks are presented in a manner which allows a traditional interpretation. However, it is important to note that the successful carrying out of these tasks involves changes in classroom management, and that the sequencing of the tasks encourages the learner to progress along a project-based path which has free-talking as its final aim. Indeed, the development of learner-awareness along this route is one of the tasks itself, one which begins in a guided/static manner, and which takes on more dynamic/shared characteristics as it evolves.

Thus, the first activity in the Unit (How many Foods?) is a discovery activity, in which students brainstorm their own preexisting vocabulary and share this with members of their group, and then with other groups. A quite controlled (static/experience) exercise therefore grows into a shared exploration of vocabulary, and students are encouraged to be more self-confident about their present level of achievement.

The second activity (Tell Me About It) is still static, with set questions and answers, and aims to deal with a difficult and recurring problem (prepositions of location) by placing it in the context of the topic for the unit. This activity, which has less scope for development than the previous one, might well be placed at the beginning of the unit, but one of the aims of the book is to encourage students to question and evaluate, in preparation for their own freer selection of tasks appropriate to their needs.

The third and fifth activities (Fast Food, and At the Restaurant) are model dialogues (static/guided), which are essentially substitution drills, preparing for the freer activities to come. Students need to feel that their language-learning is valid and valuable, and for those lacking confidence in their ability to converse, such a beginning is a good starting point from which to examine the language. Therefore, while some groups concentrate on these models, others will move on to activity four (Favorite Foods), a questionnaire (static/shared - dynamic/shared) which takes a normal question/answer format, but involves the students by asking them to devise the questions. From this quite structured starting point there are many follow-up possibilities (reports, interviews, role-plays), in which authenticity can be promoted, and in which students can be given the opportunity to think about their learning needs and strategies.

This theme continues in the next activity (Making a Menu), in which the task, the purpose, and the setting, are all dynamic/independent, necessitating communicative use of the target language in order to fulfill the requirements of designing a menu. Such an exercise can easily grow into other language tasks and projects, (either at the teachers suggestion, or as instigated by the students) such as role-play, drama, reports, and presentations.

A "Teachers Resource Book" is part of the learning bank, and provides the teacher with a collection of activities to which s/he can refer when appropriate. In this unit, cards are supplied showing pictures of foods and definitions of these according to the containers used. Various card games can thus be initiated, and will focus on the teaching aim of food containers as they are performed. Here again, activities can be sequenced at the teachers prompting, beginning with simple match games, and moving on to more complex sentence structures with more interesting games, finally arriving at free speech and student-designed (dynamic/independent) games.

Teachers notes are also supplied in which explanations and suggested methods of performing the activities are given, based upon the underlying idea that the teacher, rather than being an all-knowing 'mentor', ...

lets nothing else be learned than - learning. His conduct therefore, often produces the impression that we properly learn nothing from him, if by learning we ... understand the procurement of useful information. The teacher is ahead of his students in this alone, that he still has far more to learn than they - he has to learn to let them learn (Heidegger, 1983 p. 18).

This concept is central to the use of tasks, and though it might involve a leap of faith in some cases, it is certain that every teacher will want to espouse the cause of learning, just as every English classroom these days claims to be communicative. It is simply a shift in emphasis and definition that is required.

## CONCLUSION

The gradual introduction of innovative concepts and practices is an important aspect of the proposed approach, given the strong educational and cultural backgrounds of the students. Thus the security of being able to taste the new, while having the old still available makes changes in learning styles less frightening, while providing a reference point against which to make comparative evaluations and to assess learning. Initial levels and attitudes to learning are taken as a starting point, and students and teachers are encouraged to explore the freedom to select and develop activities from that point.

Hence it is suggested that within the present educational system, use of a task-based format with a learning bank of structured activities in the English language classroom, would encourage in those concerned, at the very least a planting of a seed, and a shooting of that seed to produce effective and lasting growth in the development of oral skills. Students would be encouraged to make meaningful utterances in the target language, to perceive that learning strategies can produce valid results, to successfully communicate and negotiate meaning, and to improve their oral performance according to their own criteria. We must prepare them after all for a new millennium, in which the goal of education must surely be the facilitation of change and learning, since it is not knowledge, but the process of seeking knowledge which gives a base for security. We must be ready to assess strengths and weaknesses in our educational system, and to change it accordingly, preparing our future citizens for the unimaginable road ahead by enabling them with the learning skills necessary to take the country forward in what will surely be an era of change and development. For this, we need people who can communicate easily and fluently by phone, in the international market place, or on the Internet, rather than being able to answer complex but largely irrelevant decontextualized and unauthentic multiple choice questions.

## THE AUTHORS

Hyun Tae-duck obtained a BA, MA, and a PhD from Keimyung University, and since then has been a Visiting Scholar with the University of Wisconsin, United States and Visiting Fellow at the University of Essex, United Kingdom. He presented a local TV current affairs program for six years, and taught English at high school before entering Andong University as a professor with the English Education Department, specializing in syntax. Dr. Hyun is Director of the University Language Center, and author of a freshman conversation textbook.

Andrew E. Finch holds an MEd, from Manchester specializing in materials design and oral testing. He has coauthored a freshman conversation textbook and founded a student conversation club. He sees such activities as equally effective as lessons. He is currently Deputy Director of Andong University Language Center.

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## APPENDIX: SAMPLE ACTIVITIES

**How Many Foods?**

Group: 4 members - group activity  
Materials: pencil/paper  
Language: Vocabulary building

How many types of food can you think of?  
Do we learn the names in English?  
In your group:.....

1. Choose one type of food (fruit, vegetables, meat/seafood, others)
2. Everybody write down all the food names your group can think of.
3. Change groups. (Your teacher will help you.)
4. Share your sheet with the people in the next group.
5. Change groups.
6. Share your sheet. Fill up your sheet with all four types of foods.



|     |     |
|-----|-----|
| 1.  | 11. |
| 2.  | 12. |
| 3.  | 13. |
| 4.  | 14. |
| 5.  | 15. |
| 6.  | 16. |
| 7.  | 17. |
| 8.  | 18. |
| 9.  | 19. |
| 10. | 20. |

**Tell Me About It**

Group: 2-3  
Materials: pencil/paper  
Language: Counting - numbers, shapes, positions

Student A: Tell student B how to draw the picture on this page.  
Student B: Listen to Student A. Draw the picture in the empty space on the next page. You can ask questions ("Where?" "How big?" "How many?")



### Fast Food

Group: 4-6 students  
Materials: pen/pencil  
Language: Speaking, negotiation

Here is a model dialogue:  
 I: Practice it with your partner.  
 II: Try to do the alternative dialogues.

A: Welcome to McDon. Can I help you?  
 B: Yes. I'd like a *hamburger* and *French fries*.  
 A: Certainly. Do you want anything to drink with that?  
 B: Yes please. I'd have a *cola*.  
 A: Okay. A *hamburger*, *French fries*, and a *cola*.  
 For here or to go?  
 B: To go please.  
 A: That's *three dollars fifty cents* (\$3.50) please.  
 B: Fine. Here you are.

Now try the dialogue again with different items. Choose from these:

|                |                |                |
|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Hamburger      | Soda           | Hot Coffee     |
| Hot Dog        | Cake slice     | Coke           |
| Chicken Wings  | Pizza          | Sprite         |
| Tacos          | Curry          | Lemon tea      |
| Hot Sandwiches | 1 French fries | Instant coffee |
| Pancakes       | Apple pie      | Coffee         |
|                |                | SBK            |

\$5.20 \$4.80  
\$7.25 \$6.70  
\$14.00 \$12.20

### Favorite Foods

Group: 4-6 students  
Materials: pen/pencil  
Language: Question - answering, interaction

What food do people like best?  
Let's make a questionnaire in your group.

- 1) Each person, think of three questions, e.g. "Do you like spicy food?"
- 2) Write these down below.
- 3) Each person interviews at least ten people just from your group.
- 4) Share the results with the people in your group.
- 5) Write down the results from your group.
- 6) Change groups. Share your ideas.

What is the favorite food of the chef?  
What is the most favorite food of the chef?

|     | Yes | No | Maybe |
|-----|-----|----|-------|
| 1.  |     |    |       |
| 2.  |     |    |       |
| 3.  |     |    |       |
| 4.  |     |    |       |
| 5.  |     |    |       |
| 6.  |     |    |       |
| 7.  |     |    |       |
| 8.  |     |    |       |
| 9.  |     |    |       |
| 10. |     |    |       |

## Menu

### Making a Menu

Group: 4-6 students  
Materials: pen/pencil  
Language: Negotiation, speaking

We are going to make a menu today. To do so we need to decide some things.

1. What type of restaurant?
2. What is the name of the restaurant? (Use all your imagination and write down the "number" your group.)
3. What food will we offer for "breakfast"? (Write it up.)
4. What food will we offer for "lunch"? (Write it up.)
5. What food will we offer for "dinner"? (Write it up.)
6. What drinks will we offer? (Write it up.)

In your group, write to these questions, and write your answers on the following page.

Try to make a menu with a main course and a dessert. Try to make it interesting. Perhaps you can make something that's new at the time.

"Remember, we don't have too many words!"  
 "Remember, we don't have too many words!"

### Dessert

- 1/
- 2/
- 3/
- 4/
- 5/

### Drinks

- 1/
- 2/
- 3/
- 4/
- 5/



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# Cultural Differences and Their Impact on the American Classroom

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**DAVID G. KEMP AND CHRISTOPHER C. WEISS**

*Florida State University*

The purpose of this paper is to aid Korean students planning to study in a university or academic setting in the United States. The authors explore the different expectations held by both American and Korean students and instructors with regard to classroom roles, procedures and behaviors. The concepts of cultural relativism, American cultural values, cultural adjustment stages, and cross-cultural misunderstanding are presented. A survey was conducted of university professors to reveal the expectations and standards they place upon the non-native English speaking students. The authors present specific teaching activities which aim to expose students to behaviors, thought-processes and attitudes of a particular target culture. Finally, suggestions are made in order to help acculturate Korean students to the specific and specialized cultural expectations at an American university.

**T**hink about how you would respond if a stranger were to say to you, "Go 'Bows!" or "How 'bout them 'Gators!" or "Go Blue!" If you were a student at one of these universities (University of Hawaii, University of Florida, or University of Michigan) you would have understood these phrases as a greeting or a demonstration of inclusion in the group that belongs to or at least supports the particular university. If you did not understand the reference, you would not be considered a member of that group. That is to say, you would not be a member of that culture. Even though a Korean student might understand all of the individual phonemes and words of the expression, the student would fail to be identified as a member of the group simply because he or she did not understand the context or intended purpose of the utterance, and did not know how to properly respond to the statement.

If a good friend were to approach you and say, "You look tired," how would you respond? If this happened time after time, and it were one of your students saying this, what would you do? If the only people to say this to you on a regular basis were citizens of the same country, would this make any difference in the way you responded? Would you, after a while, want to ascribe certain notions to the group at large, or would you be more forgiving and continue to be as nice and polite as possible, responding to each statement as though it were the first time you had ever heard it. If you are like hundreds of other teachers of ESL in the United States, you may receive this kind of comment or question year after year. At first, the comment may not bother you, but after some time it may start to annoy you. What is most intriguing, however, is just why the repeated actions or statements of one particular group can be so bothersome.

The biggest single explanation for the situation above is culture. Culture surrounds and envelopes us, yet we never realize this until there is some sort of clash between how we think something should be and how something actually is. This problem of culture clash occurs within all societies when members of two different culture groups meet. This situation occurs thousands of times a year in the United States between Koreans and Americans. As Koreans continue to visit the United States for academic reasons, and continue to interact with American teachers and students, culture clash is

inevitable. However, the "clash" can certainly be lessened if those involved are made aware, beforehand, of cultural differences between the two groups, differences that are relevant to an academic environment.

## **DEFINITION**

Perhaps in no other environment is culture as much a factor as in an ESL setting. In a typical ESL classroom in the United States, countless cultures are represented by the student body. The teachers' task is twofold: first, they must integrate these cultures into an environment which is conducive to learning; second, they must facilitate the students as they segue into the larger American mainstream culture. It is important, therefore, for instructors to be aware not only of different cultures but to be aware of how culture is defined in the ESL field. The allegiance to a particular school of thought will determine how one attempts to understand culture and its role.

Instructors who subscribes to the behaviorist camp would define culture as a discrete set of shared, observable behaviors. They will note the observed behavior, try to understand it and seek to explain the conditions under which it occurs. Functionalists view culture as a social phenomenon, and seek to understand social behaviors. They would take an ethnographic approach: observing and describing an event, and then asking a cultural informant as to the meaning ascribed by the particular society. To cognitivists, culture is something to be studied and understood as to why the individual acted in such a manner and how the individual's previous experiences shaped this output (Robinson, 1987). Perhaps Edward Hall (1959) said it best when he called culture "the sum total of a way of life of a people." This statement suggests that in order to understand a culture, one must delve deeply into numerous, related aspects of a society. If Hall's statement is accurate, virtually nothing is outside the bounds of examination.

## **CULTURAL RELATIVISM**

In determining the reason why something seems to bother us, we must first look at our home culture and its values. Next, we must examine the values assigned to the components of the foreign culture. According to linguistic theory, there is no culture which is superior to any other nor is any one culture more intricate and difficult to learn. This is called cultural relativism, a theory originated by Franz Boas, (1911) an early 20th century anthropologist who fought against the prevailing racist and ethnocentric views of his time. It was believed by many that numerous cultures were barbaric, backward, and primitive as compared with the cultures of the West. Cultural relativism asks us not to judge one culture as better than or inferior to another. Rather, we must try to understand the behaviors of other culture members from their perspective and on their terms. This does not mean that we must approve of other cultural beliefs, behaviors and values. It only means that we should not judge; we should seek to understand. Today, no sane educator in America or most other countries would dare subscribe to anything other than cultural relativism.

To show how cultural relativism comes into play in a cross-cultural environment, consider the following: While students are completing a pair-work assignment, an ESL instructor excuses himself from the room in order to refill his coffee cup. On the way out of the classroom, he asks his students if anyone would like something to drink (coffee, water, etc.) A few students answer in the affirmative. The instructor returns to class carrying a tray with an assortment of drinks. A pair of Korean students in the class starts to laugh at the sight of this. The instructor wonders why these two students are laughing. Should he be insulted? Are they laughing at him? Keeping cultural relativism in mind, the instructor asks the students why they are laughing. They tell him that in Korea a teacher would never offer and then actually bring drinks into the class and serve them to the students. The instructor now

understands the Korean perspective and does not feel insulted. He then presents the rationale for his behavior. In other words, he presents the American perspective, and tells the students that they should not be surprised when one of their American instructors does something of this nature.

## **GENERAL AMERICAN CULTURAL VALUES**

It is important, for the purpose of this paper, to provide a general foundation of American cultural values, beliefs and customs. In his observation of American behaviors, beliefs, and values, Jenks (1972) suggests thirteen premises that seem to describe a "typical" American. The components include:

1. An individual's most important concern is his/her self-interest self-expression, self-development, self-gratification, and independence.
2. The privacy of an individual is a basic right. Intrusion into it by others is permitted only by invitation.
3. Because government exists for the benefit of the individual, all forms of authority are slightly suspect. The individual does not exist for the benefit of the government.
4. Being accepted by peers is an important factor in one's concept of success.
5. Religion and religious affiliation are important. One should belong to an organized church or religious institution.
6. Women and men are equal.
7. All human beings are equal.
8. Progress is good and inevitable. An individual must improve him/herself: institutions must modernize to make themselves more responsive to change.
9. America is the utmost symbol of progress.
10. Time is a commodity to be tallied and managed.
11. Size and space are important factors in establishing personal and financial prestige.
12. Conservation and ecology are practised virtues as long as they don't affect the individual's self-interest too severely.
13. Singlehood as a chosen way of life is modestly suspect.

Now that the general cultural components have been presented, a more specific culture can be addressed: the culture, or subculture, that is the American university classroom. Many of the above mentioned American values have direct impact upon the goings on of an American classroom, especially values 1, 4, 6, 7, and 8.

## **AMERICAN CLASS DESCRIPTION: TEACHER**

Teacher may say, "I don't know."

Teacher attempts to intellectually challenge the students, who, in turn, are expected to respond.

Teacher may dress in numerous styles depending on personal preference, ranging from shorts, a T-shirt and a baseball cap to a three-piece suit.

Teacher may conduct class anyway he or she chooses.

Teacher may sit on desks, chairs, walk around the room, etc.

Teacher expects student to participate in class discussion.

Teacher may pair students in class to work as a group for an activity.

Teacher expects students to attend class in person, on time, and regularly.

## **Students**

Students usually feel free to ask questions of the teacher at any time during the class.

Students are expected to give personal opinion on course content.

Students are commonly involved in study groups outside of class.

Students may dress extremely casually.

Students may express an opinion that is opposite of the teacher provided there is a rational explanation for the alternative viewpoint.

When Koreans are introduced to an American class, they usually enter it with certain expectations. Their preconceptions of how a classroom should look and how teachers and students should act stem from their years of schooling in Korea. As a result of these preconceptions, Korean students are sometimes ill-prepared for the American classroom culture.

## **CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT STAGES**

In trying to adjust to a new culture there are several phases that an individual will, more than likely, pass through. According to Foster (1962), there are four stages which most individuals experience while adapting to the new culture and its associated patterns. The first stage is often called euphoria, where everything is new and exciting. The second stage, typically referred to as home sickness, occurs when the newness of the culture starts to wear off. Individuals begin to perceive the new culture as strange, bizarre and even distasteful. During this stage, many individuals seek out the company of others from one's own country in order to find refuge from the cultural differences to which they have been exposed. In stage three, sometimes referred to as the acceptance stage, individuals have overcome much of the discomfort from stage two. They can begin to relate to the new culture and understand its characteristics. In the fourth and final stage, often referred to as one of acculturation, individuals encounter virtually no feeling of disequilibrium, and can, if they wish, become a permanent member of the new culture. It should be added that this cultural adjustment process is, for most individuals, circular rather than linear. In other words, individuals may, throughout the duration of living in the foreign country, move freely between the stages and can even experience some or all of the phases numerous times (Valdes, 1986).

It is important that prospective students understand that they will more likely than not experience these phases of cultural adjustment. Just how long each individual remains in each phase depends on numerous factors including prior experience in a foreign culture, knowledge of the target culture, similarity between the target culture and the individual's native culture, and their tolerance of ambiguity.

## **SURVEY**

As a student, the question as to the importance of cultural expectations and whether the differences are of any real consequences is best demonstrated by asking the question, "Will my grade be affected?" The answer is more than likely going to be "Yes."

The authors conducted a survey of 15 randomly chosen professors at Florida State University. The purpose of the survey was to sample the standards to which the students of these professors are held, and whether any allowances are made for non-native English speaking students. It was presumed Korean students' grades would be adversely affected should they be unable to adapt to an American classroom environment. The survey consisted of twelve questions (see Appendix A).

Based on the results of the survey, it would seem that if an international student wants the maximum points for the more intangible aspects of a grade, it would be an intelligent decision to try to successfully adapt to the target culture.

## CROSS-CULTURAL MISUNDERSTANDINGS

In order to help minimize the adjustment period required to integrate into the new culture, one should be as cognizant as possible as to potential problem areas. If individuals study and examine specific features of the target culture, they may be able to internalize these features. It is hoped that this internalization can allow the individuals to predict how members of the target culture will respond in any given situation. According to Gumperz, Jupp, and Roberts (1979), most cross-cultural misunderstandings can be divided into three major categories:

1. Different cultural assumptions about a situation and about appropriate behavior and intentions within it.
2. Different ways of structuring information or an argument in a conversation or written discourse.
3. Different ways of speaking; the use of a different set of unconscious linguistic conventions (such as tone of voice) to emphasize, to signal connections and logic, and to imply the significance of what is being said in terms of overall meaning and attitudes.

The first category can be exemplified by a gift-giving situation. In the United States, a gift is usually opened immediately in the presence of the giver. In other cultures, however, the gift is placed aside and opened after the giver has left the area. If the cross-cultural situation involved an American giving a gift to an Asian, the American may be expecting the receiver to open the gift immediately. When this does not happen and the gift is put aside, the giver may understand that the gift is not appreciated.

In explaining the second area, Americans generally like the speaker or writer to come directly to the point. They do not like someone who couches information with maybes, it seems, etc., and may get irritated or impatient if a speaker or writer fails to address a topic in a timely manner. If such a delay occurs, the American may urge the speaker or writer to "Get to the point!" Being direct is considered a positive feature in American English (Robinson, 1987). However, this directness does not imply rudeness. As a matter of fact, there is a great deal of politeness in the English language but the topic is addressed in a short matter of course. For example, if you have a problem with a task assigned you by the boss, you could ask to speak to him by saying something to the effect of, "When it is convenient for you, I would like to speak to you about the project." The phrase, "when it is convenient for you" defers to the other person's schedule, and "I would like" is a politeness marker. Another example of how Americans tend to be direct (yet still polite) ties back to the "You look tired" comment mentioned earlier in this paper. "You look tired" is probably a bit too direct and lacks cultural sensitivity. An American would probably try to soften this statement by saying something like, "Are you OK? You look a bit tired," or "Did you have a rough night last night? You seem a little run-down."

The third category of miscommunication addresses suprasegmental features of spoken discourse such as prosody, which includes intonation, stress, pitch and rhythm. These elements, all of which are subconscious, convey both the emotional intent of the speaker and the intended impact upon the listener. It is easy to imagine how insult and irritation can result between interlocutors due to differing perceptions of the aforementioned prosodic features. Some of the items when spoken by an Asian speaker that can confuse English speakers and may lead to agitation are:

1. Certain uses of high or low pitched voice and loudness.
2. Lack of stress
3. Use of Yes/No
4. Lack of cohesive features in discourse so that the Asian speaker appears boring or confused

## 5. Wrong use of turn-taking

The inappropriate use of loudness and high pitch at the beginning of a sentence may indicate to an American listener that the speaker is irritated or angry. In the example sentence, "Where is the waiter," if the stress is on the initial word, the impact is greatly altered as compared to the stress falling on the object, waiter. Thus, even though a Korean speaker uttering this statement with inappropriate stress, pitch and loudness may in fact not be angry or upset, the American listener interprets the Korean as being emotionally distraught.

Asian people can be confused and may be agitated by:

1. Tone of voice: high pitch or stress on particular words. This can sound emotional and impolite
2. Apparent not listening
3. Many forms of implicit or indirect statements and questions
4. Apologetic or polite and repetitive uses of English (Gumperz, Jupp, & Roberts, 1979)

It must be stressed that these differences are just that -- differences. Any irritation or aggravation that results is usually unintended. Indeed, both parties usually feel they are acting properly and politely; they are simply unaware of how their utterances are being perceived and understood by the listener. In order to prevent hurt feelings over such simple differences an answer is needed to the following question: "How can one learn (at least to some degree) the target culture before being immersed in it?"

## PREPARATORY ACTIVITIES

In preparing to attend an American university, it is believed that "forewarned is forearmed." This means that in order to prepare oneself for matriculation into a United States institution, the student should be made overtly aware of the differences and similarities between their home educational culture to that of American educational culture. This preparation can be conducted during the high school or university years. Alternatively, if the student attends private lessons the material can be presented at some point during this time. Regardless of when the information is acquired, the key is that the instructor must be, at least minimally, aware of the target culture's patterns.

Seelye (1987) relates three interesting and creative suggestions on how to learn about foreign cultures. He presents Cultural Assimilators, Capsules, and Clusters as informative, active ways in which students can learn about and explore a particular target culture. His suggested techniques encourage students to think about other people and other cultures and why they act as they do. This cognitive approach to learning allows students to develop an understanding of the thinking processes and beliefs of members of another culture.

## CULTURAL ASSIMILATORS

This technique assists the student in adjusting to a target culture. The teacher creates and describes a situation in which members of two different cultures interact. The teacher then provides a question with four possible answers. If the student selects the wrong answer, there is a description as to why the chosen answer is not correct as to the given situation. The student is then allowed to choose a different answer. This activity provides the pupil with episodes of the cultural behavior and reasons for the behavior from the point of view of the target culture. Each episode describes a typical interaction which the members of the two different cultures find bewildering, conflicting, maddening, or frustrating. The assimilator is designed to allow each interlocutor to interpret the interaction from his own culture's point of view but is asked to provide the correct response (i.e. the correct response from the target culture's perspective) from the four plausible explanations given as choices.

This technique has three advantages over just reading a description from a textbook. They are more fun to read, they are more interactive, and they have been shown in experiments to be more effective in explaining why the members of a target culture act as they do (Seeley).

### **CULTURE CAPSULE**

In this activity, students prepare what is called a culture capsule. The teacher provides some guidance as to an idea or topic related to the target culture about which the students gather information. A typical capsule includes a brief description of the target culture and how it differs or is similar to the home culture of the students. The capsule may even include pictures or realia of the target culture. Eventually, the students present their capsule in front of their classmates. Many English language texts are organized around topics or themes; these concepts may well lend themselves to culture capsule activities. A major difference between this activity and that of cultural assimilators is that this technique is prepared by the students themselves, who must report their findings to the class. This activity asks the students to become "detectives," and take an active role in the learning process (Seelye, p. 132).

### **CULTURE CLUSTER**

A culture cluster is simply a grouping of culture capsules that all relate to a broader cultural topic. The capsules can be presented or acted out in-class by the students in order to get the "feel", and if possible the behavioral patterns, of the target culture (Seelye, p. 132). For this activity, the class is usually divided into small groups, with each group being assigned a culture capsule to prepare and present. The group members are to work together to research and assemble the necessary elements of the capsule. Each capsule is then, in-turn, incorporated into the larger culture cluster. After the cluster gets assembled, the instructor may elect to have the groups present their capsules in a particular order. In other words, the class builds the entire cluster in an organized, piece-by-piece fashion. As one of the student groups finishes its presentation, it may "hand off" the stage to the following group which could pick up where the previous group left off. This "tag team" approach to the cluster could allow for students to be exposed to the entire cluster, gain an understanding as to how their individual project relates to the whole topic, and get more experience working within a group, a common facet of the American classroom.

### **ACCULTURATIONAL SUGGESTIONS**

In assisting prospective students to integrate more fully into an American educational environment, a few specific suggestions are made based upon personal observations of the authors as well as personal interviews with Korean students who, after attending English language classes in the US, are currently enrolled in graduate programs at Florida State University.

#### **Do:**

1. When the teacher addresses you in class, acknowledge receipt of the instruction or question.
2. Respond to questions promptly. If you are unsure of the answer, say, "I'm sorry. I can't answer because" or "I don't know." Dropping your head down or turning your eyes away does not answer anything.
3. Take down whatever is on the board.
4. Ask questions and make comments in class. In other words, be a participant.
5. Make sure a classmate picks up handouts and assignments for you should you be absent.

6. Be punctual.
7. Keep to the right when ascending or descending stairs.
8. Keep your shoes on in class.
9. Bring a sweater or jacket to class.
10. Speak loud enough to be heard by all class members.
11. Visit the professor during office hours (or make an appointment) to discuss class matters.
12. Look in the eyes of the person talking to you, including your teachers.
13. Drink and eat in the classroom only if your teacher allows it.
14. Try to elicit other people's responses.

### **Don't:**

1. Offer any gift that could be misinterpreted as a bribe.
2. Talk to classmates while the teacher is talking.
3. Interrupt a classmate who is speaking. Wait for your classmate to finish and then say, "If I can", "In my opinion", "I think" or "Excuse me"
4. Send a signal to your classmate by raising a hand.
5. Talk for too long. Remember that there are other people in the class waiting for their turn to speak.
6. Whisper the correct answer to your classmate. Let your classmate work with the teacher.
7. Ignore questions even if you do not know the answer.
8. Use Korean rhetorical/discourse/intonation patterns.
9. Ask about age, marriage, or salaries.
10. Abuse the privilege of being able to temporarily leave the classroom without a verbal excuse.
11. Leave doors which open to the outside ajar unless specifically requested to do so.
12. Adjust classroom temperature without consulting others.

The following suggestions are not specifically related to American classroom culture. However, they apply to behaviors which may attract attention from Americans.

### **1. Unless you mind being thought of as strange, don't:**

2. Wear clothing styles or try to be "too hip".
3. Squat when talking to friends.
4. Sit on the lap of a member of the same sex.
5. Walk arm-in-arm with a person of the same sex.
6. Cover your mouth when laughing or talking (women).
7. Let your shoes slap the ground as you walk.
8. Try to make as much noise as possible when walking on stairs.
9. Place your hands (with the thumbs down) when putting them on hips (men).

## **CONCLUSION**

The purpose of this paper was to assist Korean students coming to America for academic reasons, specifically to attend an American university. Cultural training does not mean transforming an individual into a citizen of the target culture. Rather, it allows the student to understand the rules and expectations of the new culture. This, in turn, will maximize cultural harmony. So much of culture deals with the handling of emotional topics. If you do not know the rules of the game, you can easily hurt someone, or get hurt yourself.



## THE AUTHORS

David and Chris are doctoral candidates at Florida State University in Tallahassee, Florida, where they are studying in the Multilingual/Multicultural Education program. Both hold appointments as Teaching Assistants at the university's Center for Intensive English Studies. David is interested in listening, speaking, and cultural issues while Chris' chief interest concerns the legality and politics surrounding the movement to declare English the "Official Language" of the United States.

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## APPENDIX A: SURVEY RESULTS

What follows is a breakdown of survey answers.

1. Should all students in a class be held to the same grading standard?  
Yes-14 No-1
2. If yes, Why?; if no, Why not?  
Only Fair-4 Minimum Competency Level-4 All Meet Same End-Point-3 Equal Standards-2  
University Rules-1
3. Should there be any exceptions?  
Yes-7 No-8
4. Does your syllabus reflect any percentage of the grade based upon class participation?  
Yes-11 No-4
5. If yes, approximately what percentage is class participation?  
Range from 5% to 50%
6. List some examples of positive class participation.  
attendance, participate in discussion, participation group work, complete assignments on time, taking opposing point of view, asking/answering questions, giving personal/real world examples, project leadership, summarize discussion/assignment
7. List some examples of negative class participation.  
not attending class, tardy, leaving class, talking, changing the subject ,interruption/disruption/unpreparedness, monopolizing class time, not keeping up, reading outside materials in

class, lack of participation

8. Does your syllabus reflect any kind of group work activities whether in or out of class?  
Yes-11 No-4

9. If yes, approximately what percentage of the grade is based on this kind of activity?  
Range from 5% to 100%

10. Do you (would you) make any allowances for non-native English speaking students?  
Yes-4 No-11

11. If a paper were poorly written, should the student be given a poor grade?  
Yes-13 No-2

12. If a paper were poorly written and the student's native language were not English, should the student be given a poor grade?  
Yes-12 No-3

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# Survey of Software Sources with Applications for the Computer-Assisted Language Lab

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**JOYCE T. JOHNSTON**

*Fortune Junior College of Technology & Commerce*

In view of the rapid changes in computer technology, there is difficulty in obtaining and evaluating programs. Despite this difficulty, the Internet has again proved an invaluable tool, in fact, indispensable. I have found minimal sources of authoritative reviews, non-overlapping listings of programs and publishers, which probably suggests a relatively small and segmented market in educational software. A bias toward products originating in the United States is defensible because of the greater and more varied supply of software in that country's market.

This paper will provide descriptions of sources for software reviews and programs, criteria for evaluating educational programs, and immediate experiences in developing a computer lab. The author's experience has evolved from using an individual computer for multiple students into utilizing computer labs for primary school to college-age students. These programs are integrated with progressive classroom materials which are used from kindergarten to post-secondary levels. Use of the computer does not come without some caveats. Recommendations for positive results are not dissimilar to those for the classroom: (a) purposeful progression to successive learning levels; (b) integration with and extension of a classroom curriculum in which materials are appropriate to the level of the learner and which addresses all skill areas; (c) resource materials (flash cards, follow-up exercises, story booklets) for review purposes; and (d) instructive supervision over the use of equipment and software.

Success with using the computer, as a complement to a progressively structured classroom curriculum, can be measured by the progress of the students toward an excellent foundation in English leading from a basis in phonics to speaking, writing and reading skills.

## **INTRODUCTION: GOALS OF COMPUTER-AIDED LEARNING**

Underlying the search for computer software is an educational goal of language teaching which provides long-term learning. The theoretical assumptions underlying the evaluation of computer software are expressed in the Communicative Approach (Campbell & Yong, 1993). This is an approach which rests upon a goal of long term accomplishment in language learning and an emphasis on the student's participation rather than the teacher's presentation. Long-term learning requires proficiency in all language skills with an understanding of grammatical structure. Fluency in a language requires 13 years' study (Goodfellow, 1994); proficiency in a language encompasses "phonology, syntax, vocabulary, and semantics ... also able to make use of this knowledge appropriately in actual communication." (Shaw, 1992) The support that a computer lends to this goal is as an effective tool for learner assessment and drilling for the individual student -- a tool desperately needed in large classes. In contrast, survival skills in language, skills best characterized by those who are functionally

illiterate, are easily acquired in a short time with a limited oral vocabulary. Knowledge of grammatical structures is superfluous for this purpose.

Learner-centered teaching, shifting the emphasis away from the traditional teacher-centered instruction, is a key concept of the communicative approach. "Computer programs that emphasize student-centered activities can successfully shift the primary responsibility for learning from the teacher to the learner." (Hannafin & Freeman, 1995). This shift can be construed to be motivational to the students, since the students can control and shape the choice of activity which is presented in an engaging manner in a variety of activities to their individual way of learning. In the computer laboratory, students can apply language acquired in the classroom with increased concentration and motivation when self-directed, as noted in the Discussion section of this paper.

### **As A Resource For Learning**

Multimedia is close to creating a real world environment (Johnston, 1994) through sound, pictures and voice recording/playback, consequently, addressing all skill areas. One illustration of the motivation inherent in multimedia is that "the visual medium attracts and engages. It gives our students just the push they need to become committed to the reading of a longer text" (Hess & Jasper, 1995). The strategy of the authors was to integrate text and film. The benefit of reading for the acquisition of vocabulary and the reinforcement of grammatical structure stems from their use in context "...with the promise of extended enjoyment." It is this extension of the media which sets the computer lab apart from the audio/visual laboratory. As the student population becomes more sophisticated in their use of electronic dictionaries and games, CD-ROM music and films, they become accustomed to the multimedia environment. As a bonus to nascent writers, CD ROM technology has provided a huge database support to writing programs in the form of: (a) dictionaries (general and particular); (b) grammar instruction software; (c) thesauri; and (d) encyclopedia. These are resources which would otherwise not be practically used in the classroom. The versatility of and interaction with computer technology has out distanced the passivity of the teacher-centered audio/visual lab.

### **Misconceptions And Misuses**

The introduction of Computer Aided Learning (CAL) has been retarded by a common misconception about computer technology. The computer does not replace the teacher or traditional classroom. However, as support for a well-planned curriculum, the computer lab can be a unique aid to the teacher. The use of a computer allows for the "wide range of alternative learning strategies used by highly successful language learners" (Nyikos & Oxford, 1993). Problems with scheduling conflicts can be resolved by recognizing the needs of the specific departments which overlap and by use of the classroom for other laboratory uses. Additionally, techniques to cope with large classes should be examined for control versus education goals.

Competing uses of the laboratory equipment play havoc with an efficient use of the computer lab. Priorities claimed for typing and computer science classes can easily be resolved by the use of applications such as word processing, spreadsheet, and database software, academically. Each academic department has particular department curricula goals which lend themselves to the use of one or more of these applications, negating the necessity of teaching the application as a computer science course. For instance, the foreign language department curriculum in a commercial and technical college is business oriented. Therefore, computer laboratory applications for language students should be confined to the word processor and multimedia educational applications which certainly develop adequate skills in computer operations and typing. An added benefit of this approach is more proficiency in using an application such as a word processor. As part of the contemporary business scene,

the development of the computer has been driven by demands for business uses for word processing and keyboard skills. Computer science courses belong to the career fields of computer programmers and technicians, not in a business application. Database and spreadsheet expertise is confined to specialized fields such as accounting and computer programming.

The classroom can be used for lecturing and discussion, freeing up laboratory time-sharing. Entertaining activities such as exploring the Internet, games and projects which do not meet with the specific needs of a particular department can be diverted to after-class, drop-in, or open computer labs, recognizing that homework needs should have priority.

Problems endemic to classroom crowding lead to teacher controlled computer program functions. Overcrowding also supports many educators' claims that peer stimulation while sharing computer facilities is a desirable condition leading to better language learning.

There exists a serious problem of classroom overcrowding in many educational situations. Consequently, computer laboratories are designed to take attendance, monitor large classes, control individual computers from a distance and aid in teacher presentations. However, effective communicative learning is, in contrast to a teacher-centered classroom, a very personal experience. A better solution for computer lab management would be to employ a technically competent teacher's aid to instruct students individually in the use of computer equipment and software. This solution would prove to be cost-effective as it is better use of the teacher's time, would create less frustration on the part of the student and would also preserve equipment maintenance costs.

The use of one computer for two students (Chen, 1995) negates the benefits of using a computer. The computer lab should provide the opportunity for individual practice at the individual's level of progress and pace of learning. One student relying on another has shown little promise of success because the student who assumes the role of the teacher has little expertise in this area. Teacher education results in knowledge and, more importantly, the experience in applying teaching methods. Sharing the creation of a composition can be better accomplished through networking (sharing a file by means of the computer network).

## **SOURCES AND EVALUATION OF COMPUTER PROGRAMS**

Searching for sources of educational software reviews and programs, and more importantly, the evaluation of those programs, is an ongoing concern.

### **Sources Of Reviews**

Publishers - identify a publisher who builds software programs based upon sound educational theory and classroom experience

Reviews by Educational Authorities - educational association journals, conferences and newsletters; university Internet locations

Federal Government Agencies - educational resources

Educational Software Distributors and Retail Software Catalogues - limited by market share and sales-oriented reviews; detailed descriptions and availability of demos

### **Sources Of Software**

Retail Stores - some small number of good educational programs exist among the games and the how-to software

Computer User Groups - shareware, demos

United States - remains as primary source because the American teaching methods are more experimental, varied perhaps from meeting the challenge of a number of immigrant groups, size

of the market and because the United States is in the forefront of computer programming expertise.

Catalogues - catalogues from retail stores and publishers; however, the logistics of shipping can be overwhelming;

Retail stores - games represent the greatest part of the software market, with office applications close behind. Some United States educational publishers are penetrating markets outside North America and are substituting instructions in non-English languages, but finding this software is still confined to displays by publishers at English teaching conferences or in their retail outlets.

### **Criteria for software reviews**

An informative and authoritative software review should offer the following information about the program. Unfortunately, the quasi-reviews of the publishers' catalogues, for instance, are obviously not based upon educational criteria. The best source for unbiased and substantive reviews is probably the professional education association.

Title, author, media; the minimum and recommended hardware specifications

Targeted audience

Purpose of program

Educational benefits - recommended type of use

Advantages/disadvantages: does it accomplish its purpose?

Ease of use, i.e., user friendly?

Contact information for source and price

### **Evaluation of software programs**

How does one discriminate between good and bad educational value? Does the author or publisher have educational background or experience to draw upon? The educational goals and the methods to attain them should be clearly stated in the promotional material or teacher's manual. Finally, determine exactly what the student learns while using particular software.

Choose your software with an eye to effectively supporting your classroom curriculum. Do so with a carefully planned progression of educational goals represented in a series of levels in the software. A different strategy often seen in schools is to offer English classes based upon a particular software program. While the advice to choose a hardware configuration based upon the software choice is valid, choosing school curricula to fit the software is not. The myth that the computer can replace the teacher is subtly perpetuated by the plethora of extravagant marketing claims. In reality, the computer is only a tool; to be used in conjunction with the usual emphasis on the classroom curricula.

Helpful and motivational features are the ability to printout certificates documenting student progress or reports of progress, problem areas for review, and target vocabulary lists as well as the ability to save the individual student's progress level. Feedback takes the form of an applicable grammar rule and illustration or supplying the targeted vocabulary list. Feedback, which exists in computer programs under the guise of "hint" or "help" for a correct answer is effective only at a length of less than three lines (van de Linden, 1993). This suggests that the more open-ended adventurous programs will be more effective than the traditional drill and practice which offers extensive feedback.

Look for well prepared applications of the program. Recording capabilities have proved valuable because the playback of the student's pronunciation engages attention and provides a more natural manner of the listen-repeat practice. A variety of activities makes use of the strong point of the

computer: drilling which relieves and supports the teacher's classroom activities. Avoid programs which develop lower-order skills such as simple recall or basic comprehension and view learners as passive recipients of knowledge. Open-ended, probing or problem solving approaches promote student independence from the teacher (Hannafin & Freeman).

Beware of creature features. Voice recognition in the vast majority of programs is poor and at best only measures intonation. Devices such as projections of voice patterns on screen are too crude to be effective even if the student could understand how to use them. These graphical representations of speech patterns are only effective in a more sophisticated clinical application for use in therapy for speech disabilities.

## **METHODOLOGY**

Use of the computer contributes to a well-planned curriculum. Unless the activities in the computer laboratory are integrated with those of the classroom, there will be no ascertainable progress in language learning or sustainable interest by the students from the computer laboratory environment.

The computer is well suited to drilling materials previously introduced in the classroom. The computer makes possible individual interaction (input through mouse, keyboard and microphone) and adaptation to individual learning level and speed. Another aspect of language learning adopted in the computer laboratory includes effective listening strategies (Tanka, 1993). These techniques employ recording and listening to the student's responses. Listening at their own pace reduces the students' anxiety and permits them to interact within a given situation.

The computer is also an ideal device by which to assess the student--to place learners in appropriate instructional levels (Johnston, 1996), to measure their ongoing progress (Burt & Keenan, 1995). Individual practice, at individual's level of proficiency, at self-paced speed (Chen) is desirable. Obvious and controllable levels of progression through target language are accomplished through testing. The computer uses a database which can be randomly accessed to provide a variety of activities through which to apply the target vocabulary and grammar and phonics. This database can be controlled to provide visible levels of progression through language learning and to address the problem of all teachers: at what level of proficiency is the class currently and what progress has been made throughout the school year.

The integration of the lab into classroom instruction and materials progress is monitored through the software itself through added materials for review exercises, and by students reading aloud with supervised question and answer sessions. Some software monitors student progress by saving a predetermined and consecutive level of use. A visual progress chart or certificate may be available to be printed out for each student. Examples of supplemental review materials to support a particular computer program are exercises matching vocabulary and pictures. Also, a printed and copied story booklet can be made for the student to read aloud and answer questions with the teacher.

## **DISCUSSION**

Worth noting is the motivation that is provided by the selection of well-planned software which supports the educational goals of the classroom.

The computer laboratory is making a definite contribution to students' progress in the classroom in reading comprehension levels, the ability to use vocabulary and grammar in communicative situations and clarity of pronunciation beyond survival level. Students react to well-planned software in a personalized, spontaneous manner. They internalize information and evince an eagerness to participate, to influence the sights and sounds which they are exploring. An additional benefit is

computer competence; use of a computer keyboard while using a word-processing program leads to typing skills and a cognizance of computer operations. Problems with the use of English keyboards and instruction do not materialize although individual attention to students' questions is necessary to prevent technological impediments from becoming frustrations. Instructions in students' L1 are becoming more prevalent in software, which should make them more user-friendly to the student.

Supervision is necessary in the language computer laboratory, i.e., instruction regarding use of equipment and software. Without supervision, the student tends first to be attracted to the sight, sounds and activity of a program. Without guidance toward a transparent and attainable language proficiency goal, the computer is seen as a toy and attention is focused on its perceived amusement value. The novelty of the program catches the attention, gives the short-term gratification of cartoons and games and the viewer proceeds in search of variety rather than content. Supervision and review of progress provides integration between the computer use and classroom educational goals. Review activities contribute a sense of accomplishment rather than entertainment. This laboratory structure provides self-sustaining motivation for the students. This may be a positive factor in favor of the scheduled computer lab class as opposed to the drop-in lab facilities. A freer drop-in lab evidently does not provide the structure necessary to relate and reinforce the classroom curricula. However, isolated students at younger levels perceived supervision as too much pressure to perform and felt more relaxed and were able to concentrate for longer period in a computer lab situation.

## **FUTURE DIRECTIONS**

For those of us who are still trying to choose among and carry such technological advances as the overhead projector, tape recorder and slide projector, the future may seem somewhat daunting. However, the near future promises an integration of all our classroom needs.

For instance, the overhead projector now works in conjunction with a portable computer, the tape recorder can be replaced by the sound and voice recording capabilities of the multimedia computer. Additionally, the resources of the Internet, television and computer are being combined to enhance communications. Following in the footsteps of business applications, we will scan our slide show pictures into a computer presentation program and project them on a TV screen. Class notes will easily follow for overhead projection in the same presentation manner, and the computer network will make possible an electronic linking of student-to-student and student-to-teacher for writing projects, voice recording/playback, testing. The Internet is coming into its own in the classroom for student-to-student networking and information resources. For the virtual student, the ultimate learning experience is to interact with technology by affecting the outcome of a situation; experience the real world environment without suffering the consequences.

Not to denigrate advanced technology, but the future is now. A beginning with computer equipment based solely upon the DOS environment can utilize a word processor or educational programs which incorporate many of the virtues which have been mentioned above. Maybe tomorrow will bring the multimedia environment.

## **CONCLUSION**

Success in the computer laboratory consists of first, selecting software and secondly, purposeful progress to identifiable learning levels. The selection of software is paramount and should provide variety in the repetition necessary for the long-term acquisition of language skills.

Secondly, integrating the computer laboratory activities with the classroom curriculum integration is necessary to reach targeted language goals. The computer is ideally suited to identifying and recording students' initial level, and individual speed of progress, i.e., timed games. Select materials



appropriate to the level of the learner based upon this identification. Instructive and motivational supervision for use of equipment and program should include resource materials for review purposes.

## THE AUTHOR

After receiving a graduate degree in 1982, Joyce T. Johnston became involved in a literacy program in the United States which developed an effective method for teaching language skills to people who suffer from learning disorders. Subsequently, she taught at Richland Junior College, Texas. Since 1994, she has been on the staff of the Foreign Language Department at Fortune Junior College of Technology & Commerce, Chisan. In Taiwan, her teaching experience encompasses a wide range of courses, from pronunciation to reading and vocabulary, oral practice and writing. She views the multimedia computer laboratory as an important interactive environment for language development. She can be reached via e-mail at <glennjo@ms5hinet.net>.

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## APPENDIX A

### AN ANNOTATED LISTING OF SOURCES FOR REVIEWS AND SOFTWARE

This list contains a wide assortment of educational and commercial sources which is by no means comprehensive and may change in the near future.

*ATHELSTAN Newsletter on Technology and Language Learning Newsletter*; contains educational computer software reviews. A publisher and distributor of second language learning products

(CD-ROMS, software, videos). violence. Provides an online catalogue. <<http://www.athel.com>>

Broderbund Software, Inc. A publisher of excellent reputation in software for education; markets games without including the usual violence. Provides an online catalogue and reviews. <<http://www.broderbund.com>>

*Computer Assisted Language Instruction Consortium (CALICO) Journal*: covers a range of issues related to computer-assisted language learning. Provides an Internet directory by company and product. <[CALICO@acpub.duke.edu](mailto:CALICO@acpub.duke.edu)>

Disney A company that probably needs no introduction and is widely available on retail shelves.

*The Edutainment Catalog* An example of a compilation of general educational and entertaining software. <<http://www.edutainco.com>>

Gessler Publishing Company, Inc. A Publisher and distributor of language learning software, books and videos. <<http://www.gessler.com/gessler/>>

International Society for Technology in Education Publishes *CAELL Journal*. An organization for educators providing a resource guide and an indexed annual Educational Software Preview Guide <<http://isteonline.uoregon.edu>>

The Learning Company Publisher of educational software for all ages. A publisher that has made inroads into the Taiwan market and whose products can be purchased through retail stores. <<http://www.learningco.com>>

*Quick Business Letters Student Version* A Self-published computer writing and editing program compiled by a professor in Taiwan. <<http://www.occc.edu.tw/~war58/>>

*TESOL Computer Assisted Language Learning Newsletter* Official Publication of the CALL Interest Section The newsletter includes articles and reviews. E-mail <[academy@tesol.edu](mailto:academy@tesol.edu)>

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# Using Video Clips and Cartoons for Paragraph Writing

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**DAVID KESTENBAUM**

*Kangnung National University*

One does not usually think of using videos for composition classes. However, they can be a useful and enjoyable supplement to lessons in writing different kinds of paragraphs such as chronological reporting, comparing and contrasting, or cause-effect paragraphs, and also for "telling what happened" in speaking classes. Clearly, students enjoy watching videos. Their use can add a little interest and spice to what is sometimes an exercise lacking in these. I like to use humorous scenes, sometimes from classics like Charlie Chaplin or even the Marx Brothers, and cartoons. (In California, one student from Taiwan reported that after the class she rented *A Night at the Opera*.) Also, by using videos for these sorts of lessons, students are able to incorporate their visual and auditory senses into the writing process. What can be seen graphically may be easier to write about as well.

I usually use video clips or cartoons as a supplement or follow-up activity for paragraph writing. The students already should know how to write the various kinds of paragraphs and what type of topic sentences, transitions and conclusions to use for each type of paragraph. Then they are ready to write a paragraph about a movie clip or cartoon.

Before any video is shown, it is a good idea to go over any vocabulary words that the students may not know. This includes words they will need in order to write their paragraphs or words that the characters speak. If one is using a humorous scene and cartoon, it may also be a good idea to go over any jokes or puns that appear in the video as well. Usually, it is necessary to show the video two or three times in order for the students to pick up all the necessary information. It is a good idea to use scenes or cartoons that are about five minutes long. If it is too short, there might not be enough to write a paragraph about. If it is too long, students may lose the thread of the story or lose interest.

When they are ready, the writing of the paragraph, or retelling of what happened in the scene can be done individually, in pairs, in groups or even with the class as a whole. In the latter case, a student or group could write the next sentence on the board or the teacher can elicit the next sentence from the students. The more difficult the scene, the more necessary this may be as well.

## **CHRONOLOGICAL REPORTING PARAGRAPHS**

Almost any movie scene or cartoon in which a number of actions take place can be used as a follow-up activity for writing this kind of paragraph. The actions should not be paced too slowly or too fast. If the action is very rapid, the teacher can always stop the tape. (It is also possible to use this method to teach present progressive tense. I have used, for example, the opening sequence of *The Simpsons* this way. Press the pause button and elicit answers from the class on what the characters are doing at that moment.) First, students should see the video two or three times and take notes. The best way is to have them number and list the events in chronological order. Once they have done this, they can write their paragraphs. They should have already studied the style of topic sentences, words that show time order (first, second, next, then, after that, finally), and should also have studied writing conclusions. It might be best in some cases to tell the students not to pay attention to the dialogue but

only to the order of events. In some cases though, for example an advanced class, the video clip or cartoon can also be used for a lesson on how to write reported speech. This may also hold true for cause-effect paragraphs as seen below.

## COMPARING AND CONTRASTING

This is also easy to do with movie scenes. Any movie scene with two characters in it can be used. For a comparison paragraph, think of any film that has two characters who are similar in appearance, and for a contrast paragraph, think of a film that has two who look very different. Play one or two scenes that show the characters together. Obviously, the same thing can be done for contrasting and comparing two people simultaneously. One that I have used for a contrast paragraph is from the movie *Twins*, with Danny DeVito and Arnold Schwarzeneger. I dubbed two scenes that show them walking together. While viewing the video one or two times, have students write sentences that list the contrasts between the two characters. As the contrasts can be seen clearly on the screen, students can see exactly what they are writing about. Again, they should already be familiar with how to write sentences and paragraphs that show comparison or contrast using adverb clauses, transitions, etc., and topic sentences and conclusions for this type of paragraph.

The resulting paragraph may look something like this:

There are many differences between Danny and Arnold. First of all, Danny is Short, but Arnold is tall. Second, Danny is bald. Arnold, however, has blond hair. Another difference is that Danny is middle-aged, and Arnold is younger . . .

## CAUSE-EFFECT PARAGRAPHS

It is a bit harder to find video material for this kind of paragraph, but sometimes if you stretch the point a bit, cartoons often can be used. For example, I've used a Bugs Bunny cartoon that was about how Bugs Bunny tricked Elmer Fudd into thinking he had "rabbititus." It may be useful to first give the students the title. In that case it was "Why Elmer Fudd Thought He Had Rabbititus." Again, show the video two or three times as necessary. Have students first list by number the reasons as they appear chronologically. Then they are ready to write the paragraph using their knowledge of how to write a cause-effect paragraph, topic sentence, transitions and conclusions. In the Bugs Bunny cartoon, reported speech also entered into the paragraph. Do not be afraid if the title seems silly because a perfectly good cause-effect paragraph can result even from a Bugs Bunny cartoon. The result would look something like this:

There are several reasons why Elmer Fudd thought he had rabbititus. First, he thought he had ears like a rabbit because Bugs Bunny was standing behind him when he looked in the mirror. Next, Bugs Bunny removed the glass from the mirror frame, so Elmer Fudd thought he looked like a rabbit when he looked in the mirror. Then Bugs told him that a symptom of rabbititus was seeing spots. When Elmer walked into the next room, Bugs had painted spots all over the walls. The final reason that Elmer thought he had rabbititus was....

Cartoons that have chase scenes can also be used for chronological reporting or cause-effect paragraphs. I once found a good cartoon that was about a cat trying to catch a group of mice. Some new vocabulary words included lighthouse and exploding cigar. "Why the Coyote Couldn't Catch the Roadrunner," for example, is another cartoon that can be used. The same method should be followed.

To conclude, the use of video clips from movies and cartoons is a useful and enjoyable addition to the teaching of paragraph writing. Any teacher can come up with his or her own ideas on what

movies or cartoons he or she would like to use.

### **THE AUTHOR**

David Kestenbaum is originally from the New York area, and has also lived in California for numerous years. He received his MATESOL from San Jose State University. He has taught in Japan and in the United States. He spent a year at Cheju National University before moving to Kangnung National University.



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# Nose to the Grindstone: Task-Based Activities for Korean Junior High Schoolers

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**KIM SOOK KYOUNG**

*University of Hawaii at Manoa*

This paper is an account of materials designed to help both native English teachers and Korean teachers of English working at middle schools (specifically at eighth grade) better deal with the textbooks designated for nationwide use. The materials are designed to find connections between grammatical points and task-based activities since native teachers are ignorant of the current level of the students due to deviation from the regular curriculum and insufficient communication with Korean teachers. The materials also illustrate specific teaching methods reflecting both Korean and American cultural aspects, and display concrete implementation procedures and plausible grouping techniques since dynamic grouping is essential for more effective interaction and stimulation.

The materials have been tried in ESL classrooms in Hawai'i and in EFL classrooms in Korea. Data and recommendations for teaching practice and future materials development for the Korean context will be provided through demonstrations.

## INTRODUCTION

The purpose of these materials is to provide English teachers in Korean EFL classroom settings, whether they are native speakers or not, with communicative-oriented activities, namely task-based activities, that can be linked to the curriculum of the textbooks in nationwide use. This paper specifically addresses the concerns of eighth graders in Korean junior high school, who are false beginners or learners at the intermediate level of language proficiency in conversational English.

From 1993 to the summer of 1997, I have observed numerous classes throughout Korea and in Hawaii: more than 30 classes taught by 11 native speakers, more than 70 classes by 24 Korean teachers in Korea, and 15 classes by 9 ESL teachers in Hawaii. Based on these observations, and the analysis of the major textbooks in nationwide use, I have developed the materials discussed in this paper.

English language curriculum in Korea states clearly that the communicative approach is one of the most effective contemporary methodologies in teaching English. However, Korean teachers of English are not competent enough to deal with such textbooks in English, so they tend to employ one of two major methods. These are the Audiolingual Method, where instruction through major activities such as rote memorization and incessant repetition is believed to form habits which lead to a systematic acquisition of language, and the Grammar Translation Method, which ignores the needs of productive skills and allows self-indulgent time management.

For this reason, in the past few years, the Korean-American Educational Commission (Fulbright Program) and, The Korean Ministry of Education ha employed many native English speakers. These teachers who primarily come from America but also from all over the world activate language

learning by stimulating students and providing more authentic language input.

However, several problems were uncovered by my research. First of all, native English speakers usually had contact with a class only once a week and managed conversational classes which deviated from the regular curriculum, resulting in failure to reinforce student's knowledge obtained from the regular English classes with the Korean teachers. Second, they did not identify or explain enough of their own culture, or introduce different cultural contrasts between Korean and Western societies. Third, since there were 40-50 students in each class, appropriate group work was called for, but was not accomplished. Fourth, many native speakers who did not have a degree in the ESL or related field did not know how to develop specific lesson plans, which caused problems in collaborating with Korean teachers.

In addition, English should be taught as a tool to communicate in natural settings when different languages are spoken. Considering the limited use of English with foreigners in Korea, it is very hard for Korean students to elicit comprehensible output at the sentence or discourse level. The target group might not have experienced conversation in English so that they can only be expected to speak at the word level. However, their utterances should be gradually expanded to the sentence and then discourse level in terms of comprehensible output (Swain, in press; Swain & Lapkin, 1995).

Therefore, I claim that it is necessary that Korean EFL teachers implement a communicative approach and keep up with the current level of students through realistic activities that are likely to take place outside the classroom. These materials which I now present are intended to resolve these problems.

## **THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS**

This paper will present task-based activities which are communicative and applicable in various teaching situations. Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is a nebulous language teaching method, but in terms of promoting communication, it has great potential for second language acquisition. The term task has been defined in various ways, but researchers have not reached a consensus, arguing about whether it focuses on meaning or form, and what constitutes completion of a task.

Long (1985b) defined a task as:

A piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward... In other words, by task is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between (p. 89).

However, he was criticized as being non-pedagogical. Richards, Platt and Weber (1985) provided a more pedagogical oriented definition concerning communicative language:

an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language... Tasks may or may not involve the production of language. A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task (p. 289).

They emphasized the completion of the given tasks. However, they were criticized since students could finish their tasks without comprehension of what to carry out or sufficient target-like language production.

Nunan (1993) suggests that a communicative task is

a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning in contexts rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right. (p. 59)



His definition concerns a meaning-focused, interactional methodology in a specific context. Although it also brought about a problem with regard to the completeness, which is thought to be determined by the teachers or participants involved, it had not taken into account to narrow the setting where the tasks are implemented in the classroom where participants can determine the degree of completeness in accordance with the characteristics of the tasks that they are carrying out.

To define the term "task" for the purposes of this paper, I will integrate and add to the definitions of Long and Nunan. Accordingly, a task is any piece of work that is most likely to take place in everyday life, and is carried out in meaningful and interactive ways to produce the target language output. In short, it involves bringing creative games and other "real" activities into the classroom for the purpose of truly meaningful communication, as opposed to the rote memorization of unusable dialogues and formulaic expressions.

There are some strengths and weaknesses in TBLT (refer to Long and Crookes, 1993). First of all, communication is the primary goal of the lessons. That is, the communicative approach is practised in teaching language. It has been thought that language is best learned and taught through interaction. Tasks are a means of sharing ideas and opinions or exchanging information. Classroom activities must be constructed to provide a context whereby learners not only talk to their interlocutors, but also negotiate meaning with them. In that sense, a task can help produce more comprehensible output through a lot of negotiation (Swain, 1985).

Secondly, when participants are involved in a task, they are required to carry out and complete the task. Completion is the objective, which is based on Nunan's definition. For selection of the content, what the learners might actually or potentially perform outside of the classroom is taught through task based activities.

TBLT has great potential, but several problems have been pointed out (refer to Long and Crookes pages 42 and 43).

First, it has limited theoretical rationale based on research. What is worse, there is no empirical data research which has been conducted in real classroom situations. Since TBLT is a fledgling method, there is still much to be discovered. Productive skills such as speaking and writing are emphasized rather than receptive skills such as listening and reading. In addition, specific testing measurements need to be developed, since the evaluation system is not well established yet.

Secondly, none of the issues in TBLT are as problematic as proper selection, grading, and sequencing of the content of tasks when designing a comprehensive syllabus. In relation to selection, not all tasks are applicable to the beginning level because involvement in task based activities requires primary conversational competence from the beginning. As for grading and sequencing, which task type is more difficult than another is hard to determine until it is actually used. Tasks may be so difficult or confusing that students may arrive at unexpected results. It is possible that the participants could replicate the work of others without comprehension or the task could be completed without any interaction.

Thirdly, selection, grading, sequencing, and task complexity are closely related to the limited variety of task types. In other words, taking a brief look at the definition of the term 'task', some questions tend to arise: "How many tasks and task types exist? How many levels of analysis are necessary? How can the hierarchy between the levels be decided?" These result partially from the unclear divisions in task classification. Until these questions are answered, the problem of determining the appropriate degree of task complexity can not be resolved.

Fourthly, TBLT is said to be structured and focused more on forms, because it tends to involve grammatical aspects to a certain extent. As communicative methodology emphasizes, there should be a focus on meaning and fluency rather than on forms and accuracy.

Fifthly, language learners are responsible for taking initiatives in seeking help with whatever they do not understand and in making themselves understood. The burden charged on them might be beyond their ability. In a situation where beginning level students should take part in an activity, there is a high probability that they would hesitate to start speaking or avoid attempting to do, so that they would passively accept the task outcome.

Task based syllabus design brought about radically pedagogical paradigm shifts. Nevertheless, I would take its strengths and complement the weaknesses by the use of these materials.

Concerning the weaknesses mentioned, Long and Crookes suggested that when combined with a focus on form, the task finds more support in SLA research as a viable acquisition unit. Furthermore, concerning the roles of instruction, many empirical studies show that learners taught in classroom settings could retain the instructed knowledge and obtain immediate or delayed benefits (Day & Shapson, 1991; Doughty, 1991; Harley, 1989; Lightbown, 1991; Lyster, 1994; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; White, 1991; White, et al., 1991).

Schmidt (1990, 1993, 1994, 1995) also asserts that noticing or awareness of the target forms given in a communicative context contributes to language acquisition. For this process, it is necessary to define the form that instructions should take as Sheen (1994) claims that the form would be introduced as a chunk of phrase or syntactic unit rather than focusing on a specific vocabulary item or grammar. In order to make a task feasible or applicable to the beginning level of learners, it is also necessary to make connections between grammar and communication. According to Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993), even learners at the lowest levels of language proficiency can benefit from a task-based approach by learning grammar.

Although grammatical or linguistic analysis seem to be simple, deciding which item is easier or if the item is easy or difficult presents problems. It is second nature that the more familiar a task and its contents are to learners, and the more frequently they use the tactics of dealing with the task in their daily lives, the more useful and easier the task may be (Plough & Gass, 1993). In addition, with respect to learners' priority or urgent needs for communication and their current level of language proficiency, a task should be provided to meet their needs.

## EXISTING TEXTS

*Task-Based Activities: A Communicative Approach to Language laboratory Use* (Stone, 1988a) and *Task-Based II: More Communicative Activities for the Language Lab* (Stone, 1988b) both show diverse artificial task activities designed by an institute of English language teaching development, but they have been implemented at the college level at the University of Hawaii at Manoa. The emphasis on listening in the language lab equipped with high-tech facilities rather than speaking accommodates the beginning level of learners. They depend heavily on the students' preparation for the class by recording their voice, natural sounds, etc. Specifying the step-by-step procedure of the instruction and variations of the activities offer some good insight into the application to the classroom fulfillment.

*Communicative Practice of High School English* (Takahashi, 1994) is designed for senior high school students in Japan. At the beginning of each chapter is a box which displays the grammatical points, macro skills, grouping, task types, teaching aids or materials, required time, and complexity. It is made up of three parts: Part I summarizes the vocabulary and grammar supposedly instructed in the previous level, that is, in junior high school. Part II constitutes the main component of this book, describing the specific content taught to high school students. Part III pursues development of some themes such as sports, hobbies, and the like. As a whole, this book is a good source of drawings and various interesting communicative activities that potentially take place in the real world. However, it has limitations in that these activities are too artificial to be effective.

## UNIQUENESS

The text to which the title of this paper refers is designed to help both native and Korean teachers of English working at Korean junior high schools better deal with the standard textbook that they are using and find the connections between grammatical units and thematic, communicative-oriented activities with ease.

This text is the second step in a series of three books, which consists of *Standing on the Cornerstone* (Kim forthcoming-a) for the beginners, *Nose to the Grindstone* (Kim forthcoming-b) for false beginners or intermediate level, and *Honing with the Whetstone* (Kim forthcoming-c) for the advanced level of junior high school. This series is closely related to the textbooks which are currently published for nationwide use in Korea.

As syntactic units should allow the teachers to choose and adjust task activities to the appropriate level, grammatical items and pragmatic functions that the current curriculum in Korea presents would be utilized as standards to set up the order of the book. It consists of 32 chapters (including *Grindstone*, the first chapter), which teachers can complete during an academic year. According to the syllabus, indigenous teachers will be able to employ two or three activities after each lesson of the textbook which consists of 14 chapters, and native English teachers will be able to select one activity per week throughout the entire academic year.

Since these materials are designed to help teachers by specifying teaching procedures, the teacher's manual is provided as a resource book, and the student book is constructed in the appendix of the resource book as a tool box for the convenience of distributing materials to the students in the class. The teacher's manual, which includes an accompanying tape for listening practice, describes specific language teaching procedures illustrating how to organize the class and produce language output from students.

Primarily, the materials will provide a variety of realistic pictures, drawings, charts, and diagrams obtained in America and some adaptations which suggest adjustments to the appropriate level and situations.

This book contains five main characteristics as follows.

First of all, it is characterized as a design to find connections between grammatical points or functional units and task-based activities. The scope and sequence chart constructed to follow the textbooks in nationwide use in Korea. From my analysis of five of the English textbooks currently in use, grammatical or functional/situational units were selected first, and then task based activities were made up, considering the everyday life situations where the chosen units are most commonly used. It consists of 32 chapters, which teachers can utilize through an academic year. Korean indigenous teachers can employ one out of two or three activities after each lesson of the textbook, and native English teachers can select one activity a week throughout a year.

Second, to display concrete implementation procedures and plausible grouping techniques, I utilize the concept of family in various ways since dynamic grouping is essential for more effective interaction and stimulation. In the first chapter, *Grindstone*, for instance, students create a new family which they must keep for at least a semester. One family is composed of Daddy, Mommy, teenager, and baby or little child. The last one might be at the low level of English language proficiency so that other family members are responsible for taking care of the baby.

Third, this book provides several means to elicit language output at the sentence and discourse levels such as techniques for eliciting questions and answers, and conversational routines. When necessary, students are provided with a dialogue tip to consult.

Fourth, the materials illustrate both Korean and American cultural aspects. A cultural tip is provided in each chapter to promote understanding of cultural differences. It shows lots of interesting and familiar games and activities in which culture is deeply embedded. Since Korean students are

familiar with their own cultural items, their culture is introduced first and combined with American culture so that they may feel comfortable proceeding with the activities in English. In this way, their cognitive and affective process of language learning will be more natural.

Fifth, Preparation and Classroom implementation sessions in each chapter displays, just like the lesson plans, very concrete grouping and teaching procedures of activities by utilizing my classroom observations conducted at junior high schools in Korea and Hawaii. The chapters that have already been implemented in real classroom settings have proven to be highly feasible, realistic, and effective.

## THE AUTHOR

Kim Sook Kyung holds a BA in English Education, and a MEd in TESOL and Applied Linguistics, both from Seoul National University. She is currently enrolled in the ESL Master's program at the University of Hawaii at Manoa.

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# Application of Drama Techniques in the English Classroom

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**LEE, YONG HOON**

*Kyongbuk Foreign Language High School*

Many of the concepts associated with the teaching of foreign languages are also fundamental concepts of the theater. It also will become evident that the theater arts do indeed have much to offer the language teacher. The good actor must have a good understanding of how the complex network of very subtle details communicates messages. Actors and language learners clearly have a need to learn to understand and even manipulate the most subtle aspects of communication (Smith, 1984).

## **PARALLELS BETWEEN THE THEATER ARTS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING**

### **Goals, obstacles, and strategies**

Most fundamentally, actors and language learners share common goals, that is communicating the intended, appropriate message. To communicate, actors, like language learners, have to be able to do three things: (a) they have to be able to decide what they want to communicate; (b) they must then decide how to communicate that message; and (c) they must have the flexibility to implement their decisions. In other words, they must be able to perform with competence.

Actors and language learners also share common obstacles in learning to convey meaning: (a) how to deal with new language and new roles; (b) how to understand their own inhibitions and confounding habits; and (c) how to develop the ability to control their own instruments, i.e. their bodies, their voices, and their minds.

Actors and language learners can make use of the same strategies in overcoming the obstacles that stand in the way of effective communication. It is interesting that many of the language teaching strategies that have been inherent in the theater process for centuries have become widely popularized in language teaching these days. This has occurred as language teaching has moved away from structural linguistics-oriented approaches and into areas suggested by sociolinguistics and humanistic psychology.

### **Group aspects in developing communication skills**

Language teachers and directors are faced with handling many of the same sensitive aspects of human dynamics.

1) Inhibition: Actors and language learners should get rid of inhibitions that protect the fragile human ego and be willing to go out on an emotional limb, take chances, be wrong, look silly, then try again.

2) The Ensemble: The best plays are created by a "tight ensemble." This means that the actors know each other well, and that they trust each other. In order to begin creating an ensemble a teacher

must first gain the trust of the students.

3) Role Playing: Two goals of role playing are to expand the actors' vocabularies of behavior and to increase their comprehension of a wider range of behavior in others. Role playing helps students and actors to learn to distinguish between what they feel should be happening, and what really is happening.

4) Criticism: Within the safe ensemble atmosphere, the director or the language teacher promotes an impulsive style. The impulsive language learner may make more frequent mistakes than the laboriously reflective speaker, but he or she probably communicates more overall.

5) Monitoring: Krashen (1982) emphasizes the fact that adults make use of their ability to monitor themselves as they speak a foreign language. Whereas young children seem to "acquire" language skills with little visible attention to correctness or errors, adults learning languages monitor their own output.

### **Individual aspects in developing communication skills**

1) Acting: Acting involves establishing the true emotions and motivations of a character, then producing those emotions truthfully, that is, really creating those emotions inside. Actors, like language learners, need to be aware of how others perceive their actions. Empathy is essential for true communication.

#### **2) Voice and Body Training**

a. Vocal Warm-ups: Theater-type vocal warm-ups and articulation and rhythm exercises can be used in language classes to demonstrate the range of the voice, and to loosen it up making it ready for work.

b. Physical Warm-ups: Physical warm-ups, e.g., stretching and calisthenics, relax the actors mentally as well as physically. Warming up can help language learners gain an awareness of and control over themselves, which can make them confident.

c. Ear Training: In order to help language learners hear and interpret the tones, pitches, rhythms, and lines of a foreign language, the teacher must help them to develop listening discrimination ability. The use of poetry, song, and rhythm exercises (e.g., Jazz Chants) represents a healthy trend that makes productive use of the tonal memory.

d. Discourse: It is the actors, not the playwright, who create the final discourse by filling in the missing pieces. Actors must create and recreate discourse from the resources of linguistic knowledge. So must language students.

### **HOW DO WE APPLY DRAMA TECHNIQUES TO THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM?**

#### **Providing freedom and direction**

A good drama rehearsal combines two very important elements of an ideal language-learning atmosphere. One element is that the learners are receptive to criticism and suggestion from the director. The other element is that the group tends to remain relatively spontaneous and uninhibited. It is important to be spontaneous so that the intuition is free to create. Therefore, there must be a kind of equality between actor and director, or between teacher and student.

#### **The appropriate use of stop-and-go**

In preparing a play for performance, approximately two-thirds of the rehearsals involve stop-and-go work. During these rehearsals the director may also "side coach," i.e., stand near the actors and



talk to them as they are acting. Again it is important that the actors maintain concentration. When receiving side coaching, the actors should not "break stride."

### **Taking notes**

Another technique directors use to help solve the language problems of a cast is to take notes throughout the rehearsal. The actors write down the notes and then work on the problems before the next rehearsal of the section in question. The director must find an optimum balance between giving too many notes for the actors to assimilate at one time and giving too few notes, thereby allowing the actors to continue making the same errors.

### **Inducing creative thinking**

Edward Debono (1967) describes a "lateral thinking" process that is the antithesis of "vertical thinking," i.e., logical thinking in which solutions are reached by a step-by-step procedure. The theatre process counts on such lateral, or creative, thinking. The director's job is to free the actor to think creatively. The director should encourage the actor to experiment with a variety of approaches to a character. The director tries to help the actors discover, through images, the reality of the script. The script is not treated as written language, but as live, spoken human behavior. Early in rehearsals, the director might direct the actors to spend some time working on a few selected images for the play.

## **WHAT ELEMENTS OF LANGUAGE CAN WE LEARN THROUGH DRAMA TECHNIQUES?**

### **Grammar**

The rehearsal reveals a wide variety of grammar errors that the teacher can work on by making them the focus of exercises, or by simply pointing out the errors, either at the moment they occur or in note sessions. Actors frequently speak lines differently than they are written in the script, even though they are holding the script in their hands. Once they are familiar with the script, they stop "reading" it on stage and use it only as a reference. Their approximative system often takes over as the actors speak thoughts instead of words.

### **Lexical Vocabulary**

Working on a play expands one's vocabulary whether one is a native or a non-native speaker of the language. Since actors strive to perform the language as "spoken" language, they learn it as such.

### **Emotional Vocabulary**

The concept of emotional vocabulary expansion is similar to that of lexical vocabulary expansion in drama rehearsal; the work actors do with emotions helps them to learn to understand and empathize with a wider range of emotions in other people. Actors learn about their own emotional vocabularies as they try to develop an "emotional set" -- a range and variety of emotions belonging to a specific individual -- that coincides with the emotional set of the character to be portrayed.

### **Physical Vocabulary**

Physical vocabulary, i.e., the actor's repertoire of gestures, is also expanded in the rehearsal process. Different styles of theater demand different physical vocabularies, as do different characters within the same style. The search for physical ways to express the messages of the play will yield

isolated gestures at first, but later as the character becomes more "real" and the actors make the vocabulary their own, it will become clear that they have learned new vocabulary.

## **Culture**

The teaching of culture is divided into two categories: coping strategies (Savignon, 1983) and knowledge. Knowledge about a specific culture is learned from the script and the circumstances of the play itself. Skills that are useful in cross-cultural interactions are developed in the rehearsal process. Coping strategies are perhaps more important than knowledge, since it is not possible to teach students everything they will need to know about the target culture. The best thing we can do for language learners is to help them learn about culture on their own.

## **Language Functions**

The rehearsal process is one of viewing the language of the play as a series of functions. A language function depends on context and the individual situation. As the actors come to know all of the variables in a given scene, they are learning about the functions of the scene. After the actors understand a function, they must then learn how to perform the function in order to communicate the idea to the audience. As they try to communicate the myriad functions in a play to an audience, actors learn just how subtle the process of communicating a given function can be.

## **Intonation and Stress**

Intonation and stress play a more significant role in speech for the stage than they do in offstage conversation. Since intonation and stress are consciously manipulated by actors to communicate their interpretation of the script, when these elements are misplaced, the dialogue is often misunderstood or totally incomprehensible. The language learner/actor is getting a special opportunity to become skilled at attending to stress and intonation problems because it is more important for the stage speaker than the offstage speaker.

## **Articulation**

On the stage, one learns to be very conscious of articulation and to develop strategies to control it. Foreign speakers of a language can benefit from having this type of control over their vocal instruments, since they so often find that they are misunderstood due to a variety of elements in their speech which may not meet the expectations of the native listener. Clear articulation can compensate for other non-nativelike elements which make spoken language unclear. Skillful control of articulation is, thus, a useful tool for overcoming incomprehensibility.

## **Role Playing and Improvisation**

It is suggested that if students are going to be asked to role play, they should first have a good reason for doing so. Role playing is used in rehearsal to give actors experiences and feelings that the script does not provide, but which help in the overall development of the performance. The object is to provide the actors with experiences upon which they can draw, that is, to give them experience being in their characters' shoes.

## **Nonverbal Communication**

Most of the nonverbal acting must be created by the actors themselves. The director can aid in

the development of nonverbal acting by making suggestions and keeping the actors informed of how they look.

### **Listening**

They must be listening in order to react appropriately to what the other actors are doing. Bad acting is frequently characterized by bad listening. Audiences know when actors are not listening to each other.

Role playing and improvisation require good listeners to be successful. The actors listen and respond to what the other actors say and do and to the audience feedback.

### **WHERE CAN DRAMA TECHNIQUES BE APPLIED EFFECTIVELY?**

Drama is rather a technique which can be used to develop certain language skills. Gavin Bolton (1984) says that drama should be placed at the centre of the curriculum, applicable to all aspects of learning. Actually, drama is neither a terrifying, riderless horse to be approached only by the naturally extrovert, nor is it a complete answer to all the problems of language teaching. There are at least four areas of the weekly language-teaching timetable where drama can be used effectively (Wessels 1988).

### **Teaching the course book**

Most language-teaching course books contain dialogues, role plays, simulations, games, and songs. There is scope within each of these for the application of drama techniques such as improvisation, mime, character analysis, observation, interpretation, and invention to help learners in their acquisition of the language.

### **Teaching the four skills**

Drama has a role to play in improvement of each of the four skills, but particularly in the acquisition of correct pronunciation, rhythm, intonation, and other prosodic features. Vocal warm-ups, chanting, choral speaking, and singing are only a few of the techniques that could help learners to improve pronunciation and prosody.

### **Teaching spoken communication skills**

Drama can generate a need to speak by focusing the attention of the learners on creating a drama, dialogue, or role play, or solving a problem (as in simulations and games). These lessons include discussions, debates, role plays, simulations, games, prepared talks, and even dramatized play readings. In each of these activities, learners have to be active participants, using their imagination and interacting with each other; almost unconsciously they are acquiring communication skills in the foreign language.

### **The drama project**

The drama project which leads to the full-scale staging of a play in the target language can provide a particularly satisfying experience for learners.

## **5. WHAT TECHNIQUES CAN WE USE IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM?**

### **Drama games**

In language teaching, games cannot be played successfully unless the rules have been clearly stated and understood by the learners. Therefore, games follow on a session of formal teaching, or form a living part of such sessions, in order to make the processes involved easier to understand (Barker, 1977).

1) Icebreaker games are played at the beginning of a lesson as warm-ups or introductory activities. Such games tend to relax the learners, make them feel at ease with each other, and willing to work together. They also serve to introduce the main topic of the lesson. It is this stage that creates "readiness for learning."

2) In-Between games are intended to revise or reinforce previously-taught material. Such games will generally be played before the exercise or writing stage in a lesson, and should help to clarify the taught material through direct experience.

3) End games can be used to unwind the students after a hectic session of intensive learning, or simply as fillers. Sometimes, for a variety of reasons, a class can become unbearably dull, through no fault of anyone in particular. That is the time to stop whatever you are doing, and to enliven the class with some get-up-and-do-it games.

### **Mime**

Many teachers use mime without even being aware of it. Where words fail (as in explaining new vocabulary), a quick mime helps to convey the meaning. Course book dialogues can also be presented in mime, with selected students doing the mime, while the rest of the class try to match the words of the dialogue to the actions.

### **What are we doing?**

This game is played in groups of three. Two people mime an action together, while the third tries to guess what they are doing. Suggestions (Wessels) of situations include:

- 1) A hairdresser cutting a difficult customer's hair.
- 2) A bored doctor listening to a hypochondriac.
- 3) A food server trying to flirt with an attractive customer.
- 4) Two rich people trying to outbid each other at an auction.
- 5) Someone walking a very frisky dog.
- 6) Two people quarrelling over which TV channel to watch.
- 7) Two people moving a piano.
- 8) Haggling over the price of an item in a market.
- 9) Crossing a stream (with one person reaching out to help the other).
- 10) Two people are attacked by a swarm of bees while enjoying a picnic; they get up and run away.

### **Analogizing through Charlie Chaplin's Film**

Procedures for this activity are:

- 1) Teacher talks about Charlie Chaplin's silent film.
- 2) Teacher shows one of his movies, *By The Sea*.
- 3) Teacher asks students some questions about the film: (a) Who is the man?; (b) What's the relationship between the man and the woman?; (c) What is the man doing here? or Why does the

man stay here?; (d) What happened between the man and the other man?; (e) Why are the two men fighting?; (f) What's the relationship between the fat man and the beautiful woman?; (g) At the fast food store, why is the clerk getting angry with the two men?; (h) How does the story end?

4) Teacher asks students to compose a story from the answers.

5) Students write down the story.

6) Teacher collects the stories and reads two of them to the students.

## **Improvisation**

Students should have enough language to improvise possible continuations of dialogues, or to predict what might have preceded and led up to the dialogue. Through improvisation they can break free of the confines of the dialogue and create their own script. They can even be asked to suggest background details for the characters in the dialogues -- their home life, status, attitudes and ambitions, past experiences, and so on. Improvisation taps the students' already existing command of the language and tests their communicative strategies. The improvisation can be used on its own, with another improvisation, or in combination with a selection of games and other communication activities. The following is an example of an improvisation using a conflict situation (Bernardi, 1992).

### **Improvisation through conflict situations**

1). A teenager is discussing with his father his intention to go to a party next week.

Teenager's objective: The party promises to be especially wild because adults will not be present. Get your father's permission to go.

Father's objective: You're very reluctant to allow your son to go to any unsupervised party since you're concerned about the presence of drugs or alcohol at such parties. Refuse to let him go to the party.

2). A father and his teenage son are sitting in the living room of their house when they hear a car horn blowing outside. The teen tells his father that his date has arrived; the two are going to the movies. The father has yet to meet the date.

Teen's objective: You want to leave immediately because the film starts in ten minutes. Rush out of the house as soon as you can!

Father's objective: You have yet to meet the date. Insist upon meeting the date before they leave.

3). A teenager who has been grounded is attempting to sneak out of the house. Just as he is about to leave, his father walks into the room.

Teen's objective: Convince your father that you have a good reason for leaving.

Father's objective: Demand to know why your son is trying to leave.

4). A student walks into his English teacher's office to speak with him about the poetry that he is teaching in class.

Student's objective: You have been chosen by the other students in your class to speak on their behalf. The class feels that studying poetry is a waste of time. Convince the teacher to eliminate poetry from the class curriculum.

Teacher's objective: You are aware that your students do not enjoy poetry, but you are sure that they will soon see its value.

5). A homeowner answers his front door and finds a door-to-door vacuum cleaner salesman.

Salesman's objective: You want to sell a vacuum cleaner, so you toss a handful of dirt inside the door of the house. Demonstrate just how powerful your vacuum cleaner is.

Homeowner's objective: You are not in the mood to deal with any salesman. Get rid of him!

6). A teenager at a party offers another teenager a beer and a cigarette. Some teenagers at the party are smoking and drinking.

First teen's objective: You've never before smoked cigarettes or drunk beer, and you do not want to start now. Turn down all offers.

Second teen's objective: You think that smoking and drinking are cool. Persuade the other teen to indulge.

7). A boy is talking to his girlfriend about a phone call that he received from his ex-girlfriend, who called to say that she would like to maintain a friendship with him.

Boy's objective: You think it was very nice of your ex-girlfriend to call and say that she wants to be friends. Convince your present girlfriend that she should not feel threatened by your ex-girlfriend.

Girl's objective: You do not believe for one second that your boyfriend's ex-girlfriend only wants to be friends. You're sure that she wants him back. Make it clear that you want her out of his life.

### **Speculation or observation**

By asking questions about the thoughts and feelings of the characters, we can help our students to empathize with these characters and to see beyond the printed page. But we should avoid direct questions like "How do they feel?", and try to lead them to speculation rather than explanation. For example, questions like "Why does he slam the door?", "Why does she stress the word want?", "Why doesn't she thank them for the present?" are far more likely to stimulate imaginative answers and to stretch the students linguistically.

### **Explaining feelings (Wessels, 1988)**

List a number of situations on the board, and ask the students how they would explain the feelings of the person in the situations.

- 1). You have been given a present which you had once given to a friend of the person from whom you now receive it.
- 2). A fellow passenger points out to you shortly before the train leaves that you are on the wrong train.
- 3). A bus-driver waits for you to catch up with the bus.
- 4). The postman brings you nothing but bills.
- 5). An elderly person gave up his/her seat to you on the bus upon seeing that you felt ill.
- 6). The doctor told you that you would probably live to a ripe old age.
- 7). You got the job you really wanted.
- 8). A stranger pays you an unexpected compliment.
- 9). You win the booby prize in a competition.

### **Adding stage directions**

This activity, which can be done in the mother tongue of the students, helps students to link paralinguistic features like gesture and facial expressions with the language. It also helps to sensitize them to the ways in which various feelings are expressed in the target language. The main technique is the addition of stage directions to the course book dialogue. The teacher should prepare, in ad-

vance, typed copies of the original dialogue, and should include directions (in the students' mother tongue) on movement, emotions expressed, gestures, and facial expressions. The following example was taken from High School English I published by Jihaksa, 1995.

### **Mi-ra Goes to a Bookstore**

- 1). Students make groups of four.
- 2). Teacher issues students with copies of the typed dialogue.
- 3). Students do silent reading of the text and listen to a recording of the dialogue.
- 4). Teacher divides the students into groups of five, and gives each group the copied of the extended version
- 5). Students fill in the blanks with the stage directions.

### **Original version**

Mi-ra is visiting her aunt in San Antonio. She loves poetry and wants a good book of poems to read at bedtime. She goes to a nearby bookstore to buy one.

Clerk: ( ) Good afternoon. Can I help you?

Mi-ra: ( ) I wonder if you could help me find a good poetry book for bedtime reading.

Clerk: ( ) You mean poems which are beautiful and not too difficult to read. Right?

Mi-ra: ( ) Yes, exactly.

Clerk: In that case, ( ) I'd recommend Emily Dickinson. Her poems are so beautiful and easy to understand.

Mi-ra: ( ) Sounds good. ( ) Where can I find the book?

Clerk: ( ) It's in the poetry section over there. ( ) I can get a copy for you if you want.

Mi-ra: ( ) I'd appreciate that. ( )

Clerk: ( ) OK. Here you are. See if you like it.

Mi-ra: ( ) Looks very good. ( ) How much do I owe you?

Clerk: ( ) Poetry books are on sale right now. It's 20% off the regular price, so ( ) that'll be \$9.00 plus 50% tax.

Mi-ra: ( ) Here you are. Thank you for your help.

Clerk: ( ) My pleasure. I'll wrap the book up for you. ( ) Hope you enjoy it.

Mi-ra: Thank you. ( )

### **Extended version**

Mi-ra is visiting her aunt in San Antonio. She loves poetry and wants a good book of poems to read at bedtime. She goes to a nearby bookstore to buy one.

Clerk: (Smilingly) Good afternoon. Can I help you?

Mi-ra: (Also smilingly) I wonder if you could help me find a good poetry book for bedtime reading.

Clerk: (Curiously) You mean poems which are beautiful and not too difficult to read. Right?

Mi-ra: (Echoing his words) Yes, exactly.

Clerk: In that case, (Thinking with his chin rested on his hand) I'd recommend Emily Dickinson. Her poems are so beautiful and easy to understand.

Mi-ra: (Happily) Sounds good. (Anxiously) Where can I find the book?

Clerk: (Pointing it with a finger) It's in the poetry section over there. (Favorably) I can go get a copy for you if you want.

Mi-ra: (Smile radiantly) I'd appreciate that. (The clerk goes to the section and picks up a copy)

Clerk: (Returning and handing it over to Mi-ra) OK. Here you are. See if you like it.

Mi-ra: (Satisfied) Looks very good. (Raising the book) How much do I owe you?

Clerk: (In good spirits) Poetry books are on sale right now. It's 20% off the regular price, so (Counting it with a calculator) that'll be \$9.00 plus 50 cents tax.

Mi-ra: (Giving him a \$10.00 bill) Here you are. Thank you for your help.

Clerk: (Giving 50 cents back for the change) My pleasure. I'll wrap the book up for you. (Wrapping and, then, giving it to Mi-ra) Hope you enjoy it.

Mi-ra: Thank you. (Smile at him, and get out of the store)

### **Parallel role plays**

The language of the original dialogue can be practised through a parallel dialogue that requires the same speech acts and vocabulary as the original one.

### **Room Reservation (Minbyongchul Daily English. Min, 1995)**

- 1). Presentation of the copied dialogues.
- 2). Silent-reading and listening to the tape.
- 3). Play-reading.
- 4). Grouping of five students.
- 5). Giving a guide book to each group.
- 6). Making a parallel dialogue.
- 7). Role-playing.

### **Original version: Dialogue 1**

A: Super Eight Motel. May I help you?

B: Yes. Do you have a single room available?

A: Would you tell me the names of city and state?

B: I'd like to lodge in Boston, Massachusetts.

A: When are you checking in?

B: Tonight.

A: For how many nights, sir?

B: I'd like to stay three nights and check out Saturday morning.

### **Dialogue 2:**

A: I'd like a room, please.

B: Single or double, sir?

A: Single, please. Just for one night.

B: Smoking or nonsmoking, sir?

A: Nonsmoking, please.

B: All right, sir. Sign Here.

A: How late is your restaurant open?

B: They serve dinner until nine.



### Dialogue 3:

- A: Do you have a reservation, sir?  
B: Yes, the name is Jeong-Su Kim.  
A: Yes. I have it here. A single room for two nights?  
B: That's right.  
A: Please sign here, sir. The porter will take your bags.  
B: Thank you.

### Extended version; Dialogue 1

- A: Super Eight Motel. May I help you?  
B: \_\_\_\_\_  
A: Would you tell me the names of city and state?  
B: \_\_\_\_\_  
A: When are you checking in?  
B: \_\_\_\_\_  
A: For how many nights, sir?  
B: \_\_\_\_\_

### Dialogue 2

- A: \_\_\_\_\_  
B: Single or double, sir?  
A: \_\_\_\_\_  
B: Smoking or nonsmoking, sir?  
A: \_\_\_\_\_  
B: All right, sir. Sign Here.  
A: \_\_\_\_\_  
B: They serve dinner until nine.

### Dialogue 3

- A: Do you have a reservation, sir?  
B: \_\_\_\_\_  
A: Yes. I have it here. A single room for two nights?  
B: \_\_\_\_\_  
A: Please sign here, sir. The porter will take your bags.  
B: \_\_\_\_\_

### THE AUTHOR

Lee Yong Hoon has been teaching English at four high schools for ten years. He is currently teaching English at Kyongbuk Foreign Language High School. He is especially interested in teaching English through literature and studies that area in the Graduate School of Korea National University of Education.

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# Managing Larger Classes; Problems, Solutions, Challenges, and Opportunities

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**M. KATHERINE MACKINNON**

*Daelim College of Technology*

EFL teachers frequently find themselves teaching language classes of 40, 50, 80, even 200 students per class. However, many teacher training programs, while strong in other areas, do little or nothing to prepare teachers for the daily, practical problems of managing over 300 students per term. This workshop raised several problems and challenges common to classrooms of 40 or more students and offers possible solutions from the author's and others' experience. The workshop also looked at some unique opportunities for teaching/learning in large classroom settings.

## INTRODUCTION

When I graduated with a Masters in Applied Linguistics/ESL, I had approximately one year's experience teaching ESL in my department's Intensive English Program, where the class size was limited to 17 students. While other students in the teaching program had mentioned the larger class sizes they had taught overseas in our teacher training classes, I was nonetheless completely unprepared psychologically or logistically to handle my first term's total roll count of 350 students at university in Korea. From talking with other teachers I have met here, it seems that many others have had similar experiences. The aim of this paper/workshop was to share our questions, problems, experiences, and successes in managing large classes (with 40 or more students) in Korea.

## KEY PRINCIPLES

In the two years I have taught in Korea at the post-secondary level, I have had an average of three hundred fifty students per term. I currently teach four courses, a total of nine sections with classes of two or three hours each, twenty-one hours weekly, with an enrollment of approximately four hundred students. This situation is a common one in Korea; some teachers reported teaching as many as six or eight hundred students. One new teacher was dealing with 1000 high school students her first term. In handling this volume of students, I have come to recognize four key principles underlying successful classroom management and administration: (a) maximizing student independence; (b) reflecting and learning as an instructor; (c) staying organized, and (d) utilizing and expanding available resources.

Maximizing student independence is more than an idealistic goal in a large class; it is a survival technique. It is doubly impossible for the instructor to give students the individual attention needed to respond to every question, monitor every utterance, and explain in detail every activity when class sizes are as large as reported by the workshop participants. Instructors must find ways to encourage students to be more autonomous such as: training and support toward learning with less supervision, pep talks, activities that encourage student input, as well as alternative-assessment and self-evaluation

techniques.

However, teachers in Korea must keep in mind that their students come from an educational system that does not encourage autonomy, critical thinking, or peer instruction ability. Students from elementary school on are accustomed to lecture-style classes with little peer interaction, language classes emphasizing reading/writing/translation, and a teacher who is a strong authority figure in regard to both knowledge and discipline. Making a transition to a more interactive, self-monitored and self-directed classroom should be a gradual process as much a part of the students' learning as the language itself.

To put things in perspective for my students, I begin by reminding them that with 50 of them in the classroom, and a total of 100 minutes of actual class time, that if I try to talk with each of them individually and equally I could only manage a maximum of 2 minutes per student. I then ask them if this is enough practice time per week to learn English effectively. They are generally able to make the connection intellectually that they must therefore practice English with each other for much of class time. I share with them my philosophy that learning a language is much like learning a sport; one can memorize rules and learn vocabulary and thus know a lot about the game, but to become an effective player on the field one must primarily practise, practise, practise! I also tell students that they are accomplished and intelligent to have made the progress they have in learning a second language; after all, many people around the world, and in the United States especially, never learn to function in a second language, much less a second writing system. I offer and reiterate my purposes and reasons for activities and encourage students to find and express their own. I introduce a new topic with highly-structured, more teacher-centered activities and move gradually toward more independent work.

In addition, I use occasional activities to include student input because I believe this gives students a sense of control over their own learning, encouraging responsibility and increasing motivation. I frequently survey students to select which chapters in a textbook, or other topics, we will cover. I have given some classes a choice among two or three options of when they want to take an exam. I ask students to visit me informally during office hours and at a "coffee hour" which I host weekly at a coffee house off-campus; these visits provide me opportunities to ask students' opinions on recent happenings and activities from their classes. I believe that if one wants students to become more independent, one must offer them opportunities to exercise their growing independence. Only in this way can a teacher validate this part of their learning.

Finally, throughout the term, I move from teacher-centered monitoring and evaluation toward more peer-assessment and self-assessment techniques. While I sometimes collect homework to check for completion, I rarely correct it. I usually go over answers in class or let students use answer keys to check their own work. I introduce and expand peer-feedback aspects like peer grading, checklists, comment sheets, and debriefing sessions to group work.

A prime example of the principle of maximizing student independence in action was my experience with Oops cards. I adapted a technique suggested by Huizenga and Thomas-Ruzic (1992). The purpose was to increase the amount of English students speak. To do this, each group is issued a token which is passed to a student when he/she uses the native language. The last student with the token at the end of the activity must buy everyone in the group a treat such as ice cream or candy. Instead of a token I made cards with the word "Oops" on them in big letters with a funny face and explained the meaning and use of the word as a cultural aside prior to the activity. I introduced the cards as an additional component of the regular group discussion activity. The students loved the added challenge of not getting stuck with the card. Using English, and trying to trip other group members into using Korean, became a game. Questionable situations, like writing in the first language, were resolved by group decision. Most importantly, instead of me, the teacher, trying to

monitor all of them, the students, they were monitoring one another. I continue to reuse the cards when I feel the English level in group work is slipping. While the students do not evoke as spectacular a response on repeat occasions as the first time, the cards continue to be effective, and students enjoy adding to the funny faces.

The second principle, and possibly the hardest to implement, is to reflect on and learn from one's experience as a teacher. When one is facing a huge pile of papers to grade, twenty or more hours of classroom time to plan for the week, and upcoming major assignments to structure, reviewing previous class work seems a last priority. However, the busier one is, the more critical it becomes to make time to evaluate the effectiveness of various activities and techniques. When one's time is at a premium, one cannot afford to continue inefficient and ineffective practices.

I try to make reflection a part of my planning process. I keep a planning book as a record of past, current, and future classes divided by days with three columns for each day: the first for ideas and long-range planning, the second for finalized lesson plans, and the last as a record of what actually happened in the class and my thoughts about it. When I begin planning a lesson I can review what the class has already accomplished, what worked previously and what did not, and what ideas I have already generated in connection to past activities for the lesson. When something in a class fails miserably, I try to view it as a chance to figure out how to improve the activity for future use.

I also make time during the week, and especially during holidays or breaks, to get advice and help from other sources. Attending conferences has been a major source of new ideas for most of us. One can also browse the teacher resource sections increasingly more common in larger bookstores in Korea or join professional organizations such as Korea TESOL, TESOL, or IATEFL, and subscribe to their publications. One of my best sources of advice has been talking with and observing other teaching professionals like my professors and colleagues from my masters program, coworkers from previous jobs in Korea, and especially the faculty at my current institution. Email is particularly helpful for keeping in touch with other teachers. The Internet itself, as well, is a rich resource for help and ideas. Finally, as I mentioned previously, I seek feedback from students via helpful informants or questionnaires.

Third, I have found it absolutely essential to get and stay organized. While by nature I am a spontaneous, unstructured person, I have acquired basic organizational skills out of necessity. I now plan lessons, syllabi, and roll sheets well ahead of time and update them regularly in my planning book (or teaching journal, if you prefer). I prepare roll sheets and drafts of syllabi by the week before classes start. I generally plan each week of class during the previous week so I can make any necessary major preparations and review the plans when that week begins in order to make any needed adjustments. I try to stay as current as possible on grading students' work. I strive to return all assignments during the following class period. I keep an appointment book with me at all times so I can make and keep up with student appointments, meetings, my class schedule, and department and school events. I train my students to write all important information (department, year, class, student number, name, date, etc.) on every piece of paper they give me in case it gets misplaced.

Finally, I try to make time to consider, utilize, and expand available resources. I recommend recruiting a student office assistant, an idea borrowed from many of the Korean professors I work with. Depending on the work to be done and each teacher's individual circumstances, one might pay an hourly or weekly wage, work out an exchange of services such as English tutoring for work, or even request an assistant from one's department office. If paying a wage, inquiring among other teachers at school should help establish what rate is appropriate. Also, this term I will try using spreadsheets on the computer to calculate grades instead of doing it by hand. My assistant will enter the data. I would also suggest improving one's language skills in the weaker language (Underwood, 1987). For Westerners, being able to use basic Korean phrases for instructions in class and to read

students' names, door signs, and menus in hangul can help enormously. For Koreans, spending some time each week maintaining or improving one's English speaking, reading, or writing skills can build confidence in front of students as well as one's language ability. The most helpful resource I have found, however, is the class monitor.

When I started my first term in Korea, fellow instructors told me the first thing to do in each class was to find out who the class monitor or class captain was. This student's role is in part to help the teacher during the lesson. Monitors can help with managing students and paperwork in vital ways. They can help set up the classroom by reorganizing desks, getting chalk, etc. especially if there is an established routine for doing so (Underwood). They can return assignments more quickly than most teachers can because they know the students better. They can collect homework and organize papers by number to make grading easier and, if trustworthy, even take attendance. Their influence weighing in with the teacher's can quiet a noisy or disruptive class. They can act on the teacher's behalf to deal with disruptive students, excessive absenteeism, or other problems. Teachers should make every effort to develop positive relationships with their monitors.

## **PROBLEMS/SOLUTIONS**

Participants in the workshop were surveyed informally for the problems they found most frustrating in their large classes. The list included but certainly is not limited to: finding opportunities for students to speak, keeping students' attention, dividing the teacher's attention, grading speaking ability, staying on task, teaching to mixed ability classes, managing noise volume, dealing with names/identification of students, staying in English, extroverts dominating class activities, coming up with practical assessment ideas, monitoring students' performance, and motivating students. In the time remaining we were able to discuss opportunities for speaking, speaking assessment techniques, and attention-getting and discipline method.

A common problem for many teachers in larger classes is providing opportunities for students to speak. This is compounded by the evident shyness of many Korean students, most of whom have not had much practice actively speaking English in their previous language classes or interacting with a native or near-native speaker of English, as well as the teacher-centered classrooms and strong emphasis on accuracy with which students are accustomed from their previous educational experience. In addition, students often believe consciously or unconsciously that speaking practice must be with a teacher and/or native speaker to be at all effective.

The most obvious remedy for this problem is using pair or group activities (see Bradley 1997, Cross 1995, Murphy 1992, Promodrou 1992, and Ur 1988 for examples and ideas). With careful structuring of their first group interactions to keep students in the target language and on task, students become more comfortable and confident speaking English with one another because they are not performing in front of the entire class. This allows teachers to monitor more students and interact more directly and spontaneously with them as they move around the classroom. Information-gap or jigsaw activities can help ensure that everyone must contribute to the conversation. While accuracy work can be done effectively in small groups, they are especially ideal for fluency-building due to their highly interactive and more authentic nature. One workshop participant also suggested choral drills and other choral activities such as chants or songs because they allow students to practice the language without fear of exposure or ridicule. Also, these are practices which most Korean students are familiar and therefore comfortable with. A third possibility discussed was using student presentations such as oral reports, skits, debates, and so forth, so that students actually "teach" a portion of the lesson or manage part of the class' time. Peer review, feedback, and/or evaluation can easily and naturally become a part of such presentations and can keep the balance of the class interested and involved.

Assessing is a particularly thorny problem for teachers with large numbers of students because of the tremendous amount of time involved in scoring any assessment instrument. Teachers should consult authoritative sources such as Underhill (1987) for treatment of such important issues as reliability, validity, testing purposes, and rating. Our discussion assumed a need to balance these with practical limitations and focused on accommodating such limits.

Oral testing is the most clearly valid method of evaluating speaking ability. However, the prospect of doing hundreds of individual interviews, even at a duration of five minutes apiece, is understandably daunting. Two alternatives that I have had good results with have been pair and group testing. I evaluate performances and give individual grades, but students take the test with other students as their interlocutors. In addition to cutting down scoring time significantly these methods have the added advantages of greater consistency with the tasks done in the classroom, more nearly authentic interactions, and a lift to students' confidence and morale due to peer support during the test. If possible, however, I would advise drafting a second rater wherever possible to improve reliability of scoring (Underhill).

One way to do this would be to exchange services with another teacher, both of you grading your own and one another's students. If meshing schedules is difficult, audiotaping of each test can substitute for live rating by the second scorer. Another thing to consider is breaking up testing times into one-hour or at most two-hour blocks. Rating oral tests is very intensive, exhausting work and one can easily become overtired and less reliable in scoring. For testing students' achievement in the classroom I recommend breaking down scores into different components rather than holistic scoring because doing so helps the rater stay focused on the specifics to be tested rather than sliding into evaluating overall proficiency. For example, one of my recent tests had: (a) a category for accuracy of pronunciation and grammar in reference to specific structures we had covered in class; (b) one for effectiveness of interaction including functions such as clarification, agreeing and disagreeing, introducing new topics, and reaching a consensus which had been an additional focus; and (c) a vocabulary category for the topic-related words and phrases from the subjects treated during the term to that point.

Another way to reduce the assessment burden on the teacher is to move students toward peer-evaluation and self-evaluation. One should move into student-evaluation slowly, however, building students' confidence in their own judgment and authority and their skills in evaluating one another and themselves. Good starting points would be supplying answer sheets for homework and transforming pair activities into trios, with one student acting as an observer offering feedback. A quick and easy self-evaluation technique is the end-of-class or end-of-week self-assessment (for an example, see Bryan's description of a "participation sheet" which she implemented at the end of her classes). Later one can begin adding feedback sessions to group activities and having students actually rate one another's performance in whole-class presentations. By supplying evaluation sheets or other written guidelines, the instructor can focus students on specific areas of their work with direct supervision unnecessary. Student-based evaluation also helps increase student motivation and responsibility for learning.

By far the liveliest part of the workshop was the discussion of attention-getting and discipline methods. Due to classroom size, noise volume, and fewer opportunities to develop personal relationships with students, large classes are particularly prone to these overlapping problems, and most of the workshop's participants had stories, techniques, and questions to share.

Some of the techniques I mentioned for getting students' attention when most or all of their attention is elsewhere are preestablishing time limits for activities, using an alarm clock or timer audible throughout the classroom, flicking the lights or raising one's hand with students to follow suit (the last requires some previous instruction). In her World Wide Web document on Teacher Training

in Egypt, Murphy (1996) suggests writing "Stop" on the board. I have tried using a whistle on a day when I had lost my voice, but it made both me and the students feel rather foolish, as if they were animals and I were a trainer. One participant, however, humorously suggested that a sufficiently piercing whistle might be more effective as the pain produced would negatively reinforce continued talking. Another participant stated that he used loud noises such as dropping books or overturning desks and found them quite effective. One more said he stomped on the empty, overturned paper cups that littered the floor of his classroom. The most common method I use, however, is the silent wait-out; I stand immobile and silent until the classroom quiets enough for the lesson to continue. The first time one tries this one may have to wait ten or twenty minutes for students to catch on. When students become familiar with the method, however, they often support the instructors by hushing other students for them. This is a method that works with almost any teacher's style and is culturally appropriate. Another culturally sensitive method suggested by an experienced teacher is to turn one's face and stance away from the class, to the side or, more severely, turning one's back on the class.

Most of us had fewer options for dealing with disruptive individuals. One practice suggested to me when I first arrived in Korea was to halt the class and explain that I would not continue until the individual in question stopped being disruptive, using peer pressure from the other students to enforce appropriate behavior. Another possibility we discussed was sending the student to the department office for a disciplinary lecture. This received mixed reviews, as some teachers believed that students and employers saw such an action as weak, demonstrating that a teacher was unable to control the classroom. Some teachers with older students simply banished problem students from the room for the remainder of the class, thinking that separation from their peers was an effective way to modify behavior.

We discussed two last resorts for extreme situations: displaying anger, and walking out. In general, showing anger is not acceptable in Korean social interactions, so most Western teachers are unsure if and when to get visibly angry in their classrooms. Some teachers speculated, however, that Westerners were allowed more leeway in their behavior in some situations. I related that several instructors had reported that one temper tantrum, carefully timed, had changed the entire tenor of the classroom for the better. Our conclusion was that one should consider the situation carefully before getting angry in front of students, but that it was sometimes a viable option. On the other hand, a teacher's walkout appears to be more culturally acceptable (though possible only with older students), but one should equally carefully consider one's circumstances. Leaving a classroom works best in a class with which one normally has a strong positive relationship. In such a class, as soon as they recover from the shock, students usually go racing down the hallway after the teacher to apologize and urge the teacher to return to the classroom. However, if the students do not like or respect the instructor or the subject, they may be glad to see the teacher go!

I would add that many difficulties with attentiveness and discipline can be most effectively approached preventively, as Prodromou and Underwood point out. When students are interested, involved, and invested in what is happening in class, they are much less likely to get bored nor have the time or inclination to cause problems.

## **OPPORTUNITIES**

While it is easy to focus on the difficulties and challenges posed by larger classes of students, teachers should not lose sight of the advantages gained in classes of 40 or more. First and foremost, more students means more resources: interest areas, experiences, perspectives, personalities, strengths, ideas, knowledge to draw on. Once an instructor finds ways to tap this diversity, classes can be more interesting for all concerned, and more closely tailored to the students' needs. Also, a greater range of activities is possible, as there will almost always be enough students for any activity, be it



group work or class discussion. Many a teacher has found that those small Friday evening classes frequently evaporate to only a couple of students if there are only 10 or 15 on the roll; this can make lesson planning frustratingly uncertain. Finally, more possible pairs and groupings can give quick variety to routine activities (see Ur for ideas on varying grouping arrangements), so students are less likely to become bored with repetitive activities.

## THE AUTHOR

Katherine MacKinnon taught her first year at Georgia State University (GSU) in the small (8-17 students) classes of the university preparation program. She received an MS in Applied Linguistics/ESL from GSU in December 1995 and then came almost nonstop to Korea. She currently teaches 400 students, give or take a few, at Daelim College of Technology in Anyang.

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# Pan-Asia Cultural Comparison Curriculum Proposal

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**JEANNE E. MARTINELLI**

*Pusan National University*

## INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Internationally renowned for his work in the intercultural field, Alvino Fantini, PhD, School for International Training, Brattleboro, Vermont, United States, calls for what he identifies as "intercultural competence" among those anyway and anywhere involved in the international arena, and in particular for those working as language educators, especially teachers of English as a Second and Foreign Language.

Fantini (1997) says,

In fact, culture and intercultural preparation is clearly becoming a significant and integral part of newer approaches to language education. Culture learning, and its counterpart, intercultural exploration (which seeks to compare and contrast target and native cultures), are no longer peripheral or supplemental aspects of many modern language courses, to be included only if there is time left over or as a motivational technique for students when things slow down. (p. 9)

Fantini explains Intercultural Competence (ICC), to be generally characterized by researchers as: (a) the ability to develop positive relationships, (b) the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately, with minimal loss and distortion, and (c) the ability to attain compliance and cooperation with others toward some objective of mutual interest. These abilities are displayed through behavioral traits such as empathy, flexibility, patience, a sense of humor, and a tolerance for ambiguity, among others. ICC is further enhanced when we grapple with, and develop proficiency in, a second language, he says.

Throughout southeastern Asia, particularly in Korea, we are seeing an increase in the number of Asians studying abroad in English speaking countries and in those wanting to learn English as a foreign language in their home country. Especially in Korea, the role of English as a foreign language has greatly broadened in the normal cultural realm of the society. In practically all universities in Korea, all freshman undergraduate students are required to take at least a year of English language. This is regardless of their major or intended field of study. English was introduced at the elementary level for the first time in the country, beginning with the 1997 school year.

This means that native Korean elementary school teachers, regardless of their ability (of "lack of") in English as a foreign language, are responsible for teaching it to their elementary school students. Major teacher training programs have recently gotten underway to not only introduce communicative English language to these teachers, but to attempt to instill some level of ease and comfort to these often stressed and anxious English language learners; many of whom have not had any real grounded exposure to the English language since prior grammar-translation failed attempts many years before.

A flood of "native English speakers" has been seeping into Korea, in attempts to "teach English", and move the country toward its governmentally stated goal of "Globalization in the Year 2000." The enormity of cultural misunderstandings and misinterpretations between both Koreans and the native

English speaking Westerners can well be imagined. Korea has traditionally been a very proud and homogeneous "closed" society, with plenty of spiritual, psychological, and cultural scars from various historical occupations (Japanese) and other war-torn tragedies (The Korean War). This contrasts deeply with the more individualistically-focused heterogeneous mainly North American (United States and Canada) cultural players coming in across borders.

Again, in Fantini's words

Our generation needs to understand that each person's world view is culturally influenced and that our own view was developed so early in life that we are usually unaware of its existence. Likewise, we are unaware that our view is only one of many ways of understanding and interpreting the phenomena of the world. We know little about cultural relativity and cultural determinism, and this ignorance is reflected in our misunderstanding and intolerance of people who are different. Conversely, we also know little about the commonalities which all human beings share universally, despite our most treasured cultural inventions. (p. 10)

Thus it seems only befitting that we, as educators working in the English as a foreign language field in Asia, find ways to embrace our talk of increasing our, and our students' intercultural competence. Fantini works with an "A+ASK" model: Awareness+Attitudes, Skills and Knowledge; meaning knowledge alone is inadequate without the concomitant awareness, attitudes and skills. He proposes an appropriate educational model to include knowledge (through courses and formal education), skills (through exercises, activities, and practicum), while it also explores attitudes (our sentiments and feelings) and expands awareness (a fundamental part of most experiential activities).

Or, A+ASK said in another way, in a teaching framework offered by Moran (1997), also of the School for International Training, we are defining four culture learning interactions as: (a) Culture as Knowing About (information about the culture; Knowledge), (b) Culture as Knowing How (skills for functioning successfully within the culture; Skill), (c) Culture as Knowing Why (values, attitude, and assumptions of the culture; Attitude), and (d) Culture as Knowing Oneself (self-awareness; Awareness).

In keeping within this general A+ASK model/Moran grid and thus striving toward the goal of developing ICC, a very concrete pragmatic Pan Asia Cultural Awareness Curriculum will be put forth below, based on the Min Byoung-chul (1994, 1995, 1997) *Ugly Koreans/Japanese/Chinese and Ugly Americans* series. In attempting to expand this project from not only a Korean/American awareness, but to the broader Pan Asian perspective including Japan and China, it is hoped that even greater respect, appreciation, understanding and awareness for these cultural connections will be made.

## CURRICULUM

Level: high intermediate/advanced students; potentially adaptable to other levels

Objective: To raise cross-cultural awareness and understanding about Korean and American cultures by examining stereotypes of "unacceptable" and "acceptable" behavior within these two cultures, while questioning, reflecting upon, and discussing possible underlying values.

Materials: *Ugly Koreans Ugly Americans* by Min Byoung-chul.

Procedure: Through a variety of steps including reflective writing, pair work, small group discussion, large group discussion and attributes ranking, students will share insights and feelings regarding Korean and American cultural "ugly" behaviors. Extension activities are also suggested, including role plays, writing critical incidents, cultural show and tell, and video interviews; as well as pan-Asian comparisons with Japan and China and different comparisons within different Korean samples/communities, and "expatriates" from all these countries.

## **PART ONE**

Students are asked to brainstorm, reflect, and write in their "cultural journals" for five to ten minutes on the following: What is their reaction to the world: "Ugly?" And then, what thoughts come to mind when they hear the term: "Ugly Korean?" "Ugly American?" "Ugly" to whom? Why? According to what values? Whose standards? (Teacher can write the word "Ugly" and the expanded questions on the board to guide students' reflective writing. Actual journaling time will depend on each particular class and the students' actual levels and abilities.)

Students are next asked to turn to a partner, and share their journalled responses to the terms above. (A discussion/brief lesson on stereotypes may fit in here; if not already done so in previous classes, or if it simply feels appropriate; again, depending on the students and the particular class. (See Tomalin and Stempleski, 1997 for a useful model.)

Teachers can bring students to brief whole class discussion now, eliciting some of the main points raised in this initial brainstorming journaling and partner discussion sharing session, and to create interest in preparing students to actually next read the book.

## **PART TWO**

For homework (outside of class), students read the book, *Ugly Koreans Ugly Americans*, jotting down in their cultural awareness journals any strong feelings and reactions they have to any of the particular examples given in either the "Ugly Koreans" or the "Ugly Americans". Students are given the following questions to guide them in their journaling after reading the book, and to better prepare themselves for class discussion the next day:

1. Which of these situations do you have any firsthand personal experiences with?
2. What similar experiences have you heard of?
3. Which of these situations have you been aware of or thought about before?
4. Which situations were you unaware of before?
5. Are there any examples you disagree with?
6. Are there any you feel that are changing in society today? Why?
7. Can you think of any others?
8. Do you want to add any other "Ugly Korean" or "Ugly American" behaviors?

## **PART THREE**

After reading all these examples of "Ugly Koreans" and "Ugly Americans" in the book, and thinking about them and journaling about them as in the related questions above, students turn to the back of the book, to the list of attributes, starting on page 164, Students' Directions: To the immediate left of each different attribute starting on page 164, rank the order in which you either agree or disagree with the statement, using a scale of 1-5: 5=agree strongly 4=agree somewhat 3=neither agree nor disagree 2=disagree somewhat 1=disagree strongly. Continue working through to page 180, ranking all the different attributes of both Koreans and Ugly Americans, from 1-5.

Be prepared to discuss your opinions in class! (The concept for ranking the Ugly Koreans Ugly Americans attributes, as described here in Step Three, originally came from Park, Joo-Kyoung.)

## **PART FOUR-A**

Students' Directions : After ranking and discussing your opinions, select what you think are the top seven (7) offenses in *Ugly Koreans* and the top seven (7) offenses in *Ugly Americans*. In other words, what are the "ugliest of the uglies?" Just select seven (7) that are the most offensive, the ugliest

of the Korean and United States behavior. You do not have to rank those seven (7) in order.

When ready, move into partners and think about and discuss: Why do you think these are so? From what you know of either/both Korean/United States culture, why are these seven (7) the worst?

#### **PART FOUR-B**

Students's Directions: With another student, select what you think are the top three (3) "uglies" of each culture. (The three most offensive, damaging, extreme or important.)

Then, join another group of partners and share your top three (3) choices. Discuss why you chose these three. Are these serious cross-cultural issues? Or, are they not? If so, what can we as culturally aware individuals do about them? Should we bother or should we not?

#### **PART FOUR-C**

A whole class consolidation of "uglies" ranking: Students in their groups of fours present their top three uglies rankings for both Koreans and Americans, as carried out in Step 4-B. These are consolidated onto the board for everyone to see.

For example, a Pusan National University Cultural Awareness Class in Spring of 1997 selected the following as the "ugliest" of the Korean cultural behavior uglies:

1. Do not say "Thank you," "Excuse me," or "I'm sorry."
2. Play Hwa-Tow (Korean cards) anywhere and everywhere.
3. Offer drinks using the same glass the person has been drinking from.
4. Wear formal suits while sightseeing.
5. Do not say no.
6. Public rest rooms are used commonly by men and women.
7. Public rest rooms often do not have toilet paper or paper towels.
8. Drivers park illegally and block traffic.
9. Drivers do not yield to pedestrians.
10. Men sit with their legs outstretched on subways.

And these as the "ugliest" of the American cultural behavior uglies:

1. Do not try to learn Korean and expect Koreans to learn English.
2. Teach English without appropriate educational background.
3. Think it is sometimes all right to be immoral/illegal just because they're Americans (e.g. throwing trash on the streets, making a U-turn in the middle of a busy intersection, etc.)
4. Think they are the best simply because they are from America.
5. Flirt overtly.
6. Watch a sporting match or jog with no shirt on.
7. Kiss in public.
8. Smoke in front of older people.

#### **PART FIVE**

General whole class discussion:

Are cultural differences "bad"? If not, why not? If so, why? And when?

What happens when there are cultural differences? How can we as individuals become more aware of our culturally-induced behaviors? How can we become aware of the culturally-induced behaviors of others? How can we develop our ability to explain our own cultural stand point?

Note that the assumption has been made that previous work has been done around the definition, meaning, and usage of the term "culture". Again, refer to Tomalin and Stempleski for a reference.

## EXTENSIONS

Now that this basic framework, and ranking system has been introduced and gone through, lessons may spring out into a variety of directions, least to be forgotten, the "Pan Asia" hook-up and connection, which will be gone into in a minute.

For example, role plays may be conducted by students, in which they act out a situation as experienced or imagined from the previous steps and rankings. Closely related, critical incidents, again based on the previous steps' work, may be written up and shared, analyzed, further discussed, role played, etc.

Audio or video tape interviews may be made with participants of the interview, where they expound upon their cross-cultural experiences. These may be used for future lessons in further classrooms, with students listening to the audio tapes or viewing the videos, to further discuss the cultural issues presented on the tapes. Tape transcripts could be made to provide more lesson material.

Cultural "Show and Tell" may be a direction to move in; where students each bring in something special to them that reflects their own personal values and/or some special cultural value(s), as well. Processing then involves discussing what new personal thing(s) students have learned about classmates and what new cultural insights they have learned; what new things students have learned about their culture. (Excellent class community building activity.)

For example, one Korean university student wrote in his cultural awareness journal after the "Cultural Show and Tell" activity, "I have never tried to put on the other's shoes, but this time I did identify myself with each of them, which really made me touched."

The same student expanded,

Going to the point, what I have learned about each person in the class is that people could be pretty similar to one another or be totally different, that means that culture can be created diversely by people's values and perspectives of viewing the world. In other words 'culture' could mean from individual difference to national, racial and geographical difference. To understand cultural difference better is required to think about something in other's perspectives, which I like to call 'relativity'.

We can further see this student's seemingly developing cultural awareness in his words,

I still have bias to adhere to my own view and criteria. However I think it's time to bring myself to realization of things new, and to make myself interested in adventuring something new. For sure, this is going to bring lots of refreshment, amusement and fun to my life.

And in another particularly insightful reflection this Korean university student shares, in response to reading *Ugly Koreans*, *Ugly Americans*,

Anyway it was great to read the book, and one story particularly reminded me of the experience that I had at a French-New Zealander's house in New Zealand. One day I got invited for dinner. Now, I had got the flu and so I often blew my nose at that time. The problem was that at dinner table I had a terrible running nose, so I thought it was very rude to blow my nose at [the] table.

Consequently I started to sniffle in a quick and quiet way. About five or seven minutes later, the wife called Brenda told me, "James, why don't you blow your nose." So, I felt sorry and backed off the table to go out to blow my nose. However, Brenda became a little bit embarrassed and told me, "Where are you off [to], James?" I said, "I'm going downstairs to blow my nose." At my respond[se], those who were at [the] table seemed to feel strange about me like they did not still understand why I was going out. Now I can understand what the situation was like at that time by reading this book.

One group of students felt so inspired by the *Ugly Koreans Ugly Americans* experience that for

their final project in which they were simply required to bring in some original cultural research data, they brought in a video they had made of interviews they had undertaken with Koreans who had lived abroad in English speaking countries and native English speakers living in Korea, called: "Pretty Koreans Pretty Americans." Their intentions were to explore the "positive" side of the cultural exchanges. Interestingly enough, this particular slant is precisely the next focus of Min Byoung-chul's book series.

## NATIONAL AND PAN ASIA

The national and pan Asia connection I would like to introduce here now would involve a comparison of results of the basic ranking steps outlined above. It could be carried out nationally within Korea, for example, comparing different schools, different geographical locations, classes within the same school, different types of schools (national universities vs. junior colleges, etc.), different sexes, ages, or nationalities. What about comparing expatriates with Korean nationals; what differences might that uncover? What about the factor of exposure to a "foreign" culture? And length of stay in the "other" culture?

It could then be extended to Japan or China by having them carry out the same steps, especially the ranking, for comparison of the *Ugly Koreans Ugly Americans* book, in which case you would get this alternate Asian view (Japanese and/or Chinese) and Americans/ Westerners living in those other Asian countries. In which case, you would be then comparing your Korean results with those other Asians' views of Korean and American "uglies" comparisons.

And for Thailand, what about the development of such a book itself for basis of comparison? Then, you could use the Thai material along with the *Ugly Japanese Ugly Americans* and *Ugly Chinese Ugly Americans* books, in the same way, to generate the same information for comparison within Thailand, Japan, Korea, China--for a broader comparison. So, really, the sampling possibilities are endless, and open to an enthusiastic pan Asian team, from the different countries involved, to really hammer out the details of what such a quantitative and qualitative cross cultural research project -- and definite potential teaching tool and curriculum -- could look like. The insights gained and discoveries made through this type of activity could prove to be an important resource, able to inform other teacher training issues/situations in our perspective countries, as well as serving as practical subject matter in our cultural awareness classrooms.

## CONCLUSION

The first Pan Asia Conference jointly sponsored by Korea TESOL, Japan Association of Language Teachers (JALT), Thai TESOL, and International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL), last January 1997 in Bangkok, gave a clear cry for a connected focused joint learning and sharing of resources between the various Asian countries quickly expanding into the English teaching arena. The second Pan Asia Conference to be held in October 1999 in Korea (with a third in Japan in 2001), needs to be a true exchange of data and networking between the different language teachers of the related countries. What are our similarities? What are our differences? How can we grow and learn from each other's teaching and learning experiences?

Because of the inextricable link of language and culture together, the more clearly we can understand that relationship, and the view of peoples toward themselves and others within various cultural contexts, the more grounded we can be in developing our Intercultural Competence (ICC), in efforts of becoming better global participants as we move toward "Globalization 2001" and basic simple, humane, healthy cross-cultural interactions.

The cultural comparison curriculum proposed here within, based on Min Byoung-chul's series of



cultural comparison books, and related extended cultural awareness activities, seems to provide one clear invoking way for students and learners of various corners and cultural contexts of eastern Asia to come together and reflect, refine, review and discover. Again, the more discoveries we can make in all four pockets of the cultural awareness grid presented by Moran, and the more insights we can gain through Fantini's A+ASK model, the more explaining and exchanging of such discoveries and insights we can professionally and personally carry out, making our lives and our students' lives richer as we dance together back and forth as foreign language and cultural teachers and learners.

## **THE AUTHOR**

Jeanne Martinelli has worked on five continents in the ESL/EFL field over the past 17 years. She has a BA in Cross-Cultural Communication from the School for International Training in Brattleboro Vermont where she is currently enrolled in the MATESOL program. She also holds MA in education.

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# Student Design of an English Conversation Course

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PETER E. NELSON AND YOO YOON-HEE

*ChungAng University*

To increase class participation and interest, the instructor had teacher trainees evaluate future course materials and suggest alternative teaching methods. The method described here is suitable for situations where the instructor has flexibility in teaching styles and materials selection. It is especially useful for novice teachers.

## INTRODUCTION

Part of the revolution in EFL/ESL instruction concerns the shift in teaching models, most notably from a teacher-centered approach to a student-centered one. This transition involves more than catering to student needs or having the instructor play a less direct role in the classroom. It is nothing less than a paradigm shift in both thinking and acting, since the instructor must critically analyze himself and his teaching style. It also involves an evaluation of the teacher's role from a social perspective, especially in those communities where the teacher is assumed to act in a traditional manner to maintain expected education standards.

The conventional image of a classroom, as noted by Scrivener (1994), often depicts the teacher standing in front of the class teaching, with the students sitting in the rows listening. This style of teaching assumes the teacher is the "knower," whose job it is to pass on his acquired knowledge to students. Furthermore, there is the accompanying assumption that explaining or demonstrating something to students will lead to learning.

It is the appropriateness of this conventional model that has come under close scrutiny by educators, who have come to question how much learning actually takes place. Recently, and especially in language instruction, the traditional hierarchical model has been challenged and partly replaced by the concept of the teacher as a facilitator or enabler. In this view the fundamental assumptions are that people learn more by doing things themselves, and that learners are intelligent, fully-functioning humans, not simply, as Scrivener points out, receptacles for passed on knowledge. The result is a major re-orientation in ways in which we view the roles of both student and teacher. In essence the former model is top-down with the teacher acting as a lecturer and conveyor of information, while in the latter he is more responsive to his students' life experiences and personalities. He is often willing to share decisions made in the classroom, and is open to learning from them. Teachers in this latter instance is not the equal of their students, but their teaching style is comparatively open, negotiable and student-centered.

One outcome of this orientation shift is the proliferation of ideas and experiments to implement the philosophy of teacher-as-facilitator. Deller (1994) states that one objective of her book is to create more situations in which the learners can contribute, initiate, control, and create what happens in the classroom. In this effort she provides numerous examples whereby students generate the materials they want to use for linguistic activities. This approach consequently generates substantial spin-offs for the learners and the teacher: a positive group atmosphere, interesting materials, good feedback, reduced preparation time for the teacher and enhanced homework. In effect both teacher and students

benefit from classes emphasizing a student-centered approach.

## METHODOLOGY

In an effort to develop their own facilitation style of teaching, the authors designed an experiment for third year English Education students at ChungAng University in Seoul, South Korea. These students -- all teacher trainees enrolled in English Conversation -- were encouraged to evaluate reading materials selected by the professor. They were also asked to provide suggestions for improvement regarding the instructor's role and teaching style. The rationale given was that as trainee teachers, they too would have to make decisions regarding course content and teaching style, so the information they gave would be useful not only to the instructor but also for themselves. They were assured the survey was anonymous, and the input provided would be used by the instructor for the next cycle of teaching. The students were also informed the survey was part of a deliberate effort by the instructor to reduce the traditionally rigid, top-down Korean teaching style.

Since this was a class experiment only, methodological and statistical rigor were deliberately minimized. The authors felt that a tightly monitored study would reduce the relaxed atmosphere necessary for student trust and involvement. The authors' primary intent was to judge students' reactions to increased participation, and to determine ways in which their input could be constructively employed. They felt that subsequent studies could use the results to construct appropriate scales, indices and other statistical control measures.

## BOOK SELECTION

Students were divided into small groups (4-6 people), and each group was provided with up to 11 books containing materials suitable for their class. They were asked to evaluate each book on an interest/suitability scale ranging from 0 (no interest) through 5 (neutral) to 10 (very interested). They were also asked to make written comments for each book where appropriate.

The books chosen (in alphabetical order by author name, with annotation) were:

- Collis, Harry: *101 American English Idioms* (Useful, funny, illustrated idioms)
- Frank, Christine: *Challenge to Think* (Complex puzzles, games and stories)
- Hadfield, Jill: *Advanced Communication Games* (interaction, role-play emphasis)
- Jones, Leo: *Great Ideas* (Listening/speaking activities for pairs/small groups)
- Lee, Jane: *Practical English Conversation* (variety of interaction activities)
- Martire, Jack: *Small Group Discussion Topics for Koreans* (contemporary issues)
- Min, Byoung-chul: *Ugly Koreans, Ugly Americans* (cultural comparisons, cartoons)
- Penrod, Glen: *Touchy Situations* (guided, group-based decision activities)
- Sion, Christopher: *Recipes for Tired Teachers* (varied communication activities)
- Sion, Christopher: *More Recipes for Tired Teachers* (small group exercises)
- Vorhees, Duane: *Let's Talk* (contemporary Korean and international social issues)

## Course Improvement

The authors used a brainstorm method to elicit ways to make the class more enjoyable and suitable for conversation. Student comments were collated and returned to them; they were then asked to rank each suggestion on a subjective, personal importance scale (1= least important; 2= somewhat; 3= most important).

The 20 most common suggestions (in order of importance as selected by the students) were:

1. Introduce different teaching methods (games, role play, interviews, etc.).
2. Introduce more "fresh" topics for conversation.
3. Use a roll call to memorize students names.
4. Move the chairs into a circle so students see one another face to face.
5. Introduce more practical words and expressions (idioms, for example).
6. Combine different subjects from other books.
7. Allow individual student presentations that can be judged by the teacher and by the students.
8. Distribute topic handouts before they are discussed in class, or tell students to think about the topic beforehand.
9. Allow individual students more time to provide answers.
10. Teach more about (North) American culture.
11. Encourage/require students to get different speaking partners.
12. De-emphasize the textbook (include a four skills component only one day out of four).
13. Link some class participation to grades.
14. Introduce monthly quizzes instead of a midterm exam.
15. Have a group coffee time with students.
16. Eliminate current textbook (too boring and too much grammar emphasis).
17. Conduct personal interviews in the instructor's office.
18. Meet in a non-language lab room three days out of four.
19. Wait longer for volunteers to raise their hands.
20. Reduce size of class (students understand this may not be possible).

The results ranged from a high of 67 total points (introduce different teaching methods) to a low of 50 (reduce class size) out of a possible 72 points.

## **RESULTS: BOOK SELECTION**

Although the number of groups evaluating each book varied, their collective responses indicated clear preferences as well as a wide range in their assessments (see Table 1, next page, for the complete results). A pattern emerging from the top four selections was student desire for group activities rather than pair-based assignments. Moreover, they wanted variety; the books with higher scores contained ideas and exercises of remarkable diversity. Although students were interested in Korean subjects (e.g. Martire's book), domestic topics did not dominate their preferences.

The lower scores were confined to communication games for their own sake. Students did not object to them but felt their conversations were better directed to purposeful activities like discussion of local/national issues, learning useful idioms and the like.

Given the variable numbers of students participating in the book review, it is difficult to draw statistically meaningful observations, and better to consider the evaluations as guidelines only.

## **COURSE IMPROVEMENT**

The narrow range (1- 3) for student responses did not permit much variation, and consequently inhibited a meaningful statistical interpretation. Qualitatively, however, students had clear preferences for changes in teaching style. They wanted greater variety in the topics taught, and a more practical emphasis in topic selections. This preference reinforced their earlier selection of books, in which they wanted conversation to focus on meaningful topics rather than, say, games for their own sake. They also had two useful suggestions to enhance personal interaction: use a roll call to remember names, and pull chairs into a circle when conversing. It is important to note that the latter suggestion is a direct endorsement of the student-centered teaching model, in which the instructor plays a reduced

**TABLE 1**  
**CAU SEPTEMBER 1996 BOOK SURVEY RESULTS**

| Suitability Scale Range: 0 to 10                                 |   |    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |    |    |   |    |    |     |    |     |      |    |    |     |     |    |
|--|---|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|---|----|----|-----|----|-----|------|----|----|-----|-----|----|
| (0= No Interest; 5= Neutral but Acceptable; 10= Very Interested) |   |    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |    |    |   |    |    |     |    |     |      |    |    |     |     |    |
| Each Column= a different group evaluation                        |   |    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |    |    |   |    |    |     |    |     |      |    |    |     |     |    |
| Author   |   |    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |    |    |   |    |    | Sum | #  | Ave | Rank |    |    |     |     |    |
| Jones, Leo   | 7 | 10 | 9 |   |   |   |   |   |   | 10 | 5  |    |   |    | 8  | 6   | 10 | 9   | 10   | 84 | 10 | 8.4 | 1   |    |
| Martire, Jack  | 5 |    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    | 10 | 5  |   |    | 6  | 8   | 9  | 8   | 7    | 5  | 63 | 9   | 8   | 2  |
| Collis, Henry  |   |    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   | 10 | 10 | 5  | 8 | 10 | 8  | 7   | 3  | 6   | 1    |    | 84 | 12  | 7.1 | 3  |
| Lee, Jane Lion   |   |    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |    | 6  | 7 |    |    |     |    |     | 7    |    | 40 | 6   | 6.7 | 4  |
| Frank, Christine   | 6 |    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    | 0  | 0  |   |    |    |     | 7  | 8   | 9    | 5  | 31 | 8   | 5.6 | 5  |
| Vorhees, Duane   | 5 |    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   | 6  | 4  | 10 | 5 | 10 | 8  | 5   | 5  | 4   |      | 5  | 62 | 11  | 5.4 | 6  |
| Hadfield, Jill   | 6 |    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    | 10 | 0  | 3 | 5  | 6  | 5   | 5  | 5   |      | 5  | 40 | 9   | 5   | 7  |
| Min, Byoung-chul   | 1 |    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   | 5  | 10 | 4  | 7 | 5  | 10 |     |    |     | 2    | 0  | 42 | 9   | 4.9 | 8  |
| Penrod, Glen   | 7 |    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |    | 3  | 6 |    |    | 6   | 2  | 0   | 5    | 10 | 24 | 8   | 4.9 | 8  |
| Sion, Christopher(1)   | 5 | 3  | 3 | 0 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 3  | 5  | 3  | 5 | 3  | 5  | 3   | 4  | 5   | 4    | 5  | 58 | 16  | 4.6 | 9  |
| Sion, Christopher(2)   |   |    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |    |    |   |    |    |     | 4  | 5   |      |    | 17 | 4   | 4.2 | 10 |

role.

Items of lowest importance were recognized as impractical (e.g. reduce class size, meet in a different classroom), or of an essentially personal nature (wait longer for them to speak, have personal interviews, coffee times and so on). In this regard there is a contrast between the highest preferences - which centered on the group, and the lowest preferences -- which centered on the individual.

## **FUTURE WORK**

A survey of this type can be useful in several ways. It can help the neophyte instructor by suggesting which types of materials are useful in the classroom, and by presenting a "warts and all" critique of his performance. It can be used as a model for experienced teachers who want to explore more student-centered teaching methods. It also can help reduce the "adjunct professor effect" felt by many native speakers teaching at a foreign university, since they now have a professional investment in course content and implementation.

Improved research design, however, is necessary to move beyond qualitative, essentially impressionistic observations. In this regard the researcher can consult professional materials and techniques necessary to obtain comprehensive evaluations. The survey, for example, could have been enhanced by engaging a larger number of students, and by employing statistical methods such as cluster analysis, correlation and regression, factor analysis and other data discrimination techniques.

## **CONCLUSIONS**

It must be emphasized that the authors were undertaking a limited experiment to determine if, and to what extent, students would participate in a class evaluation based on a student-centered teaching model. The experiment focused on getting student opinions concerning book selection and teaching suggestions, not on implementing a research design with statistical controls. Any conclusions should therefore take this perspective into consideration.

The survey upheld Scrivener's fundamental assumption underlying the new teaching model: students should not be considered simply as empty vessels to be filled with knowledge, but their life experiences should be acknowledged and where possible incorporated within the learning process. In this regard the students, being teacher trainees, had informed opinions and rational preferences regarding which books should be used, and why. They also had realistic, concrete advice to improve future courses. Moreover, their observations were not negative or bitter in tone; in almost all cases the advice was constructive. In this regard their contributions were invaluable since they far exceeded any changes that would have been made by the instructor acting alone.

Second, the survey upheld Deller's assertion that implementing a student-centered teaching model benefits both students and the instructor. The authors were able to use student feedback to improve course materials and to address problems with their own teaching style, while the teacher trainees gained practical experience in course design and execution. By implementing many of their suggestions, the authors were able to choose a different style of text for the next semester, and were able to act more as facilitators and less as lecturers.

A third and related spin-off was the effect of the survey on the students themselves. Management specialists inform us that productivity is higher when people identify with their work and feel a sense of empowerment. By my genuinely requesting student input, and by engaging students directly, they felt they had played an important role in future course design. A positive working atmosphere was created as a result, since they knew their opinions were important and respected.

Perhaps the biggest spin-off was for the instructor himself. Coming from a social sciences background, and having practised the top-down model of teaching for many years, it was literally a

revelation to work with students in the manner described above. The instructor became convinced of the necessity and appropriateness of the student-centered model, and now consults far more with students than in years past. In essence the instructor's teaching outlook has changed totally.

### **THE AUTHORS**

Peter Nelson, PhD, is an instructor at ChungAng University.

Yoo Yoon-hee is a PhD candidate in linguistics at ChungAng. The authors wish to thank Andrian Underhill, editor of *The Teacher Development Series* (Heinemann), for his prior review and helpful comments regarding this paper.

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# Internet Use in College English Classrooms

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**SHIN GYONGGU AND PARK JIHYON**

*Chonnam National University*

This study is divided into two parts: a theoretical overview of Internet use and a personal account of homepage application in college English classes at Chonnam National University. In the past, Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) was a relevant topic mostly to those with a particular interest in that area. Recently, the use of computers has become so widespread in schools and homes that many language teachers have begun to think about the implications of computers for language learning. The advent of the Internet, and especially the World Wide Web, is currently more significant in language classes than in all other areas of CALL put together. In this paper, we will provide a general overview of the Internet with an emphasis on its appropriate place in the College English class, focusing on: (a) why we need the help of the Internet, (b) how the Internet could be utilized in the College English class, and (c) the conditions of successful use of the Internet. Finally, we will show an example of the Internet application at Chonnam National University.

## CALL IN GENERAL

**W**e would like to begin our talk with a brief overview of CALL, because the Internet is still considered a subarea of CALL.

The first phase of CALL was based on the behaviorist theories of learning of the 1950s through to the 70s. Programs of this behaviorist phase entailed repetitive language drills and can be referred to as "drill and practice". Drill and practice courseware is based on the model of the computer as tutor. In the late 1970s and early 1980s, behavioristic CALL was undermined by two important factors. First, behavioristic approaches to language learning had been rejected on both theoretical and pedagogical levels. Secondly, the introduction of the microcomputer allowed a whole new range of possibilities. The stage was set for a new phase of CALL.

The second phase of CALL was based on the communicative approach to teaching which became prominent in the 1970s and 80s. Proponents of this approach felt that the drill and practice programs of the previous decade did not allow enough authentic communication to be of much value. One of the main advocates of this new approach was John Underwood, who in 1984 proposed a series of "Premises for communicative CALL." Several types of CALL programs were developed and used during this phase.

The third phase of CALL, integrative approaches to CALL, is based on important technological developments of the last decade, such as multimedia computers and the Internet. Multimedia technology allows a variety of media; text, graphics, sound, animation, and video to be accessed on a single machine. What makes multimedia even more powerful is hypermedia. The multimedia resources are all linked together so that learners can navigate their own path simply by pointing and clicking a mouse, especially on the World Wide Web.

## **THE POTENTIAL OF THE INTERNET AS A LEARNING TOOL**

Since the beginning of structuralism, we have seen several devices in language teaching: the audio-lingual laboratory, the audiovisual laboratory, and finally the CALL lab in sequence. Now the Internet has become the new solution. By comparing the different media, we want to evaluate the validity of the Internet as a tool for language teaching. Since most of the CALL programs are now issued on CD-ROM, our comparison of the Internet with CALL will be done in terms of CD-ROM titles.

### **Human interaction**

With the advent of the homepage, human interaction has drastically increased. Even without the teacher's participation, the interaction among students and other participants can be promoted. The most significant aspect of the Internet is the possibility of human to human interaction, which cannot be imitated by any other means of machine tools (Muehleisen, 1997). With the Internet, the interaction is not limited to teacher and peer interactions. It can be extended outside the classroom by requiring the student to exchange e-mail with people around the world

In writing activities, the Internet provides tools not only for one-to-one communication, but also one-to-many, allowing a teacher or a student to share a message with a small group, the whole class, a partner class, or an international discussion list of hundreds or thousands of people. These activities are possible through tools such as electronic mail, or using programs such as Listserv, MOOs (multiple-user domain object oriented), Usenet Newsgroups, and Internet Relay Chat (Belisle, 1997). E-mail messages can be sent across different kinds of networks, both locally and globally. Using e-mail in a writing class can occur in a lab, over a campus network, or across the Internet.

Computer-mediated communication is probably the most important computer application to date with the greatest impact on language teaching. For the first time, language learners can communicate directly, inexpensively, and conveniently with other learners or speakers of the target language 24 hours a day, from school, work, or home. This communication can be asynchronous through tools such as electronic mail (e-mail), which allow each participant to compose messages at their own time and pace.

In addition, language teachers can include the communicative approach to language learning through hypertext system which enables interactivity and learner control. It attracts the language teacher, because the students could be seen as engaging in a variety of meaningful communicative activities using such a system. Another aspect of their popularity is their ability to be used in Artificial Intelligence systems, in programming elements that allow for meaningful feedback in error evaluation.

### **HIGH AUTHENTICITY**

Like other EFL environments, there are some restrictions in learning English in Korea. First of all, opportunities for obtaining materials used in the target language environment are limited. Nowadays, proficiency-oriented language education is being emphasized, so we have to provide various materials for the learners. However it is not so easy to acquire various materials adapted to a learner's needs and level. Secondly, learners need to make meaningful and creative use of language from an early stage. Communication with people around the world is an exciting experience and can be a good motivator. Students of English as a foreign language often do not have opportunities to interact with native speakers of English or people who speak other languages. Recently, there are lots of students who travel abroad in order to experience this type of authentic communication. This can be expensive and the amount of time available is limited. However, by using the Internet in language

learning, we can solve the problems mentioned above. The main benefit of using the Internet is that it enables people in a wide variety of locations to interact in a way, which would not be otherwise possible. The Internet provides a great deal of resources and opportunities to interact with native speakers or people who speak different languages.

### **Anchored instruction**

Most of the CALL programs failed to satisfy the demand of EFL students, especially college students, who are intellectually mature. For example, in the Language Center of Chonnam National University, only a few out of fifty or so CD-ROM titles are run in the multimedia lab by thirty or so students out of 20,000 everyday. Most of the CALL programs are not aimed for application in a university setting. The college students are not simplistic enough to enjoy the simple interaction provided by the CALL programs. However, the Internet enables the EFL teachers with a limitless variety of instructional activities such as e-mail exchange, discussion groups, news groups, and even conversation partners through the Internet phone, in addition to the authentic materials mentioned above.

### **Low expenses**

Most language centers are not eager to buy CALL programs, because the programs are expensive, and furthermore only a single program can be used by one user at any one time. There is a certain program of more than 10 CD's which costs more than a thousand dollars, but only one key disk is available for one user at a time. In many cases, CD-ROM programs are not cost-effective, while it costs little or nothing to produce a homepage, depending on the contents.

As an example of material production costs, a 60 minute CD-ROM title may cost up to 20,000 dollars to develop while a 600 page textbook or a 2 hour video may each cost 10,000 dollars.

### **Easy to manage**

Replacing a lost or damaged CD-ROM disk is not easy, because copyright laws are involved. Managers are reluctant to lend the CDs to the students. The materials on the Internet are safe from damage or loss.

### **Easy selection from a wide range of choices**

The ease of production has made it possible for many lay people, as well as professionals to produce homepages of interest. This, in turn, has produced a limitless list of real-life, authentic teaching materials. The resources cover the four skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking in different functions of grammar or vocabulary, in the form of e-mail or discussion lists.

We can see that the Internet enjoys a clear advantage as a medium of teaching since it involves authentic materials, anchored instruction, human interaction, a variety of activities, is easily managed, low production costs, and is easily produced.

There are many other advantages for the student and the teacher in college English classes. First, by using e-mail in the writing class, students become familiar with a communication tool that is vital to their survival in the 21st century. Secondly, a teacher can interact with a student or a group of students working on a project at times convenient to the student, groups, and the teacher. Another teacher advantage of using e-mail is the possibility to electronically monitor the activities of students from the draft stage to the final version. Additionally, students themselves can use these features to organize their writing instantly either by topic or by date created, or by name of sender. This kind of

organizing helps the students focus more on the tasks of communicating and collaborating with peers and teachers. Using e-mail can also save class time for other assignments.

## **POSSIBLE INTERNET APPLICATION IN COLLEGE ENGLISH**

Using the World Wide Web, students can search millions of files from around the world within minutes in order to locate and access authentic materials, such as, newspaper and magazine articles, radio broadcasts, short videos, movie reviews, and book excerpts. Having electronic pen pals or "key pals" is a highly motivating way for students to get valuable practice in both reading and writing.<sup>1</sup>

### **Reading**

The most common use of the Internet seems to be for reading. Newspapers and television stations provide limitless authentic reading materials. Reading materials are so commonly available that we will not deal with them here.

### **Writing**

A simple e-mail exchange will greatly enhance the writing capability of students. But other forms of writing activities are possible. MOO is one step beyond e-mail, since it allows synchronous, or "real time" communication.

A MOO is a type of computer program which a number of different people can connect to via some kind of computer network, for example, the Internet. People can connect from locations around the world. There are many MOOs which have been set up for a number of different reasons. SchMOOze is one such MOO. SchMOOze University<sup>2</sup> is a small, friendly virtual college known for its hospitality and the diversity of its student population. It was established in July 1994 as a place where people studying English as a second or foreign language could practice English while sharing ideas and experiences with other learners and speakers of English. Students have opportunities for one-to-one and group conversations as well as access to language games, an on-line dictionary, USENET feed, and gopher access.

MOOs and Internet Relay Chat offer the opportunity to hold real-time "conversation" with people across the globe. Chatting in different languages can strengthen the ability to think quickly and react to the words of others; key skills in communication (Macdonald, 1995). If you can telnet, or connect to different sites on the Internet, you can log onto one of these systems and look around

There are also sites for teachers to use for intercultural classroom connections such as: <<http://www.stolaf.edu/network/iecc/index.html>>, or to match key pals at <<http://www.comenius.com/keypal/index.html>>. You can also let your students join a discussion group or ESL/EFL students' discussion list or you can let students write to their teachers and peers. Making students' homepages is also a kind of anchored instruction to improve writing.

### **Listening**

On the Internet, a great deal of resources are stored in the form of sound such as news, reports, and educational materials. The RealAudio Player program provided by a progressive network company makes it possible to get a great amount of real-time sound information in a short time.

Listening did not formerly seem possible in the Internet, but it is also widely available with the

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1. Robb (1997) recommends key pal activity for the purpose of improving writing and reading skills. It also improves the understanding of different cultures.

2. telnet: <[schmooze.hunter.cuny.edu:8888](telnet://schmooze.hunter.cuny.edu:8888)> See Davies (this issue).

advent of software such as RealAudio Player and Audio On-Demand through which we can enjoy programs of the following kind:

EFL/ESL Resources <<http://auc-ac.s.eun.eg/www/eli/list.html>>

ABC Radio <<http://abcradio.ccabc.com/main.htm>>

Real Audio <<http://www.realaudio.com/>

Talk Radio <<http://www.ncsa.uiuc.edu/radio/radio.html>>

## Speaking

Currently, network exchange is not limited to writing. It has expanded into talking: one student can talk to another at the other end of the world using a phone chatting program. The software is also available at a reasonable price. The Cool Talk program or the CU-SeeMe program make speaking and listening activities possible. You can visit the CoolTalk Phonebook, the online directory of CoolTalk users. You can look up CoolTalk users alphabetically by name. Currently this is free as a beta test version. You can find software in the following sites:

CoolTalk by Netscape: <<http://live.netscape.com>>

Freetell <<http://www.freetel.inter.net/>>

Intel's connected pc <<http://www.connectedpc.com>>

Intel even provides a videophone in addition to the free net-phone. It also has a phone directory of its own. Net2phone <<http://www.net2phone.com/>> enables any Internet user to initiate calls from a computer and transmit them over the Internet to the company's central telephone switches, which automatically relays the call to its final destination; any telephone. Vocaltec <<http://www.vocaltec.com/>> Internet phone lets you call someone on a regular telephone, and find your niche in a virtual neighborhood with the all-new Community Browser, and enjoy enhanced audio and video quality.

## KEY FACTORS FOR SUCCESS

The former hope in the effectiveness of audio laboratories, video laboratories, and CALL laboratories has not been maintained by teachers or by students. But the current hope for the Internet has a high possibility of success, but with the following constructed infrastructure:

Internet access: It is crucial both for teachers and students. Nowadays, most colleges have local area network and issue I.D.s to all students, so access itself is not a big problem. The problem is with the scope of the LAN. The LAN is mostly extended to the offices and computer rooms but not to the classrooms. Classrooms should have LAN, computer, and RGB projector.

Another crucial infrastructure is competent staff who are in charge of the management of the Internet and other technical matters. At the very least, the teaching staff should be assisted in the process of using the machines and the development of materials.

All of the above wishes can be realized with competent management. Currently most college English classes are almost independent from management. There is no quality control. The management must assist faculty who wish to incorporate technology in their courses. They should not be discouraged from the difficulty of operating machines. The faculty should also be informed about current technology. A series of classroom activities and materials should be provided for the teaching staff.

## **AN EXAMPLE OF THE INTERNET IN A COLLEGE ENGLISH CLASS**

To utilize the Internet, we need a minimum infrastructure established with hardware, software, skills, manpower and time. The following is an overview of the infrastructure, teacher workload and student activities to run a class with the help of the Internet. We began to use the Internet in the last spring semester. I hope the class will be better organized next year.

### **The Internet learning goal**

Carrier (1997) claims that the Internet does not require or provide a new or unique set of language goals or methodologies. It is simply given for the instructor to utilize just like traditional reading materials. But it is different in that the authentic materials are more attractive to the students. The students spend more time with it to study.

With the characteristics of the Internet in mind, we hope that it will raise (a) the motivation of students, (b) the quantity of reading, and (c) the quantity of writing. In addition, we assume that (a) the students will enjoy the flexibility of their reading materials, free from fixed textbooks, (b) the students will write with a realistic aim to be uploaded in their own homepages, (c) the students will become familiar with the Internet and homepage editing, and (d) the students will do more independent work outside the classroom.

### **Hardware**

To utilize the Internet, we need a minimum infrastructure established with hardware, software, skills, manpower and time. We are still in the middle of these developments. The current project is not a group project but an individual pilot project, which will hopefully be expanded.

Each university's computer center has their own Internet server. But we decided that our PC would be a web-server to save time of transferring files to the server computer in the computer center. The only hardware problem we have is that the projector is not installed in classrooms and that we must carry a notebook and a projector to classrooms. The following is the specification of the hardware for us to use the Internet in class and edit homepages at the office.

Office: Webserver computer: Pentium 133 with 2 megabyte hard drive

Classrooms: Notebook computer, High quality projector

Computer Center: Web-server, Telnet server

Students: access to the computer on and off campus

### **Software, editing and management**

All of the university's computer centers have their own server computers, software and managers. But we decided to have our own server in the office to save time transferring files from our computer to the computer in the computer center. The personal web server is limited in its function. It cannot provide a common gate interface for interaction between the instructors and the students. Though Java Server is powerful enough to deal with CGI, I am not ready to use that function yet. So for interaction with students, we use the e-mail system of the Cyber University of the Chonnam National University.

Server: MS Personal Web Server or Java Webserver

Editor: HWP, MS Word, Netscape composer, Notepad

Browser: Netscape4.03, MS Internet Explorer

## **Instructor's tasks**

The work load of the instructor is enormous and rather daunting with regard to managing the class-related homepage and other materials. We should receive and answer the e-mail from students. The homework mailed from students should be uploaded into the class home pages after appropriately editing them to fit in the existing homepages. We have to prepare test sheets to check students' reading, without which the students might not study at home. The Internet does not automatically guarantee that students will work hard any more than the audiovisual lab or the CALL lab. Only the instructor can and should personally supervise the process.

The following lists the instructor's tasks:

1. Reading materials preparation
2. Homepage editing
3. Test sheet preparation
4. Class
5. Test sheet grading
6. Homework checkup
7. Students e-mail checkup
8. Homepage editing

## **Students' tasks**

The following activities are not done at one time. Some take place at the same time, while others occur at different times. But no student showed resistance to the change they had at the beginning of the semester. Though most were afraid of having to use the Internet for their course, they accepted the challenge positively. A few students, however, did not cooperate with the process. The following are some of the major tasks of students in our college English class: homepage editing, introducing friends in their own homepages, mail-exchange with classmates or with key pals around the world, working in a study group, recommending reading materials to the instructor, downloading reading materials, and taking tests on what they read.

## **Classroom activities**

Since the students are expected to finish their reading at home, the instructor should make detailed preparations on the activities assigned to the students in class. Without preparation in advance, the course will not proceed successfully. The following are a few examples of some classroom activities.

Testing on assignments -- Review -- Q and A with instructor

Reading in class -- Writing Q items -- Q and A with peers -- Q and A with instructor

(Writing assignment) -- Peer correction -- Discussion -- Rewriting -- Submission to instructor

Classroom writing (on reading, or on fellow students or other topics) -- peer evaluation --

Discussion -- Rewriting

If we have some spare time we would let students read a short article from homepages. Pronunciation practice is also a choice to fill in the gap.

## **Achievement**

It is still too early for us to evaluate the difference of this pilot class from others. This project is still in its primitive stage. But we hope it would be further developed and become accepted by other fellow teachers. And we will present ourselves once more with more data at hand on the achievement.

The only data we can show in this presentation is the different quantity of reading of our class and other classes. The sharp rise of reading, however, cannot be considered as the clear advantage of the homepages in EFL classes. It is also possible to assign as much reading in the non-Internet classrooms as in the Internet classrooms. Still it is certain that the students are better motivated to

read more in the Internet classrooms.<sup>3</sup>

## LOOKING FORWARD

We have mostly talked about the advantages of the Internet application in college English classrooms such as flexibility, higher motivation, and others. The advantage of the Internet over traditional media is so evident that it will become the most important medium of language instruction in the near future. But before these days arrive, we need to keep in mind the following difficulties.

### Challenges

Using the Internet in a college English class was a one-man struggle to solve one problem after another with no specialist around, especially in the Humanities. But the most overwhelming problem is the limitless consumption of time in managing pages, preparing teaching materials, and interacting with students through e-mail, homework and test sheet grading.

As we already mentioned, the Internet is different from other media. It is comparatively easy to manage, low in expense, high in flexibility, and widely available. But even this new medium does not reward us without toil. This wonder of the state-of-the-art computer communications has a list of conditions for success as a medium of language teaching. The audiovisual lab often makes the teacher idle in front of the master console, because the tapes cannot generate interaction with students. This new device would not allow us to be lazy, because it is interactive. Without efficient management by the instructor, however, it will be even less useful than the audio tape. In other words, despite all these advantages of the Internet in college English classrooms, it is only a partial answer or no answer at all to the demands of students for authentic teaching materials and anchored instruction.

The last but not the least advantage of the Internet in teaching college English, according to Muehleisen, is its easy access. The language labs are installed with the specific purpose of language learning, but the Internet has multiple purposes with a much higher cost-effectiveness than language labs. Furthermore, it is becoming more and more readily available. Most computers on campus are linked to the Internet and the students do not need to have extra equipment in order to log onto the Internet.

### Current developments

The government and universities have begun to invest money in language education and computer facilities in Korea. The cost for hiring native speakers of English is already high and still increasing. The audio/video labs are also expensive and they will be more expensive as more state-of-the-art devices are added. On the other hand, we find the possibility of the Internet in language instruction, with less money and greater benefits. The advent of CALL has not given rise to as much benefit as was expected. The software programs and computer labs are too expensive to be widely available to teachers on a limited budget.

However, there are a great deal of authentic resources available on the Internet which can aid teachers and students alike. The use of the Internet in college classrooms will be an inevitable phenomenon, and the amount of information is still growing quickly. Web pages were introduced in 1993, when the number of web sites numbered 127, but the number in existence now tops 20 million pages for one search company (Zhao, 1997).

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3. Statistics of reading comprehension, and motivation will be available from our experiment at the end of this semester.



## CONCLUSION

Looking back at the Internet application in college English, we found that we did not plan meticulously enough to make the most of the potential of the Internet. We could have had our students participate more actively in the process. The students should have been encouraged to give their own input as a means of participating. The students should be encouraged, to discuss the issues in class whether in English or in Korean. More group activities should be recommended to make the class more alive. In addition, the students will learn more with their active participation. The instructor should open a discussion list for mass mailing among students and with the instructor.<sup>4</sup> The list would help students to actively participate in chatting and consequently they would have more interaction with other students. Currently the students' input is modified by the instructor. In the future the students should upload their mail or suggestions directly to the class homepage.

## THE AUTHORS

Gyonggu Shin studied at Hannam University, Chonnam National University, UT-Texas and Chonbuk National University. He received his degree in theoretical linguistics and has taught at Chonnam National University for seventeen years. While serving its Language Center for ten years, he became interested in applied linguistics.

Park Jihyon is a second year graduate student majoring in English Linguistics at Chonnam National University. She is employed as a research assistant in the Language Education Center at Chonnam National University.

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4. The list server should be bought by the computer center. Without this device, the interaction among students would be drastically reduced.



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# Alternative Role-playing Techniques in the KERP Classroom

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**STEVEN M. SIGLER AND GARY J. OCKEY**

*Kanda University*

With the growing emphasis on creating learner-centered classrooms and using communicative task based instruction, the restrictiveness of traditional role-play activities indicates a need for adaptation. This paper will propose two alternative role-play techniques. These techniques are flexible enough to allow students to select materials and communicative tasks that fit their individual interests, yet are controlled enough to provide direction and to allow the teacher to monitor progress and give feedback. In addition, these techniques aid in creating context for communicative situations not normally found in the classroom and provide opportunities to use learned knowledge in actual discourse. These techniques also help students develop schema, build vocabulary, learn about other cultures, overcome the affective filter, and research their own interests.

## INTRODUCTION

In language classrooms of today the emphasis of instruction has shifted from the form of language to the meaning of language. That is to say, students should not only study the structure of the second language, but learn to use it to communicate their thoughts, ideas, and feelings. To this end, Kanda University of International Studies is in the process of developing a classroom instructional system (KERP) that is both individualized and communicative where students take a central role in the learning process and the teacher becomes a facilitator of that learning.

The KERP classroom is individualized in the sense that individual students are given choices from a bank of written instructional materials that enable them to select those that fit their own interests and preferences. It is also communicative in the sense that all written instructional materials require the students to interact with and depend on other members of their class and the teacher to complete goal oriented tasks successfully.

The use of role-play in the development of instructional units appears to be an excellent way to incorporate these concepts into classroom activities. Based on the KERP concept, the following design principles, and Long's concept of long term role-play (1986), the authors have developed two role-play techniques for low-intermediate to advanced level students.

## DESIGN PRINCIPLES

1. Contextualization: students learn more when they are able to connect new information to information to which they have already been exposed.
2. Recursiveness: learning is enhanced through recycling of language.
3. Motivation: students learn more when they are highly motivated.
4. Language Support: Students require language support to most effectively improve their

proficiencies.

5. Role-Play: language learning is enhanced when students do not feel personally responsible for their words and actions.
6. Affective Filter: students learn best when they are not exposed to face-threatening situations.
7. Involvement: students should all be actively engaged in language practise (not just one or two students at a time).
8. Individual Differences: students learn at different paces, have different learning styles, etc.
9. Learner Choice: students learn more when they can make choices about what they study.
10. Progressive: learning takes place when information is added a "bit" at a time.
11. Awareness: learning is enhanced if students know why they are doing something.
12. Culture: language acquisition is enhanced by learning about the cultures of speakers of the language.

The first technique starts by creating extensive background knowledge for the students' role-play characters before placing them into simulated events and can be used throughout an entire semester. The second, a shorter version of the first, spends less time on creating the students' characters; it places the characters directly into connected events, and relies on schema being built from one activity to the next.

## **LONG TERM ROLE-PLAY**

The first alternative role-play technique begins with the introductory handout that provides an overview of what long term role-play is, what the students will be doing throughout the semester, suggestions on how to make the activities successful, and an explanation of its terminal objectives or goals. It is presented as an information gap activity where one student explains to a partner the overview and some of the activities they will be doing, and the other student explains some hints for success and the goals.

That is, the first student in the pair explains that they will be creating for themselves a fictional role-play character who is from an English speaking country and that during certain activities they will be assuming that character and be required to discuss their characters' personality, hometown, possessions, problems and occupation and also react to situations, questions, and events from the point of view of their "English speaking self." The student also explains that they are encouraged to follow their own inclinations and interests when creating their character.

The second student in the pair explains that to do this successfully they must do research into how people live in the country their characters come from, acquire the vocabulary they need to discuss their lives, to remember that their character is a native English speaker who thinks and speaks in English at all times, and to "play" with the English language. The student also explains the goals of long term role-play. These consist of such things as acquiring vocabulary sufficient to discuss areas of interest and cultural information, acquiring grammatical structures and speaking skills appropriate to specific situations, and increasing their confidence in using the English language.

After the introduction the students begin an in-depth three week study of a region of an English speaking country in which they are individually interested (see Appendix A). For example, if a student is interested in the United States he can choose one of eight regions to study: the Northeast, the Old South, the Southwest, the Great Lakes region, the Great Plains and Rocky Mountains region, the West, the Northwest, or Hawaii and the Pacific Islands. In a small group of three or four students who are also interested in that region the student will work through a series of communication tasks. These tasks progress from teacher assigned and controlled vocabulary development, listening, writing and communication tasks to more student controlled research assignments and culminate in a presentation where the small group teaches what they have learned about their region in a 40 minute

presentation to their classmates.

This in-depth study of a region in a country of interest is the students' first step in creating their role-play characters. In this three week unit the students acquire knowledge about the area in which their characters are from and an ability to talk about it. In the process they learn important facts, statistics, and cultural information concerning the region which increases their vocabulary and world knowledge as well as provides background they can use to create their role-play characters' personality and history. Later, this information and knowledge is reinforced and reused when the students assume their role-play characters in further discussion and must express opinions and make decisions from the viewpoint of their English speaking selves.

The next step in the student created role-play character is developing the characters' profile and personal history. It is at this stage that the students start to depend less on information supplied by the teacher and more on their own interests. They are encouraged to follow their own interests and inclinations when creating their characters' profile and allowed to create a character that is as similar or as different from their real lives as they wish. The role-play character profile is only a skeleton of the character which will be fleshed out as the course continues. It consists of the character's name, age, nationality, hometown, occupation, place of work, family, interests, goals, and a personal history (see Appendix B1). All this information is created by the student and this is where the knowledge gained in the three week regional study is first utilized. For example, a student, who was interested in the American Southwest and studied it during the three week regional unit, created a character named Emmett L. Brown. Emmett Brown was a 65 year old FBI investigator from Roswell New Mexico. His personal history stated he was 16 years old when the United States government is said to have covered up a UFO crash in Roswell and that incident changed his life. Since then he has devoted his life to UFOs, collects information on them, and dreams of proving "what happened in Roswell back in 1947." Another student, who studied the Great Lakes region, chose to be a 27 year old cellist for the Chicago Symphony Orchestra who studied music in Austria as a teenager and likes to play tennis on her days off. These initial interests were later capitalized on during the course of the role-play and used as a basis for further research into and discussion about how such a person as described in their role-play character's profile thinks and lives.

These initial interests are used as a starting point in a series of teacher generated sub-units that cover personal information such as hometowns, families, occupations, living arrangements, habits, hobbies, personal qualities, hopes and predictions, etc. Each one of these sub-units follows a pattern of language input, production, and practise (see Appendix A).

In the first stage, language input, the instructor provides vocabulary, grammatical forms, and/or phrases the students will need to discuss the topic. In the second stage, production, the students will use these tools to produce their own ideas based on their role-play characters' profile and background. In the final stage of practise the students will assume their role-play characters and use their ideas in discussions with their fellow classmates. In addition, throughout each sub-unit the teacher circulates around the room taking note of common errors and problems. These errors are reviewed and corrected in error correction sessions at the end of each class or at the beginning of the next class period.

For example, a sub-unit revolving around hopes and predictions begins with the students going over a list of phrases used to introduce hopes or predictions (see Appendix C1). They then watch a video featuring three native English speakers who are discussing their hopes and predictions for one year, five years, and thirty years. During the first listening the students listen for specific hopes and predictions. And during the second listening they listen for the language used to introduce each hope or prediction. After they have finished listening they compare their answers to see if they were the same or different and listen a final time to confirm their answers.

In the next stage, production, students review grammatical forms used to express future tenses

and, in pairs, help each other produce sentences describing their role-play characters' hopes and predications (see Appendix C2). The long term role-play allows the students to have hopes and predications they would not normally have had. For instance, the cellist from Chicago would perform in all the famous concert halls of the world by the year 2000, a baker from Indianapolis would spread her bakery-chain around the world before she was sixty-five, and a ping-pong player from Las Vegas would be world champion within five years.

In the final stage of practise, the students interview three of their classmates (in role-play character) about their futures and take notes (see Appendix C3). They are then required to relay this information to a fourth student. The repetition of interviews and the relaying of information requires the students to recycle information, vocabulary, grammatical forms and phrases aiding in the language acquisition process.

It is in the teacher constructed and student created simulations that students use the information and skills they developed in the character development stage in actual discourse to achieve desired outcomes. These simulations can be original or come from popular simulations which have been modified to accommodate the students' long term role-play characters. In addition, each simulation has a linguistic and/or functional objective built into it such as a making future plans, discussing past events, arguing a position or giving advice (see Appendix A).

As in the character development sub-units each teacher-constructed simulation follows a pattern of input, production, and practise which includes error correction and feedback with the added requirement that a decision must be made, an offer rejected, an event related, or a point of view defended. Students reach these communicative outcomes in groups of 2 to 6 students basing all their desires, hopes, dreams, intentions and arguments on what they know of their role-play character with whom they are, by now, quite familiar and comfortable. We believe this frees the students from self-consciousness and allows them to profit fully from each simulation; be it making a date, ending a relationship, giving advice to a roommate concerning their cheating lover, or choosing whom in the group must sacrifice their life for the good of all. After each simulation there is a period of student self-reflection in the form of learning logs and teacher error correction and assessment.

In the final stage of the long term role-play the students are given a choice of settings, such as a group hiking in the mountains, a New Year's Eve party, a crowded train or plane, a house on fire, a tourist group in Paris, or a festival, and required to plan a television drama about their role-play characters in that setting. The only restriction placed on the students is that they use what they know about their role-play characters (their jobs, habits, qualities, ambitions, families, etc.) to decide what they say and do in the drama. The students are then set free in groups of four or five to plan the drama, write the dialogue, and practice and revise it. During this time the instructor monitors progress, makes suggestions, helps with dialogue, and corrects errors. The groups then show their dramas to the class at which time they are video taped. At a later date this video tape is used for group and self-assessment and feedback from the teacher.

## **CHAIN ROLE-PLAY**

The second technique, chain role-play, can be used for classes where there are time constraints that make it infeasible to implement the longer version. It is an adaptation which focuses on the Teacher Constructed Simulations phase of long term role-play (see Appendix A). While in long term role-play, students slip into and out of their role-play characters, in chain role-play, students act as their role-play characters for the entire unit. The activities that follow take about seven 90 minute class periods and have been effective with low-intermediate to advanced level students.

## **Preparing the Students**

Before beginning the role-play, the instructor explains to the students some of the benefits of doing the role-play, such as practising language which they might be embarrassed to practice as their real selves. The students are also given suggestions for how to make the role-play more successful; for example, adopt a character with a trait the student desires or one based on a famous person that the student respects. Most importantly, the students are told to always remember that what happens to the role-play character is not real and should not be taken personally.

## **Creating a Character**

To begin the role-play, the students are given a character profile sheet and asked to create a new character that they would like to personify for a number of classes (see Appendix B2). For these activities it is important that the students take roles where there is an equal number of men and women and characters are from a country where English is the first language of the majority of the population. In addition, each person randomly draws by lottery two negative character traits because students may not take on any strongly negative character traits by choice. These traits are descriptive adjectives that students do not know (e.g., stingy, abrasive, arrogant), so they can build vocabulary throughout the activities. Students then finish creating their characters and begin to learn them. Students tell the teacher the names they choose before leaving the class. They are then told that when class begins the next day, their character will be arriving in a new country (chosen by the teacher or the students).

## **Creating the Atmosphere**

In order to create a dynamic atmosphere, a teacher can change to a different role-play character as well. For example, when Gary Ockey implements this role-play, he completely changes his hair style and the way he dresses. He becomes a real klutz (forgetful, dense, and poor of sight). After the students arrive for class, he makes his entry by tripping as he enters the room. Then, he introduces himself as the new character and tells the students that he will be their supervisor during their stay in the new country.

The instructor then takes attendance using the new characters' names. Next, the characters are asked to briefly introduce themselves and explain their purposes for staying in the selected country, after which they are given a chance to mingle and get to know each other (as well as their new selves).

## **Finding a Roommate**

In the next phase of the lesson, the concept of having a roommate, as is often the case in American culture, is introduced and the advantages and disadvantages of having a roommate are discussed. The group then discusses what qualities a person would look for in a roommate and how Americans usually go about finding one. Then language that would be useful in helping find a roommate is taught. Next, the characters look for a roommate by finding out who has similar interests, hobbies, etc. The characters are required to find a same sex roommate to give them a chance to practice informal gender specific discourse (e.g., "She's hot." "He's a hunk.") The students then walk around asking about each others' characters and interests. Requiring them to talk to at least five people before they select a roommate helps to encourage interaction. After everyone chooses a roommate, they get together and become better acquainted with each other.

## **Meeting People**

The next activity is to get students to meet a member of the opposite sex in various environments. The language taught here can be contrasted to the language used in talking to a member of the same sex such as is used when talking to one's roommate. For these activities, ways of starting a conversation, politely rejecting an offer, accepting an offer, and ending a conversation are the focus. The characters are given three different conversations which can be used for meeting people of the opposite gender, one at a train station, one at an office, and one at a party. The characters then practice the conversations with their roommates. The classroom is then arranged to resemble a train station, an office, and a party, and the characters freely go from place to place meeting people. They are required to get names and telephone numbers of characters in which they are interested.

## **Arranging a Date**

After the characters have practised appropriate language, they telephone the people that they have met in the various environments and arrange dates. They arrange a date for each night of the week (e.g., what they will do, where they will go, where they will meet, what time).

## **Going on a Date**

To prepare students for the dates, the video "Atlas 3, Lesson 8" (1995) provides a good example of language which can be used to help characters learn what others believe to be important in a relationship. The characters on dates can then use this language to see if they would be compatible. Before going on a date, the characters practice using some of the language that they expect they will use on the date. An example for how to find out people's negative traits politely and how to be honest but down play one's own faults (e.g., "Well my mother says that I am a little stingy, but I think I am just interested in saving money for a possible crisis.") is also demonstrated before the dates begin. The characters then rush off for their dates. Their purpose is to find someone with whom they are compatible, so they can get married. Seven to ten minutes is usually enough time for each date with less time given for each successive date as students become more proficient at accomplishing the task. The characters are then required to record in a notebook whom they dated, what they did, how the date went, whether or not they want to meet that person again, etc.

Next, the characters tell about the date to their roommates. Then, they write down the new words they have learned from the date (especially the character adjectives that they have drawn from the lottery), and the words or phrases that they do not know how to say correctly in their notebooks. They are also told to look up at least two words in their dictionaries which they think will be useful for their next date. Based on advice from the teacher, roommates and others, they then do some linguistic planning for their next date. The students then go through this same cycle: 1) go on a date, 2) record information in notebook, 3) tell roommate about date, 4) write down new words learned on the date, 5) use dictionary, teacher, or classmates to prepare language for the next date.

Because almost all university students are interested in the topic of finding a spouse, they are strongly motivated to use the language correctly. In addition, the repetition of the activity with different classmates retains the students' interest and improves their discourse. By the seventh date, the students' ability to use the language effectively and accurately is much improved when compared to the first.

## **Getting Married**

Characters are then given a chance to choose whom to marry. After providing them with the



necessary language, characters are given a chance to pop the question directly or indirectly through their roommates. It is interesting to see that by this point in the role-play (3-4 classes), most students have completely taken on the personas of their role-play characters. Marriages usually take place between students who hardly know each other; they rarely marry friends but choose instead characters who are interesting to them. For instance, one couple who decided to get married, Romeo and Juliet, did not know each other before the role-play began, but chose to wed because as they put it, "It was destiny for us to get married." Since students generally do not feel bad about rejection because they know it is not their real selves being rejected, some active and interesting conversations take place.

### **Honeymooning**

The characters then plan their own honeymoons; they can plan to go anywhere they want for ten days. They use travel books to plan with their spouses where they want to go, how they will go, and what they will do. Next the couples prepare a short description (about 10 minutes) of their honeymoon and present it to two other couples.

### **Living with a Spouse**

This sub-unit of the role-play begins with a discussion of some of the problems of marriages and what factors make a good marriage. Couples then plan their lives together, such as how many children they have, what they do, where they live, etc. Next, the couples are placed in dyads and asked to tell about their current living situations to the other couple. Then, the couples challenge each other with marital problems fitting each couples' circumstances and ask them to solve the problem. Students generally come up with problems such as: a husband loses his job and comes home depressed and angry, a wife is tired of being a housewife and wants a job, the wife is tired of having a full time job and having to do housework as well, etc.

### **Discussing Divorce**

Finally, characters are given the choice of either continuing their marriage or getting divorced. Those who choose to stay married act as judges for those who choose to get divorced. Spouses present their grievances to the couples acting as judges who in turn decide how the assets should be divided.

### **CONCLUSION**

A number of positive things have come from these role-plays. First, students in general are tremendously enthusiastic toward coming to class and studying English. A number of students have commented that this way of studying English is the most interesting they have ever experienced. Second, some students used the role-play to overcome the affective filter. For instance, one student, who almost never spoke in class and always looked down when spoken to was outgoing and talkative when in role-play character. Third, these experiences are able to change students' views of the world. For instance, when talking about the concept of having roommates, most students claim they would not like to have one; however, after the role-play, most students report that they would like to experience living with a friend. In addition, most students, who have chosen to cross genders when becoming a new character, have reported a new understanding of what it means to be a man or a woman and in most cases have gained more respect for the other gender. Finally, and most importantly, by allowing students to create and sustain role-play characters through the role-play simulations used in class, they seem to be more comfortable, creative, and successful in developing their ability to communicate in English.

## THE AUTHORS

Steven Sigler, an instructor at Kanda University, is working in materials development and instructional design. He has taught in the US, Indonesia, and Japan.

Gary Ockey, an instructor at Kanda University, is currently involved in curriculum development and testing research. He has taught English and worked as a teacher trainer in the US, Taiwan, Thailand, and Japan.

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### APPENDIX A: OUTLINE OF LONG TERM ROLE-PLAY UNIT

#### I. Introduction

#### II. Regional Studies

1. America (8 regions)
2. Canada (10 regions)
3. England (4 regions)
4. Australia (7 regions)
5. New Zealand (2 regions)
6. etc.

#### III. Character Development

1. Profile Sheet
2. Hometown
3. Family
4. Occupation
5. Where you live and why
6. Habits, hobbies, and qualities
7. Hopes and predictions
8. etc.

#### IV. Teacher constructed simulations

1. The Party (Introductions and small talk)
2. Finding and choosing a roommate (describing people/writing a letter)
3. Socializing/meeting people (making and discussing future plans)
4. Date (discussing past events)
5. Marriage (offering, accepting, rejecting)
6. Honeymoon (making plans/discussing past events)
7. Divorce (making decisions)
8. The love triangle (giving advice)
9. The sinking ship (arguing a position)

- 10. Other possibilities
  - a. a murder mystery
  - b. lose/change business or job
  - c. family problems
  - d. the desert island
  - e. etc.
- V. Student created simulations
  - 1. A TV Drama
  - 2. etc.
- VI. Assessment and Feedback (1 or more occurs during each sub-unit)
  - 1. Self-assessment, Peer-assessment, Group assessment
  - 2. Teacher assessment/feedback

**APPENDIX B1:  
LONG TERM ROLE-PLAY PROFILE SHEET**

Task 1: Now create your own role-play character. Remember to follow your own interests in choosing the different characteristics of your English speaking self.

(real name: \_\_\_\_\_ )  
 Role-play character:  
 Name:  
 Age:  
 Nationality:  
 Hometown:  
 Occupation:  
 Family:  
 Interests:  
 Goals:  
 Personal History:

**APPENDIX B2:  
CHARACTER PROFILE: CHAIN ROLE-PLAY**

Create your new self for the next week in class.

This will give you a chance to use language that you would not normally use as your current self. This will help you understand other people better. This will give you a chance to try being different than you usually act without feeling strange.

Please follow the criteria below

1. You must be from a country where English is the first language.
2. There must be an equal number of men and women.
3. You must act like this character in class, but not take this character's experiences seriously.

Remember what this character does is him/her--NOT YOU!!!

|           |        |                         |                   |
|-----------|--------|-------------------------|-------------------|
| Name      | Gender | Age (between 18 and 35) | occupation        |
| height    | weight | country of origin       | language: English |
| education |        |                         |                   |
| likes     |        |                         |                   |

- dislikes
- hobbies
- view of the world
- character traits
  - positive (5 or more)
  - negative (3 or more)
  - chosen from lottery (2)

**APPENDIX C1:**  
**LONG TERM ROLE-PLAY: HOPES AND PREDICTIONS**

Task 1: Listen to the Video of Steve, Paul and Robin talking about their future hopes and dreams. Listen for the following phrases that introduce a specific hope or prediction.

- |                             |                              |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|
| Hopes:                      | Predictions:                 |
| - I'd like to . . .         | - I will be . . .            |
| - I hope to . . .           | - I'm planning to . . .      |
| - I want to . . .           | - I'm going to . . .         |
| - I'd still like to . . .   | - I'll probably . . .        |
| - Hopefully by . . . I will | - I will have . . .          |
| - I wouldn't mind . . .     | - I will be . . . -ing . . . |
| - I hope that I'll . . .    | - I suppose I will . . .     |

Fill in the following chart for the three teachers who were interviewed. During the first listening listen for what their hopes and/or predictions are. During the second listening listen for how they introduced each hope and prediction. Between each listening compare your answers with a classmate.

| Language used to introduce        | hopes and predictions |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| in 1 year<br>I'd like to be . . . | fluent in Japanese    |
| in 5 years                        |                       |
| in 30 years                       |                       |

**APPENDIX C2:**  
**LONG TERM ROLE-PLAY: HOPES AND PREDICATIONS**

(real name: \_\_\_\_\_ )

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Task 2: Complete the following sentences about your future. Be sure to use a phrase to introduce your hope or prediction and think about the time-frame.

- 1) Will the action occur simply in the future? (going to/will + simple verb)
- 2) Will the action be finished before another event/time in the future? (will have + past participle)
- 3) Will the action be in progress during a specific time in the future? (will be + -ing form)

1. Tonight, \_\_\_\_\_
2. On Saturday, \_\_\_\_\_
3. By this time next week, \_\_\_\_\_
4. Before Christmas vacation, \_\_\_\_\_
5. On Christmas day, \_\_\_\_\_
6. This year, \_\_\_\_\_
7. By this time next year, \_\_\_\_\_
8. In five years, \_\_\_\_\_
9. Before the year 2000, \_\_\_\_\_
10. When I'm sixty-five years old, \_\_\_\_\_

**APPENDIX C3:**  
**LONG TERM ROLE-PLAY: HOPES AND PREDICTIONS**

Task 3: Now interview three of your classmates (not your roommate.) Find out three things about their future and take notes on not only "what" and "when" but also "why" something will happen.

Interviewee #1 name: \_\_\_\_\_

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

Interviewee #2 name: \_\_\_\_\_

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

Interviewee #3 name: \_\_\_\_\_

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

Task 4: Now join your roommate and tell him or her about your classmate's future.



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# Combining Reading with Writing Instruction: Using Dialogue Journals in EFL Reading Courses

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**MINJONG SONG**

*Ewha Womans University*

This article reports my experimental study on the reading-writing relationship, which used dialogue journal writing in EFL reading courses and supports combining reading with writing instruction as its conclusion. In this article, I will introduce the study by discussing (1) the theoretical background on reading, writing, and the reading-writing relationship, (2) dialogue journals, and (3) the experiment itself. Also, finally, I will propose some ways to integrate reading with writing instruction in one class.

## **READING, WRITING, AND THE READING-WRITING RELATIONSHIP:**

### **Traditional versus New Model**

Tierney (1992) discusses that there are two viewpoints concerning reading, writing, and the reading-writing relationship: traditional and new.

According to Tierney, the traditional viewpoint on reading and that on writing are as follows: Reading is receiving, involving translation of the author's message and understanding it, while writing is producing, involving transmission of the writer's message and making it clear for others.

Therefore, the teaching of reading has continued to reflect "a transmission model of reading" (Zamel, 1992, p. 463) which assumes that ideas, which all readers can agree upon, reside in and are transmitted by a text. Accordingly, the teaching has focused on identification and retrieval of a set of ideas in a text, leading student readers to rely absolutely on the text for meaning. This aspect is most evident with comprehension questions in reading texts, which call upon students to give predetermined answers rather than interpretations of a reading.

On the other hand, the teaching of writing has put the emphasis on products. Students have written on teacher-given topics and, in response, their teacher has focused on vocabulary, sentence structure, grammar, and mechanics. Also, writing itself has almost always been used with an evaluative purpose, which in turn caused high writing apprehension in student writers.

Concerning the reading-writing relationship from the traditional viewpoint, reading has been recognized as having an influence on writing, since reading provides ideas to write about and a model to internalize for writers. However, writing has not been recognized as having an influence on reading. Accordingly, reading and writing have been taught in separate classes. Following those viewpoints and teaching practices which were dominant in American language educational contexts in the 1970s, teachers at Korean colleges have until now taught English reading and writing in separate classes.

However, in the 1990s, scholars (Stotsky, 1983; Tierney, 1992; Tierney & Shanahan, 1991) claim that both reading and writing share the same generative cognitive processes as a means of thinking,

composing, problem-solving, and constructing activities, and both of them involve not only the pursuit of self-discovery but interaction among participants as communicators.

Therefore, the teaching of reading has needed to reflect the research efforts of some scholars (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1987; Clarke & Silberstein, 1987; Langer, 1990; Marshall, 1987; Rigg, 1991) that reading is an interaction between the language on pages and the purposes, expectations, and prior knowledge of readers. Accordingly, the teaching can adopt reading activities (pre-reading, during-reading, and post-reading activities) as a way of classroom practice, which may promote student readers' background knowledge, reading skills and strategies, and applying knowledge from the given reading content. Gross (1991) examined how traditional methods of teaching literature were replaced by more interactive approaches to text at one traditional school, with two teachers and four English classes of intermediate-level eighth and ninth grade students over one quarter of a school year. He found that student grades increased remarkably with the replacement.

Also, a new paradigm has influenced the teaching of writing, and its advocates (Hairston, 1982; Marshall, 1987; Raimes, 1985, 1991; Zamel, 1987) maintain that writing is a recursive process, involving learning and developing, and that content and need to communicate determine form. Accordingly, the teaching of writing in this process-centered mode encourages students to create meaning by self-generated topics and free writing, to draft and redraft, and to write for themselves and others with purpose, and it also allows teachers to intervene in their students' writing process and to eliminate grades. Consequently, students' writing apprehension can be decreased in this mode of teaching writing. Faigley, Daly, and Witte (1981) discuss that, compared with their highly anxious counterparts, low-apprehensive writers produce essays significantly longer and syntactically more mature by developing their ideas better and putting more information into each communicative unit. Therefore, it is inferred that the writing quality of low-apprehensive writers may be higher than that of their highly apprehensive counterparts.

Concerning the reading-writing relationship from the new viewpoint, some scholars (Goodman, 1991; Tierney & Shanahan, 1991; Zamel, 1992) have argued that reading and writing are best taught together, for, since reading leads to better writing performance and writing brings about improved reading comprehension, combined instruction results in advancements in both of them.

I have already mentioned how reading affects writing. Then, let me briefly discuss how writing affects reading. Writing helps learners to understand why and how texts are written by requiring them to decide on writing purpose, sequence, and language, and to apply this understanding to reading when they read. Furthermore, writing promotes critical reading. According to some scholars (Elbow, 1991; Tashlik, 1987; Tierney & Shanahan, 1991), students who write prior to reading can bring their own experience, knowledge, and cultural background into play when exploring probable issues in a given text, and therefore, they can approach the text with a sense of their own purpose and a view to negotiating meaning that goes beyond acquiescing to it. Also, according to Zamel (1992), students who write during and/or after reading can understand that reading changes as they bring new responses to it. In other words, they come to realize that reading is a constructive act, open to revision. In this way, reading and writing can be complementary acts, and therefore, should be taught together.

So, as my doctoral dissertation project, for investigating the new reading-writing relationship, I used dialogue journals as a focus in the reading class at a Korean college. I expected that the project might suggest one way to advance the literacy of Korean EFL college students. Now, let me introduce dialogue journals, one writing mode that I adopted for the project.

## **DIALOGUE JOURNALS: THEORY AND RESEARCH FINDINGS**

Dialogue journals are informal writings exchanged between a teacher and students on a regular basis over one semester or one academic year. Students can choose their own topics, and their writing



purpose is functional. They are required to write in their journals a minimum of three sentences each time but, beyond that, they are free to decide what to write, when to write, and how much to write. The teacher responds solely to meaning, not correcting errors and not individually grading the journals. Also, the writing mode can provide students with an opportunity for individual tutorial relationship with their teacher (Staton, 1987). These aspects of dialogue journal writing reflect the process approach to writing. Also, content-focused dialogue journal writing is well congruent with the interactive approach to reading since, prior to reading, students can write their expectation of the content and their purpose for reading, and during and/or after reading, they can write their response to the content and then revise it. Therefore, the journals are likely to offer several ways to develop students' communicative ability--writing proficiency, reading comprehension achievement, and writing attitude, and this aspect has been empirically supported in both first and second language studies.

First, writing dialogue journals appears to develop students' writing proficiency by making them use their oral communicative competence in performing written communication (Shuy, 1988), heightening their written language competence from the teacher's language input (Staton, 1984), encouraging them to write about various topics (Staton & Peyton, 1988) and elaborate those topics (Staton, 1988), and promoting their acquisition of the written forms of second language (Peyton, 1990). Second, writing dialogue journals appears to develop students' reading comprehension achievement by heightening the skill of integrating their background knowledge with the texts through inference (Walworth, 1990); especially, when ESL students read English texts requiring knowledge of American cultural norms, writing dialogue journals can develop the students' cross-cultural understanding by making them deal with both native and target cultures (Steffensen, 1988). Third, writing dialogue journals appears to reduce students' writing apprehension (Blanton, 1987; Lucas, 1990).

Dialogue journals have been studied in the United States, mostly by qualitative methods, at several grade levels, from third grade through the post-secondary level, and with several populations, including second language learners. Accordingly, my project can be called a pioneer study by providing quantitative evidence for the value of dialogue journals and dealing with an EFL population.

## **EXPERIMENTAL STUDY: DESIGN**

For the project, I conducted an experiment on the effectiveness of dialogue journal writing with Korean college freshmen in freshman English reading courses. Students in two experimental sections wrote dialogue journals, and their progress on writing quality, reading comprehension, and writing attitude was compared with the progress on the same variables of students in two control sections who answered comprehension questions.

### **Subjects and participating teachers**

At the college where I conducted this study, students have been enrolled in freshman English as intact groups by students' choice of major. For the study, I assigned pharmacy major and law major to the experimental group, and education major and pre-medicine major to the control group, to balance their interest level in English and their academic proficiency level. The number of initial subjects were 207. The two teachers who participated in my study, with similar academic background and teaching experience in reading, taught the one-semester course, each teaching one section each of experimental and control sections.

## Procedure

Experimental group students wrote their journal entries on the six reading chapters: They wrote about the reading content with self-generated topics before they began to learn or during the learning process or after they learned each given chapter. Those entries were communicatively responded to by me. For response, I focused on the students' personal meaning and content, with no grading and no error correction. On the other hand, control group students wrote brief answers to comprehension questions on the same six chapters: They answered before they began to learn each given chapter. Those answers were graded, and the errors on the predetermined content and formal linguistic features were corrected. These procedures continued throughout one semester. Here, I would like to mention that, while writing content-focused dialogue journals reflects new approaches to reading and writing, answering comprehension questions represents a traditional approach to reading.

## Tests

To know the effect of each treatment (writing dialogue journals or answering comprehension questions) on the three variables, I administered to all the subjects pretest and post-test, before and after treatment, with two essay writing tasks, two comprehension subtests of TOEFL, and writing apprehension tests (Daly & Miller, 1975).

## Scoring

To measure the quality of writing tasks, holistic scoring was used, and as an assessment measure, a 6-point scale was adopted. Two raters for the writing samples were carefully chosen to achieve inter-rater reliability and they were asked to read for overall impression of each writing task, valuing the communicative aspect of it. For the scoring sessions, all the writing tasks were appropriately coded and randomly mixed. The written papers were read by two raters and the two scores for each paper were added. On the papers where the two raters disagreed by more than one point, the third rater arbitrated them. The achieved inter-rater reliability was .83. The scoring of TOEFL comprehension subtests and writing apprehension tests was mechanical and objective. When the scoring of the data for 166 students was completed, whole class data were averaged for the whole class gains, and the gains were subjected to statistical analysis for significance set at  $p < .05$  through the use of ANOVA.

## Results

Table 1 indicates the mean change and p value in overall writing quality, pretest to post-test, for the two groups by treatment. In this case, the treatment effect favored the experimental group with statistically significant gain.

**TABLE 1**  
**ANALYSIS OF OVERALL WRITING QUALITY MEAN CHANGE PRETEST TO POST-TEST BY TREATMENT**

| Treatment          | Pre-test | Post-test | Change |
|--------------------|----------|-----------|--------|
| Experimental Group | 1.933    | 2.492     | +0.559 |
| Control Group      | 1.914    | 2.247     | +0.333 |
| p = .0259*         |          |           |        |

Table 2 indicates the mean change and p value in reading comprehension, pretest to post-test, for the two groups by treatment. In this case, the treatment effect favored the experimental group with statistically not significant gain. For your reference, the full mark for comprehension subtest was 30 points.

**TABLE 2**  
**ANALYSIS OF READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY MEAN CHANGE PRETEST TO POST-TEST BY TREATMENT**

| Treatment          | Pre-test | Post-test | Change |
|--------------------|----------|-----------|--------|
| Experimental Group | 16.889   | 19.322    | +2.433 |
| Control Group      | 16.829   | 18.553    | +1.724 |
| p = .3492          |          |           |        |

Table 3 indicates the mean change and p value in writing apprehension, pretest to post-test, for the two groups by treatment. In this case, the treatment effect favored the experimental group with statistically not significant gain. For your reference, the score of Writing Apprehension Test ranges from 26 to 130. Scores of 78 or below reflect "low apprehension", scores of 79 to 99 reflect "high apprehension", and scores above 100 reflect "very high apprehension" (Reigstad, 1991).

**TABLE 3**  
**ANALYSIS OF WRITING APPREHENSION MEAN CHANGE PRETEST TO POST-TEST BY TREATMENT**

| Treatment          | Pre-test | Post-test | Change |
|--------------------|----------|-----------|--------|
| Experimental Group | 81.411   | 76.567    | -4.844 |
| Control Group      | 77.605   | 76.237    | -1.368 |
| p = .1048          |          |           |        |

### Conclusion and implication

From the data analysis, I drew a conclusion that writing dialogue journals improved the students' writing quality more than answering comprehension questions, and the gain was statistically significant,  $p = .0259$ ; differences in reading comprehension improvement and writing apprehension reduction were not statistically significant ( $p = .3492, .1048$ , respectively), although the gains favored the dialogue journal writing group.

However, I found during the process of analysis that the effect of treatment was confounded by two factors, a strong teacher and a strong students' major field. And the effects of these two factors were both statistically significant, contributing to the better performance for journal writing group.

Also, there were some limits in "dialogue" for the journal entries written by experimental group students, which might cause those entries to be called "modified dialogue journals." The limits were as follows:

1. I couldn't continuously interact with the students about a topic and let them elaborate on it for some time, which is usual for dialogue journal writing. Because they wrote only one entry for each reading chapter and I also responded just once to their each entry; and
2. many students wrote their entries in a formal, literary style, which is expected in an assigned writing, not in an informal, conversational style, which is expected in dialogue journal entries.

However, with those confounding effects and limitations, I interpreted the results as supporting the use of dialogue journal writing in EFL reading courses. Let me specify this interpretation by discussing (a) the effectiveness of writing dialogue journals over answering comprehension questions, (b) dialogue journal use in the EFL setting, and (c) dialogue journal use in the reading class.

First, as supported in my study, writing dialogue journals may be more effective than traditional practice (answering comprehension questions). I have reason to believe that (a) dialogue journal writing was demonstrably better in improving students' writing quality, (b) dialogue journal writing was possibly better in improving students' reading comprehension and reducing their writing apprehension, and (c) these results were congruent with other empirical studies about dialogue journal writing. Therefore, all things being equal, writing dialogue journals would be a reasonable alternative to the traditional practice.

Second, writing dialogue journals may be a useful technique in the EFL classrooms as it has been in the classrooms with native speakers and ESL classrooms. None of the studies prior to mine dealt with EFL populations, and those prior studies with first and second language classrooms revealed some shortcomings in their research design. Furthermore, with ESL populations, gains attributed to specific classroom procedures -- dialogue journals, in this case -- are confounded by the rich second language environment that surrounds students outside of the classroom. Therefore, my preliminary EFL study can support strongly the value of dialogue journal use by providing a more controlled investigation -- control for treatment, teacher, and rater, using holistic rating and statistical analysis, coding and scoring essays in an appropriate condition, and achieving more than .80 inter-rater reliabilities on holistic scoring.

Third, writing dialogue journals may be a useful technique in the reading class as it has been in other subject classes. Therefore, it seems worth having students write dialogue journals or, at least, teaching writing in the reading class.

Now, I can say that I had a dream of advancing the literacy of Korean EFL college students and, through the promising practice of dialogue journal writing in the reading courses, that dream has partly come true.

## **WAYS OF COMBINING READING WITH WRITING INSTRUCTION**

Then, lastly, let me suggest some ways to give reading and writing instruction together in one class. As in my study, teachers can have their students write dialogue journals in the reading class. Or, instead of dialogue journals, another kind of journal like learning journals or response journals can be tried. The common features which these two journals share with dialogue journals are:

1. they are not corrected for errors but responded for meaning;
2. they are generally informal in their content, format, and language; and
3. they are not individually graded, maybe graded as a whole later.

The specific features of these two journals are:

1. for learning journals, generally peers respond briefly in the margin and a teacher may respond later, and topics include many things; and
2. for response journals, generally peers respond briefly in the margin and a teacher may respond

later as for learning journals, however, students respond only to their reading in this case.

Or, instead of implementing journal writing, teachers can teach note-taking and/or summary- and/or essay writing about the reading content in reading classes.

## THE AUTHOR

Minjong Song is currently teaching English at Ewha Womans University in Seoul, Korea. She got her PhD in English (Rhetoric and Linguistics) at Indiana University of Pennsylvania in May, 1997, specializing in TESOL methodology, and especially teaching writing to ESL/EFL students. She has taught college level conversation, reading, TOEFL preparation, and vocabulary classes at three colleges and two language institutes over the last four years. The issues she is interested in include orality versus literacy process approach to writing, and ESL/EFL materials development.

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# An ESL Teacher's Power Tools: Doing More with Less

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**RICHARD ST. JOHN**

*Yong-in Technical College*

In this age of globalized trade and commerce, it is no accident that the Quality Revolution has coincided with and dictated the terms that opened up the global marketplace. Likewise it is no secret that some of the elements of the Quality Revolution that have enabled small businesses to launch successful enterprises are filtering down to freelance educators like many of you here today. Today I would like to touch upon two of these elements for the insights they can yield into building a successful teaching enterprise -- one that works for our students.

The first method we can adopt from the Total Quality Management (TQM) approach to improving performance -- both our own and that of our students -- is the Keizen concept of continuous improvement. We teachers can achieve this by examining our own work and that of others and developing a list of "best practices" -- ones that have worked for others and can work for us. The Best Practices initiative commits us to keeping abreast of the best literature in our field and the best practitioners, writers, and workshops available to us. The Internet opens up a world of possibilities for cross-cultural communication and information exchange. Indeed, networking with colleagues who face the same types of problems that we do can lead to collaborative exchanges that can result in some very effective problem solving. Keeping open to new developments can certainly enable us to refine our list of best practices.

The second method from the TQM approach to improve the quality of what we do is Time Management. This involves not only managing our time better, but targeting the activities that produce the best results for us. This involves looking for ways to get more done with less time, less work, and less resources. Now just in case there are some administrators among you entertaining the idea that I am about to propose some new ways to cut back on already thin teaching resources, let me disavow you of that notion right now. Indeed it will take some smart budgeting to free up the funds needed to take us into the networked classroom of the next decade. But that is a whole other issue I would rather not get into at this time.

What then do I mean by doing more with less when it comes to teaching English? It involves creating learning activities with context-sensitive core vocabulary and primary grammatical concepts and then recycling these to help students achieve fluency in English.

Power tools not only save work and enable us to get more done in less time by also add precision to what we do. The most productive workers today use power tools without any reluctance. The question for us as language educators is: how can we become more productive in helping students use English more fluently? In short how can we simplify the process of getting students conversing more in English? The first task is to find out what they know about and are interested in. Once you have gotten a list of possible interests and concerns, the big task is to build some interesting activities and games that require them to interact in English about these topics. What helps the most from a linguistic point of view is to provide a small lexicon of words adequate to deal with the subjects of interest and to present a small core of sentence patterns that can be used to control most conversations. It is the latter requirement that I will deal with in this paper.

In my own experience, I have found that the students I work with seem to have learned vocabulary and grammar in isolation. They know a lot of words and can do cloze exercises in grammar, but they can not put the two together to make comprehensible sentences of their own. Too many multiple choice questions and cloze exercises have a way of making that happen. In any case, their problem is in framing questions and statements that are discernible. One solution might be to examine work done in the language sciences for insights that can be applied to this solution.

On this 40th anniversary of the publication of Noam Chomsky's seminal work *Syntactic Structures* (that thin paperback that caused such a widespread revolution in language studies in the second half of our century), we would do well to reflect on its deepest insights that have caused us to view language with fresh eyes. It has forced us to re-examine language not as a massive body of piecemeal data but as a dynamic system of interacting components that generate the sentences of language. Many researchers consider the main property of language that the Chomsky Revolution in linguistics has uncovered is that of recursiveness, the ability of a finite-state phrase-structure grammar to generate from basic constituents all the sentences of a language. In short it offered a grammar that generates infinite output by finite means. Now that's efficiency with a capital E. More specifically, whether we agree with Chomsky's ideas or not, his work has inspired a body of research that has enabled ESL teachers to present the grammar of the language in a more concise and systematic way.

In light of the amount of recursiveness that exists as a property inherent in every language and especially in English, I believe that we ESL teachers can do a better job in recycling the dominant patterns that go into the sentences we want our students to be able to produce and interpret in the conversations they have. That's why repetition and pattern practice with the basic structures are so vital to efficient language learning. Just as recycling of material plays a major role in the ecology of urban systems, so also in the ecology of systematic language learning, recycling of recursive elements should be a big part of the process. The question is where to begin.

Where do we start to study any language? We start with the basic sentences that make up any conversation. Since the shape of any sentence is determined by the predicate governing it, it makes sense that ESL students should devote more time to learning the most common verbs and getting as much mileage out of these as possible.

Frequency counts in a number of corpora of English texts (most notably, the Cambridge and Longman corpora) indicate that be, have and do are the most frequently used verbs in English. David Crystal, in his monumental *Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*, called these *primary verbs*. For the purposes of this paper, I will add to them the verbs go and get (the next most frequently used verbs in the English lexicon) and call them the *core verbs*. Once you see the mileage that can be gotten out of these verbs in working with ESL students, you will see why it's worth looking at them together. If the task is to get students using more speech, then we have to give them the means to produce more sentences. That involves giving students a set of core verbs that they can use over and over again to become functional speakers. The primary verbs are archetypal insofar as they model the whole verb system; be and have illustrate stative verbs, while do, go and get illustrate action verbs. In working with the core verbs, it is important to have students use them as full-fledged predicates first before introducing them as auxiliary verbs; using them as constituents of idioms should come last. Indeed, the core verbs, because they are so common, are naturally called upon to form idiomatic expressions more than most other verbs in the language.

I believe that more emphasis on the core verbs and earlier sequencing of them in the curriculum would constitute a strong step in moving toward a more speech-based curriculum. Psychologist Roger Brown examined the order in which the primary features of English structure were acquired by children learning the language. He found that 6 of the 14 earliest acquired grammatical structures involved the primary verbs: be do and have. Thus, we should be introducing such structures to ESL



students early as well. One thing we should note is that the grammar of speech communication is different than text-based grammar. The primary advantages to introducing the core verbs earlier in the curriculum are: (a) it would help students become more fluent in the use of the various verb tenses, especially those using be, do or have as auxiliary verbs (b) it would help students learn questions, negatives and contractions much more quickly. (c) it would help students understand and use sentence ellipses and idioms better. (d) it would make it easier for students to master the modals later on and provide a basis for understanding stress placements as they study the dynamics of dialogue.

The core verbs be, have, do and get are flexible enough to be used at any level of discussion or degree of serious reflection from informal greetings and casual banter to the most philosophical of discourses possible. Indeed, the most deeply reflective soliloquy in Shakespeare begins "To be or not to be." Likewise, one of the classics of 20th century thinking by Erich Fromm, entitled *To Be and To Have*, distinguishes cultures and lifestyles preoccupied with being (through personal qualities) from those preoccupied with having (thorough the acquisition of wealth and possessions). Similarly the French philosopher, Gabriel Marcel, has used his book *Being and Having* to clarify the existentialist view of life. The contemporary t-shirt slogan, "Just do it." provides another take on life -- the preference for action over talk. We hear of people "having it all" to mean that they have the best of both worlds -- a healthy career and a healthy family life. Likewise, we speak of busy people as constantly "being on the go." The bookstores are filled with volumes of "How to" books that remind us to "Do it now." Other "How to" items reflect peoples's preoccupation with "getting ahead" or "getting up to speed" in a new skill or "getting wealthy."

For those of you interested in the revolution going on in cognitive studies these days, you may want to use the work you do with students in sentence patterns to sharpen their >pattern recognition skills, a skill which happens to be a highly prized asset for those going into computer science and related fields.

## THE AUTHOR

Richard St. John holds an MA in English Language and Literature, specializing in linguistics. He's had more than 25 years teaching experience at St. Clair College in Windsor, Canada. He's conducted workshops in communication for teachers in both Canada and the US. He attends Chicago Linguistics Society sessions annually and is completing a textbook. This is his first experience teaching overseas, having been recruited by Yong In College.

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# Providing Free or low-Cost Internet Services for the EFL Class Via the Macintosh OS

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**JOHN THURMAN**

*Kanazawa Institute of Technology*

In recent years, the popularity of the Internet has induced many schools to use that medium of communication to help their students acquire English reading, writing and listening (using RealAudio and CuSeeMe) skills. However, some teachers may find it difficult to gain access to the Internet through a lack of funds or an unwillingness on the part of the administration. Also, what access there is available may be not to the teachers liking, causing him or her to look for alternatives.

The theme of this paper is to help those teachers provide Internet services for their students who are not satisfied with their current Internet situation or if there is a lack of funds. In this paper, the author will explain how the teacher may build his or her own Internet site using the available software that is either low in cost or free. The Internet services that will be discussed will be how free e-mail can be provided for the students, how a class-wide mailing list can be set up, how an FTP (File Transfer Protocol) site may be initiated and how a web site can be put on the teachers own computer which will then act as a server.

Although I will talk about software that will provide these services by way of the Macintosh operating system, these services are also available for computers running Windows and DOS. There is a page of bookmarks at <<http://www.bekkoame.or.jp/~nakamako/shop/soft/soft.htm>> that may be able to help you to get some software for running these Internet services via the Windows operating system as well as the UNIX operating system. Although some of the page is in Japanese, if you are familiar with the names of the software, which are in English, the site may be able to help you. Do not forget to check out the offering at <<http://www.shareware.com>> under the "Selections" link.

As for the Macintosh, I first found out about a book called *Providing Internet Services via the Mac OS* written by Carl Steadman and Jason Snell (1996) while I was trying to solve some problems with a web class I was then teaching. I found this book while I was doing a search at Amazon Book Store <<http://www.amazon.com>> looking for solutions. It has helped me quite a bit and there are detailed instructions on how some of the software is configured as well as a CD included with all the software mentioned in the book. Although this book is dated 1996 (mine was printed in April 1996), there is a site at <<http://www.freedonia.com/pism/chapt01/>> that has the complete book updated as of December 1996 complete with all the graphics as well as the links to download the software that was contained in the CD.<sup>1</sup> Much of the software needed to provide Internet services as well as newer versions of older software can be downloaded from <<http://www.shareware.com>> under the "Selections" link. There may be freeware there as well as shareware.<sup>2</sup>

Although the following paper has instructions on how to configure and run only a selection of the available software, these instructions should be used in conjunction with the manuals that accom-

1. A word of warning: the address needs to be entered to get to the site containing the book and for each change in chapter, the chapter number in the address needs to be changed. There is a button supposedly for advancing to the next chapter but the link was entered incorrectly.

2. Needless to say, the magazines, such as *MacUser* and *NetGuide*, are also a wealth of information on using your particular computer with the Internet.

pany the software. Once a file has been taken off the Internet and expanded, there is usually a file with installation instructions or a manual included. The above book as well has instructions on how to setup the software. However, there is always some small piece of information that, unless it was mentioned, may cause problems with configuring the software. Please note that this paper is not on how to teach a class using the Internet or how to use the Internet itself. There are many papers and books available that can help the teacher with running a class using the Internet. This paper is a step back chronologically in that the services have to be there in the first place for the student to take advantage of them. That is what this paper is about.

Lastly, most of the software in this paper will work with MacTCP. The Apple Internet Mail Server (AIMS) and NetPresenz require MacTCP 1.1.1 and at least System 7. The web server software mentioned, Pictorius, however, requires Open Transport 1.1, System 7.5.3, Quicktime and at least 6 megabytes of RAM. Although it is a very good piece of server software, many computers may not be able to meet the requirements so an alternative is suggested. The software below was used with System 8 with some problems, probably because I do not know too much about it yet.

## **FREE E-MAIL**

For some teachers, there may be times when students or groups of students may need to have their own e-mail access to practice writing or participate in inter-cultural exchanges. The school administration or the Internet service provider may not be able to provide that. To get around this, the teacher can apply for free e-mail at many sites on the World Wide Web. By simply following instructions on the web pages, the students can get their own individual e-mail addresses.

Most of the services are web-based. This means that to read and send e-mail messages a World Wide Web browser is needed. While this may make it easier to give access to more students, being web-based means that it will probably be very slow. If the teacher has an IBM-based computer, free e-mail that is not web-based is provided from Juno, located at <<http://www.juno.com>>. From that site, the special client software can be downloaded and the address applied for.

I myself used the service provided by HotMail available at <<http://www.hotmail.com>>. It was very easy to register and the format is not difficult to understand or read. However, to be on the safe side, do not forget to read the agreement as there may be important information. One example is that if the address is unused for 3 months or more, the registrant is automatically deleted. Other free-e-mail services can be applied for at the sites located in Appendix A. This is a list that was culled from Yahoo and can be accessed at the following address: <[http://www.yahoo.com/Business\\_and\\_Economy/Companies/Internet\\_Services/Email\\_Providers/Free\\_Email/index.html](http://www.yahoo.com/Business_and_Economy/Companies/Internet_Services/Email_Providers/Free_Email/index.html)>.

## **SETTING UP A CLASS-WIDE MAILING LIST.**

Once e-mail access has been provided, the teacher can then set up a class-wide or cross-class mailing list. Making a mailing list may be easier to operate and monitor than using just a client and can save time and give the opportunity for others to join in as it is more open. All the teacher or group would have to do is to send a message to one address and the entire class or classes can see each other progress. Also, the students get some practice in actually using a mailing list, that is, sending subscriptions and other commands to one address and messages to the list to another. This knowledge may help when students later participate in a broader mailing list.

A piece of software that sets up and handles a mailing list, called MacJordomo, is available as freeware. The latest version of this software can be downloaded from:

<<ftp://Macjbeta:Macj@leuca.med.cornell.edu/Allora/FTP/Macjbeta/>> or  
<<http://leuca.med.cornell.edu/Macjordomo>>.

Once you register, you will be added automatically to the MacJordomo mailing list that discusses using MacJordomo.

The AIMS software should also be used in conjunction with the Apple (or Eudora) Internet Mail Server. This free software that creates mail boxes to be used with MacJordomo can be found at: <<http://www.solutions.apple.com/AIMS/AppleInternetMailServer.hqx>> and a manual is located at <<http://www.freedonia.com/ism/mail/mail.html>>.

AIMS also has its own mailing list located at <[listserv@easy.com](mailto:listserv@easy.com)>. To subscribe to the mailing list put "SUB Mailshare-L (your name)" in the subject line, not the body, of the message.

Lastly, the latest version of the Eudora Internet Mail Server can be downloaded from <<http://www.eudora.com>>.

The Eudora Internet Mail Server will be taking over from the Apple Internet Mail Server as AIMS is not supported by Apple. Also, in the near future, EIMS will no longer be available freely over the Internet. Since it is a higher version of the AIMS, EIMS requires MacTCP 2.0.6 or Open Transport 1.1.2.

## CONFIGURING AIMS

I first launched AIMS and it named the server. To find the name of the server, your computer, look under the Edit menu and select Preferences. You can use the default server name for all the applications that are explained in this paper. It may be a name or a number. If it is a number, just use the number without the brackets. You can also find the name of the server in the Debug window under Server in the menu.

Next, I opened the Account Information menu item, also under Server in the menu, and added the new account so the people who want to join the list can subscribe. And a new account for the list discussion itself.

Other than adding the information to create the accounts, I did not change anything. With most of the software explained here, there were default settings which I felt did not need changing to fit my situation. The situation will probably be different for other people but the default settings were set with most people in mind. If the default settings need to be changed, please read the manuals or the above-mentioned *Providing Internet Services via the Mac OS*. Both will give you a lot of information about security.

Lastly, concerning AIMS, I was asked in the manual for MacJordomo (AIMS does not have a manual) to create an account for where the list members can send problems (supposed to have been called Casper), but as this had to be an account on a different server, I did not do this (more on that a little later). After saving the above, I then opened Macjordomo and opened New List, under Lists in the menu.

I named the list "kit-teach" and for the list address I used that name, an @ sign and the name of the server, from the Preferences menu in AIMS. The SMTP Server name was the same server also. However, for the next category, Problems To, I needed an address on a different server. Trying to put this on the same server will cause what is called "a dangerous loop" and the list will never start up (I have tried). I am lucky enough to have an account on a school server set aside for students. If getting an additional account from your school or from your Internet Service Provider (ISP) is out of the question, perhaps using one of the web-based e-mail accounts, maybe even the Juno service, will solve the problem. Inserting an address with the same server (i.e., <[Casper@202.13.161.233](mailto:Casper@202.13.161.233)>) will not work.

Lastly, I activated the list choosing Activate List from the File menu. (Macjordomo is also

activated each time it is launched.) I then sent the following message to the macjordomo address:

```
To: macjordomo@202.13.161.233
From: John Thurman <johnt@neptune.kanazawa-it.ac.jp>
Subject:
Cc:
Bcc:
X-Attachments:
```

-----  
SUBSCRIBE kit-teach John Thurman

and a few minutes later got the acknowledgement:

```
Sender: macjordomo@202.13.161.233
Reply-To: macjordomo@202.13.161.233
Mime-Version: 1.0
From: macjordomo@202.13.161.233
Precedence: Bulk
Date: Tue, 30 Sep 1997 11:47:33 +0900
To: John Thurman <johnt@neptune.kanazawa-it.ac.jp>
Subject: Your message to macjordomo@202.13.161.233
Your subscription to macjordomo@202.13.161.233 has been processed and you are
now a subscriber to kit-teach
If you need to unsubscribe to the list please send a message with "UNSUBSCRIBE
kit-teach" to macjordomo@202.13.161.233.
You can get a list of the commands and the options that this listserver accepts
by sending a message with "HELP" in the body of a message to
macjordomo@202.13.161.233.
Thank you for your interest in this list.
You might want to keep this message for future reference.
(end of confirmation message)
```

Others in the office have also signed up and there has not been a problem yet to speak of. (The list is not monitored at this time and if you would like to get into some of our discussions, please feel free to do so.)

The list messages, such as the one above can be modified to fit the particular list you plan to run.

## **FILE TRANSFER PROTOCOL (FTP)**

Using FTP can be a way to give students access to large files you may want to use in class as well as a way to make available many different kinds of documents. In teaching a computer or web class, large files, such as programs as well as templates can be made available to the students. In my case, the FTP server for my school does not allow anonymous log-ons. Therefore, the students, who were using PC machines and could not access AppleTalk, only had to enter their ID numbers and passwords to log on to the FTP server, giving them read as well as write capabilities. Soon I was finding that files I had placed on the server were missing or modified.

To run an FTP site from my computer, I chose NetPresenz, a program made by Peter Lewis. This program costs \$10 but is also capable of Gopher and WWW site development. NetPresenz is available, among many other places, at <ftp://mirrors.aol.com/pub/peterlewis/>

Before NetPresenz is started, file sharing must be started so others can log into the computer. Guests do not have to be allowed to enter, but the folder, with it's suggested name, "pub," should be made available. Making a single folder available is done by highlighting the folder, going to the File menu and choosing Sharing. However, I had trouble making only one folder available with System 8 and in consequence the entire computer was opened up to those who logged on.

Next, NetPresenz Setup should be opened to set the parameters to allow FTP access for the

students. After clicking Enabled and selecting the file access for each person, nothing else needs to be done.

Next, I opened FTP Users and typed in the default login directory, "pub". I saved this and did the following for Gopher Setup and WWW Setup, making sure I clicked Enabled for each window.

Finally, I clicked on the Summary icon and a summary of settings appeared. You will notice that the first item, "NetPresenz IS NOT RUNNING (you must fix this!)", gives you no clue as to how to fix this. All that needs to be done is to click over that box and NetPresenz itself will start running. You can now quit the setup application and log onto the newly-made FTP site using an FTP client such as Fetch or Anarchie.

With this, you should be able to connect by pushing OK, even if the client and the server are on the same computer. Please note that the host name that Fetch recognized was the same server name that was in the Preferences menu in AIMS.

The Gopher server is a server that acts just like an FTP server, but is easier to use. Even though, it has fallen out of favor recently and most of the large file transferring is being done via FTP.

## **WORLD WIDE WEB (WWW)**

Lastly, there is the World Wide Web. This versatile entity of the Internet is the major reason it has become so popular in recent years. Being able to add a picture as well as video, sound, animation and many other things onto a single page that the individual has control over has induced a proliferation of sites. For classes, perhaps setting up a site with a service that offers web server space for free may be the answer. There is a list from Yahoo of those who are offering free web (and some also offer free FTP) in Appendix B.

The free services may not be useful for the class, however, if the space is severely limited or the audience has trouble seeing your message through all the advertisements that are put at the top of the page by those running the server. For these or any other reason, the class may want to have more control over their site. Fortunately, there is some software available for turning a Macintosh into a web server.

As you noticed above, NetPresenz has web capability. I had some trouble accessing this web site so I decided to use different software. It seems to be a bit more sophisticated, but setting up the web server with this software was simple. Unfortunately, it uses a lot of RAM. Pictorius Net server is available at <<http://www.pictorius.com>>.

As in NetPresenz, the server needs to be configured. Upon opening Pictorius Net Config, you should then open Web from Configure in the menu bar.

Clicking on Add and entering the Domain Name, the same as the one in the Preferences menu in AIMS, and clicking OK, will configure the web server. The Default Page and the Error Page should be in the same folder the server application is located.

After closing the configure application, the server application should be started. The first thing to appear should be the Pictorius Net's Servers Log.

From this, you can tell if the server has been activated. Going to Netscape, and simply typing in the server name in the location (Netscape will add the "http://" on its own) should get the Pictorius Net Servers default display.

Although the page supplied by the company is displayed, creating the class page and naming the file index.html (all initial home pages should have that file name) should get the message of the students out into the world.

## **WORLD WIDE WEB PAGE DOWNLOADING**

In conducting a class, it will be useful to be able to show the students examples of web pages. However, Internet access may not be available in the room and in that case the dynamics of the web page cannot be fully shown. To solve this problem, it may be best to download a web site onto the hard drive of your computer and then, by choosing Open File from the File menu in the web browser, the site in its entirety can be shown.

A free software application that will download web sites, called Web Retriever, is available at <<http://www.intellinet.com/~rickb/>>. This application will download several layers and is only active when it is needed. Other downloading applications, such as WebWhacker or FreeLoader either cost money or become an invasive part of the browser. Web Retriever is simple to use and the manual is detailed.

## CONCLUSION

All the above applications will help the teacher in running an Internet-based class. With these applications, the teacher may be able to give the students a voice in the Internet and give them a feeling that what they say really does matter. At times it may be difficult for the teacher to provide the adequate voice for the students either because there is a lack of funds or the school administration puts road-blocks in the way of advancement. Hopefully, with the use of these services a better Internet class can be designed to meet the needs of the students.

## THE AUTHOR

John Thurman has been teaching at the Kanzawa Institute of Technology since April 1995. He has always been interested in new technologies in the EFL/ESL field, including CALL, programming in BASIC and the use of video.

## REFERENCES

Steadman, C., & Snell, J. (1996). *Providing Internet Services via the Mac OS*. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

### APPENDIX 1: FREE E-MAIL

<<http://www.emumail.net/>>

EMU Mail

<<http://www.hotmail.com/>>

Hotmail

<<http://www.juno.com>>

Juno

<<http://www.katchup.co.nz>>

Katchup-travellers can get a permanent email address and home page to catch up with mates.

<<http://www.magicia.com>>

Magicia Communications, Inc.

<<http://www.mailcity.com/>>

MailCity-free web-based e-mail, available through any Internet connection.

<<http://mailexcite.com/>>

MailExcite

<<http://netaddress.usa.net/>>

NetAddress-Lifetime e-mail addresses -- Allows you to change providers as many times as you



wish but keep the same e-mail address.  
<<http://www.rocketmail.com>>  
RocketMail-free Web-based, globally accessible email service.  
<<http://wwwusa.net>>  
USA.NET@  
<<http://www.geocities.com/SiliconValley/Vista/8015/free.html>>  
Index - Free Email Services

## **APPENDIX 2: FREE WEB SERVICES**

<<http://www.angelfire.com>>  
Angelfire Communications  
<<http://www.achiever.com/design/freehmpg.html>>  
Achievement International- offers free web pages for any worthy cause.  
<<http://www.aparker.org>>  
Aparker-provides free services including 5mb of personal webpage space, POP3 e-mail accounts, and listserv hosting to Internet users.  
<<http://thebbslist.com/>>  
BBS World  
<<http://kenionet.com/hpp/auto.html>>  
Build Your Own Personal Home Page. Fill in the form and your home page in HTML will be processed. It will be published totally free in the "Personal Home-Page" section.  
<<http://www.communityware.com/>>  
CommunityWare-free homepages, live chat, and live messaging, too.  
<<http://www.crhomes.com/>>  
CRHome Student Web; free web space to any student in the world.  
<<http://www.value.net/~esoteric/>>  
Esoteric Source Providers; A new web site providing FREE web space for authors of meta physical subjects. Contact <[sherilee@ix.netcom.com](mailto:sherilee@ix.netcom.com)> for more info  
<<http://yi.com/home>>  
Europe@Home  
<<http://www.ezpage.com/>>  
Ezpage  
<<http://www.fish.net.au/>>  
based in Sydney, Australia. fish.net.au offers \*FREE\* user home page accounts.  
<<http://www.FortuneCity.com>>  
FortuneCity  
<<http://www.unisoft.net/act.html>>  
Free for Actors; a place where actors and actresses can post their resume and head shots for FREE.  
<<http://www.freetown.com>>  
FreeTown-chat, web pages, classified ads and more.  
<<http://www.friendsworld.com>>  
Friendsworld-site for friends, to friends & by friends of the world.  
<<http://www.geocities.com>>  
Geocities  
<<http://www.hess.net>>

Hess.net-free service to link private homepages via a shorter URL.  
 <<http://www.howdyneighbor.com>>  
 HowdyNeighbor-free personal home page neighborhood. Full Ftp access to your site.  
 <<http://www.xs4all.nl/~laurens/>>  
 IDEA Digital Pistols  
 <<http://www.iloveusa.com>>  
 ILoveUSA-free virtual domain for any USA made product or business.  
 <<http://www.inca.de/>>  
 Inca-Free pages on German web server  
 <<http://www.infochase.com>>  
 InfoChase-free web pages supported by advertising to targeted markets and disk space rental.  
 <<http://www.iads.com/>>  
 Internet Avenue-offers free web site design and storage for your local Chamber of Commerce.  
 <<http://www.izad.com/>>  
 IZAD - Free Business Web Sites-enables companies to reach their market by utilizing the Internet.  
 <<http://jvm.com>>  
 Jacksonville Virtual Mall-Low-cost, high-quality web site hosting. T-3, 20 megs, secure server, html analysis, unlimited email addresses, anonymous ftp, much more.  
 <<http://www.joes.com/>>  
 Joe's CyberPost  
 <<http://kram.dynip.com>>  
 kram.dynip.com  
 <<http://204.199.172.217>>  
 Libertynet  
 <<http://main.street.net/annex/>>  
 Main Street On-Line Annex Directory  
 <<http://mls.visi.net/>>  
 mls.visi.net-free service that offers free homepages; you get a relevant url instead of some number; you get FTP access too.  
 <<http://www.nethosting.com>>  
 Nethosting-provides free web space and a directory listing to anybody in the world.  
 <<http://4free.com>>  
 Online Designs-Free commercial web page design and maintained. No per-hit charges. Free access information.  
 <<http://www.pagelist.com/>>  
 Pagelist-providing free Web pages.  
 <<http://www.paradigm-net.com/home/free.htm>>  
 Paradigm-Net Free Page-offers a free Web page for individuals and non-profit organizations.  
 <<http://phool.dhInternet.com>>  
 PHool Communications-free web pages, IRC page, music page, guitar page, and much more.  
 <<http://phrantic.com/>>  
 Phrantic.Web-offers free home pages to anyone for personal use.  
 <<http://www.trailerpark.com>>  
 Phrantics Trailerpark  
 <<http://rusnet.ml.org>>  
 Project Russia On The Internet-free web pages for Russian educational institutions.

<<http://ps.superb-e.com/PS/>>  
Public Service Free Web Space-Free web or FTP space provided for any public services.

<<http://www.spidercity.com>>  
SpiderCity-free web pages, free chat rooms, web based games and links. Also offers complete web hosting for your business or site.

<<http://www.seph.com/soi.htm>>  
State of Insanity Server Space-providing free space for any organization which advocates for diversity and freedom of speech.

<<http://tool-box.com>>  
Tool-Box

<<http://www.toptown.com/>>  
TopTown

<<http://www.torweb.com>>  
Toronto Web Services-offering free pages to Toronto residents and expatriates.

<<http://www.tripod.com/>>  
Tripod-helps you do the most with the least, giving you the information you need for building your career, your communities and your well-being.

<<http://USAonline.com/>>  
USA Online-Free Web space to artists and programmers with innovative ideas, functional, aesthetic, or both.

<<http://vancouver-webpages.com>>  
Vancouver Webpages

<<http://www.virtualgames.com/>>  
Virtual Games

<<http://www.vive.com/connect/>>  
Vive Web Connections-offers FREE space on their World Wide Web server to any non-profit organization, school or community centre.

<<http://www.wecaretoo.com>>  
WeCare-offers free web sites to non-profit organizations.

<<http://www.magicia.com>>  
Magicia Communications, Inc.

<<http://www.rocketmail.com>>  
RocketMail-free Web-based, globally accessible email service.

<<http://wwwusa.net>>  
USA.NET@



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# TOEFL 2000: Shaping the Future of Language Testing at ETS

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**JULIA TO DUTKA**

*Education Testing Service (ETS)*

TOEFL 2000 is a research and development effort under way at Educational Testing Service (ETS). It is designed to lead to a new computer-based TOEFL test which recognizes models of communicative competence. As a first step in the evolution of language testing, the TOEFL program will introduce a TOEFL computer-based test (TOEFL CBT) in selected areas of the world beginning in 1998. The primary objectives of this enhanced test are to take advantage of the new forms of assessments and improved services made possible by computer-based testing while also moving the program toward its longer-range goals, which include the development of a new assessment framework along with a research agenda that informs and supports this emerging framework.

Developing computerized tests for international language assessments leads to questions of access and equity, especially if one considers that individuals with little or no prior computer experience may be taking the test along with students who are highly familiar with this technology. Given the concern of many that the measurement of English-language proficiency may be confounded with computer familiarity, ETS and the TOEFL program have funded and conducted a two phase study of (1) EFL students' access to and familiarity with computers and (2) their performance on a set of computerized language tasks following a tutorial session especially designed for this population.

Both the presentation made at the KOTESOL 1997 Annual Conference and this paper are based upon research on examinee computer familiarity conducted by Irwin Kirsch, Joan Jamieson, Carol Taylor, and Dan Eignor.

## **TOEFL CBT: COMPUTER FAMILIARITY STUDY, PHASE I**

The major purpose of this study was to characterize the TOEFL examinee population in terms of levels of computer familiarity. Gathering this information was seen as important to support the decision of ETS and the TOEFL program to implement a computerized version of the TOEFL test in 1998.

A review of the literature revealed little agreement on how to define and measure computer familiarity. Published studies variously focused on one or two areas of familiarity -- access, attitude, use/experience, or related technologies -- in measuring this construct. A new instrument was therefore developed for this study, one that included each of the four areas previously studied. This decision seemed reasonable since there was no agreed-upon method of defining or measuring computer familiarity and since it was expected that these areas might interact with one another. For example, someone could have a negative attitude toward using a computer but still have access to one at work or at school.

An iterative process was used to generate statements and questions for inclusion in the survey questionnaire, and factor analyses were used to determine the factor structure of the instrument. A

primary goal was to maximize the reliability to distinguish among candidates with high and low levels of computer familiarity. Accordingly, a decision was made to use a single 11-item score created from the first factor of a two-factor common solution. This score had a reliability of .91. Before studying any distributions of scores on this 11-item composite, the researchers defined criteria (or cutoffs) that would be used to divide the population into three levels of computer familiarity: low, moderate, and high.

The instrument was administered to all individuals who took the TOEFL test in April, 1996 and those who took the test in China in May, 1996. (China was not included in the April administration.) The overall response rate for returning completed questionnaires was 95 percent; however, about 5 percent of the questionnaires received by ETS could not be matched with candidates test files and were therefore not included in these analyses. This decision reduced the response rate to 90 percent, or about 90,000 questionnaires.

Comparisons of the sample of examinees who returned completed questionnaires with the total sample of examinees who took the TOEFL test in 1995-96 revealed that the two groups were highly similar in a number of characteristics, including gender, reason for taking the test, native language, and test region. Thus, it was reasonable to generalize from the study to the total TOEFL population.

The results from this study indicate that, contrary to prior expectations, a large majority of TOEFL test takers have either high familiarity (50 percent) or moderate familiarity (34 percent) with computers. Only about 16 percent were classified as having low familiarity. Based on the current annual TOEFL non-institutionalized test volumes, this percentage represents about 120,000 examinees around the world.

While the data revealed small differences in computer familiarity by age, gender, and reason for taking the test (undergraduate or graduate admissions), differences were more pronounced for native language and native region. Among the language groups presented, most fit the pattern of the total group or had more computer-familiar examinees than the total. The only exception was the Japanese language group, where 28 percent of examinees were found to have low computer familiarity, compared to 16 percent for the total. Although this seems surprising, one explanation might be a relative lack of computers in Japanese schools. This explanation is supported by an international survey of computer use by Pelgram et al. (1993) cited in the introduction. The distribution by native region also showed that most regions' distributions resembled the total's, except for Africa, where 32 percent of the test takers were classified as having low computer familiarity. No African countries were included in Pelgram et al.'s survey, but this result is consistent with the findings of Jegede and Okebukola (1992).

It is important to remember that while this study is representative of TOEFL examinees, we do not know to what extent the data are representative of the foreign and national student populations in general. For example, in this study, 75 percent of the TOEFL test takers in Latin America were classified as having a high level of familiarity with computers. This does not mean that 75 percent of college-bound students in Latin America have high degrees of computer familiarity, nor does it mean that 75 percent of Latin American students in United States or Canadian colleges and universities matriculate with high levels of computer familiarity.

Moreover, it is not known from this study how computer familiarity relates to performance on computerized language test tasks. What we do know is how computer familiarity relates to performance on the paper-and-pencil TOEFL test. As these data show, a small but significant relationship does exist between computer familiarity and TOEFL test scores. The question remains as to whether or not these differences will be exacerbated in a computer-based TOEFL test. Considering that 16 percent of all TOEFL test takers in 1995-96 -- constituting almost 120,000 examinees -- were classified as having a low level of computer familiarity, some type of familiarization may well be necessary

for these individuals to acquire skills sufficient to take a TOEFL CBT without confounding their measurement of English proficiency with computer literacy. The second phase of this study measures the effect of computer familiarity on a set of computerized TOEFL tasks after administering a tutorial designed to acquaint the examinees with a computer and the skills needed to respond to the computerized tasks (Taylor, Jamieson, Eignor, and Kirsch, 1997).

## PHASE II

In the previous phase of this two phase study, a small but significant relationship was found between computer familiarity and TOEFL paper-and-pencil test scores. The major purpose of this phase of the study was to examine the relationship between level of computer familiarity and level of performance on a set of TOEFL CBT items, after administering a tutorial and controlling for ability using performance on the TOEFL paper-and-pencil test. A secondary purpose was to examine this relationship among selected subgroups (i.e., gender, reason for taking the test, number of times tested, test site location). Examining the effects of computer familiarity on CBT performance was seen as important to address the concern that the planned introduction of the TOEFL CBT may confound the measurement of TOEFL examinees' English proficiency with computer familiarity.

Before addressing the research question, it was important to determine whether the sample included a good representation and distribution of TOEFL examinee characteristics. While it was hoped that the participants in this study would be representative of those in Phase I, examinees in the Phase II sample were selected based on their computer familiarity scores. Comparisons revealed that the two groups (i.e., Phase I and Phase II examinees) were extremely similar in terms of gender, number of times tested, level of computer familiarity, TOEFL test scores, and, for computer-familiar examinees, reason for taking the test. Therefore, the findings of this study are generally applicable to the current TOEFL test-taking population as a whole.

The data also revealed that, with no adjustment for language ability, statistical and practical differences in performance exist on the three measures used in the study (i.e., TOEFL paper-and-pencil test scores, CBT scores, and computer familiarity questionnaire scores). Examinees who were familiar with computers had significantly higher TOEFL test scores and CBT scores than those who were not. It may be that TOEFL examinees with high levels of computer familiarity in general have more opportunities for language and computer instruction and use.

The correlations between TOEFL test scores (the covariate) and CBT scores (the dependent variables) were also important. For both section and total scores, TOEFL paper-and-pencil test scores shared a relatively strong relationship with CBT scores. Moreover, the pattern of CBT within-measure correlations was quite similar to the pattern of TOEFL paper-and-pencil test within-measure correlations, providing some validity evidence for the CBT items. It appears that the CBT items used in the study provide a reasonable instrument from which to study the issues of computer familiarity raised in this paper and to generalize to the planned TOEFL CBT. If the CBT items had not performed as intended, any findings of effects would be questionable.

Having addressed the comparability of the samples and instruments, the first research question was addressed (i.e., What is the relationship between level of computer familiarity and level of performance on a set of TOEFL CBT items, after administering a tutorial and controlling for ability?). After administering the tutorial and adjusting for ability as measured by TOEFL paper-and-pencil test scores, there were no practical differences between computer-unfamiliar and computer-familiar examinees on CBT listening, structure, reading, or total scores. That is, all observed differences in scores between the two familiarity groups were 20 percent or less than the total group standard deviation. (In actuality, they were all 10 percent or less.) Thus, in response to the first research question, there does not appear to be a meaningful relationship between examinees' level of

computer familiarity and level of performance on the computerized language tasks after administering a CBT tutorial and controlling for ability level.

The second research goal was to examine this relationship among selected subgroups (i.e., gender, reason for taking the test, number of times tested, and test site), and the findings were similar across subgroups. After adjusting for ability and examining 16 possible main effects and 16 possible interactions, only one difference of practical significance was found. No meaningful differences were found between male and female examinees, between examinees tested at domestic or foreign sites, or between examinees taking the TOEFL test once or more than once. Only the reading CBT showed an interaction between familiarity and reason for taking the test, and here the differences just reached practical significance (i.e., 20 percent of a standard deviation).

To further examine the possible impact of computer familiarity on TOEFL CBT performance, the TOEFL paper-and-pencil test scores of the two groups of computer familiar and unfamiliar examinees were weighted such that the groups had identical distributions on the covariate. These analyses were repeated for groups of examinees within three score ranges - those below 500, those between 500 and 549, and those at or above 550. Statistically significant differences were found which resulted in advantages of between 1.1 and 1.4 score points for the computer familiar examinees. However, none of these differences were practically significant; that is, the differences ranged between 11 and 14 percent of a standard deviation. Even though these differences were small, it seems reasonable to expect that the effect of computer familiarity will diminish over time as examinees gain experience with the tutorial and practice CBT test tasks using a computer and as the technology becomes more accessible around the world.

While the main questions of interest could be addressed in this study, there are several other questions that could not be answered. First is whether there are differences based on native language and native country. The sample size would not support the analyses needed to answer this question directly, so the issue was explored more broadly using test site location (domestic or foreign). Also, given practical constraints that precluded the use of control groups, it is not known to what extent the specially designed tutorial was necessary to eliminate or minimize performance differences due to prior level of computer familiarity. In addition, while the study sample appears to be generalizable to the current test-taking population and while there is evidence within the TOEFL program that the testing population has remained fairly stable over the past several years, it is not known how characteristics of the TOEFL examinees who will be taking the operational TOEFL CBT in the future may change. At this point, forecasting possible changes in the TOEFL test-taking population, either as a result of the introduction of computer-based testing or other international social or political events, would be speculative. Finally, it is not known what other factors such as social and economic status may impact computer familiarity and performance.

In conclusion, what is known is that, after administering the CBT tutorial and controlling for language ability as measured by TOEFL paper-and-pencil test scores, there were no meaningful differences in performance between candidates with low and high levels of computer familiarity either for the TOEFL examinee population overall or for any of the subgroups considered in this study. The study found no evidence of adverse effects that lack of prior computer familiarity might have on TOEFL CBT scores. Furthermore, it seems likely that examinee access to and experience with computers will continue to increase and thus, any small observed differences will likely diminish further over time.

This international study was conducted to address concerns about computer familiarity expressed by TOEFL program staff, members of the language teaching and testing community, and TOEFL committee members. Computer familiarity is only one of many important issues involved in moving the TOEFL test to computer. Continued research on equity issues will be needed as more experience



with CBT procedures is gained and as test items that require greater computer manipulation are developed for future generations of computer-based tests.

## THE AUTHOR

Julia To Dutka is the Executive Director of TOEFL, International Language Programs at Educational Testing Service (ETS). Born and raised in Hong Kong, she holds a doctorate in Language and Reading and two master degrees in Applied Linguistics from Columbia University. Prior to joining ETS, Dr. To Dutka was a professor at Baruch College, The City University of New York, where she had also served as Dean of the School of Education and Educational Services. Her research interests include comprehension theories, language acquisition and pedagogy, multicultural, international, and global education, and teacher education.

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# Content Based American Studies through Film

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**BARBARA WRIGHT**

*Korea University*

The presenter discusses a content based EFL university course called English through Film in which students view films on Native Americans. Since advanced students often become bored by EFL classes, the rationale for content based classes is that they allow students to use their language skills to discuss authentic materials. This course offers the opportunity for students to learn about American culture and history by viewing/discussing/reading authentic material about a minority group within the population. The Indians are seen as contributing an essential part to the language, history, and culture of the country. In the films, Native Americans demonstrate positive and negative aspects of being members of a minority and how they are maintaining their cultural identity within the United States. By the end of the semester, students gain a new understanding of United States demographics and the multicultural society.

## **PART 1: OVERVIEW**

### **Rationale**

Since advanced students often become bored by EFL classes, the rationale for a content based course is that it allows students to use their language skills to discuss authentic materials. It is hypothesized that students of a foreign language who do not know and understand the culture of the country where that language is spoken will not really become fluent in that language.

### **APPROACH**

The presenter discussed a theoretical basis for teaching English through culture and gave some practical applications and the results of previous trials. This presentation uses some specific examples from Films about Native Americans to illustrate how students can become more fluent in English through culture. The Theme Based Cultural Approach to Language Teaching assumes that students will be more motivated to learn the language and will learn it better if they know something about the culture of the country where the language is spoken.

### **TEACHING ABOUT CULTURE:**

When a teacher focuses on culture as the content for an English class, it is important to be aware that students' views of the culture of a foreign country sometimes differ markedly from reality. In one sample lesson, students were asked to list some of the adjectives which they associated with North Americans. Many of their adjectives reflected a negative connotation or misinformation about the country which students viewed as a country with no culture and a very short history. It seems likely that foreign students who see the North American culture in such an exaggerated way have little interest in learning the language. On the other hand, students who can be taught to understand North

American culture more accurately would probably see that the language, culture and people have much to offer that can be understood and accepted.

This course offered the opportunity for students to learn about American culture and history by viewing/discussing/reading authentic material about a minority group within the population. Various films were shown to illustrate one way that students can gain a better understanding of North American culture. The Native American experience serves as a metaphor for some very unique aspects of North American culture.

## **TEACHING ABOUT HISTORY**

Because many Asian countries have a very long written history, sometimes students do not have a full understanding and appreciation of the history of the North American Continent. Thus it may be necessary to refer them to historical accounts of how the New World was discovered and populated. We consulted an historical account from R. B. Gruver (1982), *An American History*.

This is a college level United States history text. In Chapter 4 the first New World settlers are described: "people had been migrating from Asia since long before the dawn of recorded history." The immigrants probably came across the Bering Strait from thirteen to thirty-five thousand years ago. Some of the civilizations which developed were among the most advanced cultures in the world at that time, according to Gruver.

During the semester students were given readings from history texts or asked to research the facts surrounding the films being viewed. They were also given maps of the geographical locations and saw pictures of the landscape in order to help them better understand the historical background.

## **CHOOSING THE APPROPRIATE CONTENT:**

In the first eight weeks of the one semester content based course, Korean university students watch and discuss three feature length, historically based films about native Americans in the Colonial Period of the United States: Pocahontas, Squanto, and The Last of the Mohicans. Through the eyes of the Native Americans in Virginia, Massachusetts and New York, the students learn about the early explorers and colonists and what part they played in the creation of the United States. The Indians are seen as contributing an essential part to the language, history, and culture of the country.

By comparing the films to actual historical accounts, the students can decide which people in the films are accurately portrayed.

In the second eight weeks, students discuss and view documentaries about modern day Native American tribes: the Navajo, Hopi, and Ojibway Indians. In the films, Native Americans explain positive and negative aspects of being a minority person and how they are maintaining their cultural identity within the United States.

## **METHOD**

Several methods were used in this course. Content based ESL is a well known method (Krashen, 1982, 1993) which can be used most appropriately with intermediate to advanced students as a motivation for them to improve their English. They are becoming able to function in English using authentic material or material with a little adaptation and do not need much translation. The Communicative Approach (Richards and Rodgers, 1986) was stressed with an emphasis on the students learning to communicate their ideas in spoken and written form. Also, small group techniques suggested by LaForge (1983) were adapted to the Asian language classroom. Students worked in groups of three to five on particular tasks such as the theme poster which they then shared with other classmates.

## **FOUR SKILLS PRACTICE**

Practice in the four skills of English is also provided. In addition to practising their listening skills by watching the films and discussing topics with the teacher and in small groups, students read selections from history textbooks and write four short papers or keep a journal in which they discuss aspects of American Culture. Each lesson involved the presentation of material in English followed by discussion among the students in English of what they thought about the information they received and how this might change their view of the people and the country where English is spoken. Also, students were asked to look for and bring in other material that would contribute to a class discussion of the country and its culture.

## **ASSESSMENT**

Although the midterm and final exams contain comprehension questions about the films, the main emphasis of the course is on communication skills and expressing ideas and opinions about the content. About 50% of the grade was determined by the students' correct use of the English language and the remaining 50% was based on the comprehension of the films and readings.

## **CONCLUSION**

By the end of the semester, students from a country in Asia can gain a new understanding of United States history, culture, demographics and what it means to live in a multicultural society.

## **PART II: HOW TO PLAN A THEME BASED FILM CLASS.**

A. First, I try to identify a theme from the culture of the country which is of interest to the students and which will help them to become involved in the lesson and understand the country better. For example, I identified some themes or characteristics inherent in the culture of America:

1. Freedom of Choice
2. Diversity
3. Need for change and adventure.

B. Survey students to find out their ideas and interests in these areas. I identified many preconceived notions about the country in question. Students wrote down some sentences about how they viewed the country and the people.

C. In deciding which themes to use as points of discussion in the class, I checked history, geography and linguistics textbooks to find independent support for my choice of these themes.

D. Next try to find a variety of multimedia materials (songs, tapes, videos, movies, pictures, art work, literature, magazines, newspapers) that could be incorporated into the lesson.

## **PART III: THE EXAMPLES**

### **A Sample Syllabus**

Course Objectives: A certain number of films and videos on the theme of American culture will be shown in class. Time permitting some of these videos may be shown: *Dances with Wolves*, *The Last of the Mohicans*, *Pocahontas*, *Little Big Man*, *The Indian in the Cupboard*, and documentaries on Native American culture. Several short readings on American History, Geography, and Anthropology may also be read so that the students may better understand the themes of the films.

Course Description: The course is designed to facilitate the students' spoken and written English communication by practice with listening to videos, discussing, reading, and writing about their themes. In addition there will be several papers assigned after class discussion about the films viewed.

### Sample Lessons

We divided each 90 to 120 minute film into four parts which could be watched and discussed during a 50 minute class. In each class approximately 20 to 30 minutes of viewing was broken up into scenes which could be replayed and discussed. The instructor wrote notes on the board and stopped the video to replay important scenes.

#### Video: Pocahontas

Notes about the video. This Disney version of the story of Pocahontas tells the fictionalized story of a real life Indian princess. However there were certain things that were not known about her since the records were kept by the Europeans and secondary sources.

We tried where we could to compare the film version with the accounts in history books. The text we used was *An American History* (Gruver, 1982). This text had been used in a California Community College course for EFL students. References to Pocahontas can be found on pages 29, 30 and 54. A picture of her can also be found in the book.

#### Video: Squanto

Notes from the video: This Disney film tells the story of Squanto, an Indian captured in the area of Cape Cod and taken to England where he was first treated badly, then escaped and was sheltered in a monastery where he learned to read and write. He is credited with teaching the colonist how to fish and plant corn and about local food which was good to eat and participating in the first Thanksgiving after his return to America. Unfortunately his entire family died of disease while he was in England. Reference to him can be found in Grover (1982) on page 35.

#### Video: Last of the Mohicans

Notes on the video: This film starring Daniel Day Lewis is based on the novel by James Fenimore Cooper. It covers the time period of the French and Indian War of 1757 which took place in northern New York State around Albany, the Hudson River, the Adirondack Mountains, Lake George, and Fort William Henry. The beautiful scenery and excellent acting add a great deal to the enjoyment of the story. The film shows how the colonists had changed from the first contact with the Indians. Now they were unsure about which side they wanted to fight on, the French or the British. The Indian tribes of Huron, Mohawk, Ottawa, and Abenaki are portrayed as being victims of the European greed to control the continent.

#### Study Questions about Pocahontas

1. How did the Europeans regard the Native Americans?
2. How did the Native Americans regard the "white men"?
3. How did their attitudes change during the story?
4. Do you think that the film portrayed the Native Americans in a positive or a negative way? Why?
5. What Indian customs did you learn about in the film?
6. Identify some themes in the film.

7. Make a list of ten vocabulary words from Native languages that you learned from the film.
8. Make up ten comprehension questions from the film.

### **Study Questions about Squanto**

1. At the beginning of the movie what do you learn about Squanto, his bride, his tribe, and his future life?
2. What activities are the British pursuing in the New World?
3. How do the sailors treat Squanto and Epanau?
4. How does Squanto manage to escape and where does he go?
5. How does the experience in the monastery change Squanto's outlook on life?
6. Do you really think that the Native Americans could talk to animals and totems? Why or why not?
7. After returning to America, what events connect the lives of the colonists and the Native Americans?
8. Why do Americans celebrate Thanksgiving? Can you describe a typical feast?

### **Study Questions about The Last of the Mohicans**

1. When and where does the story take place?
2. Which Indians are allies with the English and which with the French?
3. Who is Magua and why does he want to kill Monro and his daughters?
4. Describe the British fighting style and the Indians fighting style in America.
5. In the film, what do the colonist think about the British and the French war?
6. Monro's daughter was promised in marriage to a British officer. What happened to her and to him?
7. What did Nathaniel think about the Indians? How was he raised?
8. Do you think that the portrayal of the Indians was historically accurate? Why or why not?

### **Sample True and False Exam Questions about the Three Films: Pocahontas**

- T F 1. Pocahontas lived in what is now Virginia.
- T F 2. The English at Jamestown were looking for tobacco to take back to England.
- T F 3. The Indians thought that corn was more valuable than gold.
- T F 4. Grandmother Willow was a Shaman.
- T F 5. Pocahontas' father wanted her to marry an Indian warrior.
- T F 6. The Indians could communicate using drums.
- T F 7. Captain John Smith asked for Pocahontas' hand in marriage.
- T F 8. Smith tried to make peace between the Indians and the English.
- T F 9. Pocahontas lost her mother's necklace and did not find it again.
- T F 10. Smith was an historical person.

### **True or False: Squanto**

- T F 1. Squanto lived in what is now Virginia.
- T F 2. The English at Plymouth were looking for furs to take back to England.
- T F 3. The Indians thought the English were their friends.
- T F 4. Squanto was not married yet.
- T F 5. The sailors kidnapped Squanto and Epanau.

- T F 6. The Indians could communicate with animals like bears and hawks.
- T F 7. Squanto learned to read and ride a horse at the monastery.
- T F 8. Squanto's wife and his family were waiting for him in Massachusetts.
- T F 9. Epinau learned how to lie from the English.
- T F 10. During his stay in England, Squanto became a Christian.

### **True or False: The Last of the Mohicans**

- T F 1. Nathaniel lived in what is now New York.
- T F 2. The English at Fort William Henry were looking for Indians to take back to England.
- T F 3. The Mohicans thought the English were their friends.
- T F 4. Chingachkuk was not married yet.
- T F 5. The Hurons kidnapped Monro's daughters.
- T F 6. The Mohicans thought Magwa was their blood brother.
- T F 7. Uncas was the son of Magwa..
- T F 8. Monro's wife and his family were waiting for him in Massachusetts.
- T F 9. Magwa learned how to lie from the French.
- T F 10. At the end of the movie all the Mohicans were dead.

### **Sample Essay Exam Questions**

1. Which of the three movies was your favorite? Use examples from the film to explain your choice.
2. What have you learned about American culture and history from watching these three movies? Give examples.
3. Consider the characters of Pocahontas, Squanto, Nathaniel, Magwa, and Chingachkuk. In your opinion, which one do you think was the most realistically portrayed in the film? Which one did you like the most and why?

### **Sample Essay Answers Written by Students**

1. Which of the three movies was your favorite?

I like Pocahontas best. It is an animation movie (it's a cartoon). But it is not simple but profound. It gives us something valuable. It shows that we might have prejudice. We think the Westerner superior to the Indian. But Indian's custom and their life style are valuable in their aspects. Pocahontas shows it. John Smith tried to understand Indians and make friends with them. He respected Indian's traditional life style. European Americans insist that they found the American continent. But American Indians had already lived there so maybe American Indians found the American Continent (now the United States).

2. What have you learned about American culture and history from watching the movies?

The history of the USA is attacking other people and sweeping them. In the time of Jamestown Company the white got much help from the American Indians. If it had not been for their help the USA could not exist now. But in the time of Western development (frontier spirit?) the white killed so much Indians only to get their profit. I think the history of the USA shows injustice.

3. Consider the characters of Pocahontas, Squanto, Nathaniel, Magwa and Chingachkuk. In your opinion, which one do you think was the most realistically portrayed in the film? Which one do you like the most and why?



I think Nathaniel was the most realistically portrayed in the Last of the Mohicans. I like Magua the most. He had a very strong will. He acted tough, but I can understand him. He wanted to avenge his children's death. Because the English troops killed his family. He might have no choice.

### **Sample Journal Entries: Sample #1**

**What I Saw:** In today's class we learned about the background of the Last of the Mohicans. It is based on a novel with some real named people and real places. And the tribes called Mohawks. They were Indians who lived around New York and they were helping with war against France.

**What I Think:** I think movies about true stories especially a story about the history are very educational. You can see the event at different angle and have your own opinion about it. I think it will help you understand better specially to those with low English skill. You can not miss what you see.

### **Sample #2**

**What I Saw:** In today's class we saw an American Indian woman reciting an Indian Prayer. She called on the "great spirit" to make her strong and beautiful, to make her eyes see beauty and her ears hear wisdom. The Native Americans used stories, songs and poems to teach their children when they did not have written records. They had to memorize and recite these stories aloud.

**What I Think:** It must have been difficult to live in the old days in America without any books or television sets. People must have had other kinds of entertainment, dancing and ceremonies. Maybe the Native Americans had to work very hard to provide food for themselves so they had no time for leisure. The men had to be great warriors to defend their villages from enemies. I guess that the Indians believed in the great spirit god and other spirits of nature.

### **A Sample Theme Poster Created by Students: Pocahontas**

Our group found seven themes in Pocahontas the movie: 1) Gold; 2) Peace; 3) Culture; 4) Courage; 5) Generation Gap; 6) Greed; and 7) Religious Differences.

What do these themes mean?

#### 1. Gold

To the native Americans gold was nothing at first but gold led them to the fall of their history.

To the Europeans gold was the reason to take over the land of the Native Americans. Gold means power, richness, and social status.

#### 2. Peace

Talks between Pocahontas and Grandma Willow suggested that Peace should be of nature, not of human beings. And Captain Smith and Pocahontas wanted peace between the peoples. Peace could be achieved helping each other.

#### 3. Culture

Both viewed the other's culture in their own cultural barrier.

Europeans thought native Americans were savages because they were uncivilized (different from them).

Native Americans regarded those Europeans as demons because they used rifles, had strange styles.

#### 4. Courage

Pocahontas showed courage which saved Smith's life as well as peace between two. Her courage was extraordinary in terms of that it came from her nature different from a warrior's courage.

#### 5. Generation Gap

There was a kind of Generation Gap in the movie. Considering the actions of Pocahontas and Smith and the Chief and the Governor. And also there was a confrontation between tradition and courage.

#### 6. Greed

The governor's greed symbolized the European trend; he was addicted to power and richness.

#### 7. Religious Differences

Smith was surprised at Grandma Willow, the Spirit of Tree. The Native Americans had lived in harmony with Nature, but Europeans did not, but had conquered nature. That's why Smith did not believe in Spirits at first or in the Spiritual Mind.

### SOME INTERNET SOURCES

Some students wanted to do research to expand their knowledge of Native Americans. Because the available library resources in Korea did not have much information in English, I suggested doing an Internet search for specific information. Although this was not a necessary part of the class, students volunteered to do extra work. We were able to find several excellent web pages on the Internet concerning Native Americans.

One page written by an Indian teacher <[indy4.fdl.cc.mn.us/~isk/](http://indy4.fdl.cc.mn.us/~isk/)> is intended for other Indian teachers to help their students with information about their heritage. However, the creator of the page warns against asking her for additional help since she is a volunteer and is too busy keeping up her more than 300 links to information.

Another page <[www.ilt.columbia.edu/K12/NAHA/](http://www.ilt.columbia.edu/K12/NAHA/)> seems to be aimed at school children also and contains information about many present day Indian tribes in the United States and Canada.

### THE AUTHOR

Barbara H. Wright, an Associate Professor at Korea University, has a PhD in Sociolinguistics from the City University of New York and an MA in Linguistics from Harvard University. After receiving a BA in French and Spanish, she taught both those languages as well as English and ESL. During the past ten years, she has taught Teacher Education courses in the United States, Mexico, Japan, and Korea. She believes that the best way to learn a language is through the culture of the country where that language is spoken, so she has developed several content based EFL courses.

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# Take it from Experience: A Methods Course for Pre-service Teacher-trainees

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**SUZANNE YONESAKA**

*Hokkai Gakuen University, Sapporo, Japan*

This paper describes a Japanese university EFL teaching methods course that helps pre-service teacher-trainees make meaningful connections between pedagogy lectures and their experiences as language learners. Based on the experiential-learning cycle (Kolb, 1984), the course involves observation, analysis, and reflection at increasingly abstract levels. Trainees experience seven EFL methods as observers of a film, as students of a loop-content (Woodward, 1991) class, and as teachers. Rationale for the course, syllabus and course work using Larsen-Freeman's (1986) *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* are explained in detail, and excerpts from trainer's and trainees' reflective diaries are included. A summary of English teacher training in Japan is provided.

Ten years ago, when I was teaching English at a women's junior college in northern Japan, I was asked to observe some of my students do their practice teaching at junior high schools way out in the countryside. I was surprised because their level of English was not high; I was embarrassed because I was unaware that my school even offered a teacher-training program; I was upset that an opportunity to connect their teacher-training with their English training had been lost.

At the four-year university in Japan at which I now teach, many students hope to become junior high or high school English teachers. All of their teacher-training is done in courses outside my faculty. I again feel that an opportunity is lost because these students are not being encouraged to make any connection between their lectures in pedagogy and their own experiences as language learners.

This paper presents a teaching methods course that helps students make these connections.

## **BACKGROUND: PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHER TRAINING IN JAPAN**

In Japan, besides the national teaching colleges, most private two- and four-year colleges offer the undergraduate courses that are required for English teaching licenses. Students at two-year colleges are eligible to get junior high school credentials; students at four-year colleges are eligible for junior high or high school English teaching credentials.

Since an explanation of the required course work credits would only make sense in terms of the Japanese university system, I provide an estimate of the classroom hours required at my own university (in accordance with the Education Ministry guidelines) to complete the course work for a high school English teacher license in Table 1 (next page).

Thus, English majors wishing to get a teaching license in addition to their undergraduate degree need to take approximately 200 hours of extra classes. This is enough of a load to deter the casual "license collectors"; students are generally hard-pressed to successfully complete the course work.

During their third year, students leave college for two weeks to complete their practice teaching, often at their former junior high or high schools. Their experiences vary widely, depending primarily

on their master teacher. The process ends with a written licensing exam.

### WHY A METHODOLOGY COURSE?

Although my purpose here is not to analyze or criticize the pre-service English teacher training system, it is obvious that a single eighteen-hour lecture course in TEFL is inadequate. Gebhard and Woo (1992) note that although in-service training for Japanese teachers is very strong, Japanese educators have recognized that there are many problems in pre-service programs. These problems

**TABLE 1:**  
**SAMPLE OF COURSE REQUIREMENTS FOR A HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH TEACHER LICENSE**

| Coursework  | Hours      | Notes   |
|---|------------|---|
| Lecture courses about the English language                    | 54         | Many or most courses would normally be completed by all English majors whether or not they intend to get a teacher's license. |
| Lecture courses on English literature                         | 54         |   |
| Practical courses using English skills                        | 54         |   |
| Lecture course in comparative cultures                        | 18         |   |
| Elective courses chosen from the above                        | 180        |   |
| <b>TOTAL HOURS OF ENGLISH</b>                                 | <b>360</b> |   |
|   |            |   |
| Lecture courses in pedagogy                                   | 72         | Taken by all students getting credentials regardless of subject area.   |
| Lecture courses in ethics, psychology, etc.                   | 54         |   |
| <b>TOTAL HOURS OF GENERAL TRAINING</b>                        | <b>126</b> |   |
|   |            |   |
| Lecture course in TEFL  | 18         | Taken only by students getting English teaching credentials.  |
| Seminar courses   | 36+        |   |
| Workshops in micro-skills such as lesson-planning and testing | 36         | Often held during breaks.   |
| <b>TOTAL HOURS OF TEFL TRAINING</b>                           | <b>90</b>  |   |
|   |            |   |
| <b>TOTAL</b>  | <b>576</b> |   |
| Teaching practicum  | 2 weeks    | Occurs during students' third year.   |

include large class size and low expectations of college students, a poorly-integrated sequence of course work, and a lack of opportunity to learn about and practice institutional skills.

The situation in the rest of Asia is probably similar. For example, in China, even at universities where English teachers receive their training, courses related specifically to developing teaching skills -- methodology and practicum -- are severely limited. (Thorne & Qiang, 1996).

The lack of methodology training is aggravated by the restricted nature of Japanese students' experiences as language learners. Because English is taught in Japanese junior high and high schools mainly through grammar-translation, pre-service student-teachers find it difficult to imagine that there might be other ways to teach at the secondary level. For example, students tend to dismiss Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) as the exclusive domain of native speaker university teachers; it is simply not applicable to the situations in which they will eventually teach.

This cavalier rejection of CLT is absolutely normal and extremely dangerous. Even experienced teachers tend to avoid taking risks; how could we expect pre-service teachers to embrace unfamiliar methods? It will be no surprise when the next generation of English teachers mimics the well-established grammar-translation lessons of previous generations. The problem is not that these teachers will use grammar-translation, nor is it that they will imitate what previous teachers have done. The problem is that they will not have made a conscious choice. In fact, that they will not have even realized that there are choices to be made. The immediate purpose of offering this teaching methods course is to make pre-service trainees aware that realistic methodology choices do exist. Another goal of this course is to help students start to bridge the enormous gap between theory and the language classroom. Because they are pre-service and not in-service teachers, they have no teaching experience with which to relate theory. These students need to make a meaningful connection between their abstract pedagogy lectures and their own personal experiences as language learners. Restricted though these experiences may be, they are the most meaningful base on which to build their teacher-training. Therefore, this methodology course explores and validates students' past and present experiences as language learners.

## **A DESCRIPTION OF THE COURSE**

The course is taught in the Faculty of Humanities at a large (8,000 enrollment), private university in Sapporo, Japan. The university is well-established, conservative and quite competitive.

The course is officially a seminar for third-year students majoring in British/North American culture. Because the seminar is announced as appropriate for students interested in language teaching and learning, the students who enroll are concurrently taking the teacher-training courses taught outside the faculty. This is the third year that the course has been held, with an average of seven students, which is typical of seminars in this faculty. Like almost all university courses in Japan, the seminar meets once a week for 90 minutes, 24 times throughout the school year.

## **COURSE MATERIALS**

The textbook for this course is *Techniques and Principles in language Teaching* by Diane Larsen-Freeman. This textbook presents eight teaching methods by describing a typical lesson, by extracting key points and by inferring the underlying beliefs about language and language learning. I chose this text for its concrete presentation, its accessible and relatively nontechnical language, and its brevity.

To provide students with more support, I recommend as a supplementary text *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* by Richards, Platt, and Platt (1992), the Japanese-language version of the same book (it has also been translated into Korean), and a few other Japanese-language books on TEFL. No matter what textbook one uses, it is important to direct trainees to

valuable sources in their own language.

Video presentations of the teaching methods are essential to this class. The most appropriate video that I have found is Language Teaching Methods, produced by Larsen-Freeman in cooperation with the United States Information Agency, Washington DC. Unfortunately, it is not commercially available, although copies are circulating worldwide. I have also used a variety of commercially-available videos, although these tend to display techniques rather than methods.

## **Syllabus**

During the first semester (12 class meetings), we cover four methods (three class meetings each): Grammar-Translation, Direct method, Audio-lingual Method and Total Physical Response. During the second semester we explore Silent Way, Community language Learning, and Communicative Language Teaching, taking more time with the later.

In order to pass the course, students are required to teach a model class or write a short paper for each method. Students also do outside classroom observation and write a longer report. Finally, they are required to keep a reflective journal; at the end of every class both students and teacher write in their journal for about ten minutes.

## **THE EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING CYCLE**

Because Japanese students have little direct experience with a variety of teaching methods, this course is based on Kolb's cycle of experiential learning. The cycle can be summarized:

- Concrete experience
- Observations & Reflections
- Formation of abstract concepts and generalizations
- Testing implications of concepts in new situations

## **CONCRETE EXPERIENCE**

First, students experience each method. Students have multiple opportunities to experience, each time from a different perspective; first as observers, then as students, and finally as teachers. Because of these shifting roles, hereafter I will refer to the students as trainees and to myself as the trainer. The words student and teacher will refer to the trainees who have taken on those roles.

In the next part of the cycle, trainees observe and reflect upon the method in order to identify the underlying principles. In my opinion, this is the most difficult part of the cycle; careful observation is not automatic and it is easy to experience without attending. As in the first step, this process occurs several times for each method, and each time the trainees have a different perspective.

Finally, trainees read about, reflect upon, and discuss the method in order to form abstract concepts and generalizations.

## **COURSE STRUCTURE**

To counterbalance the abstract nature of the materials, the course is very clearly structured so that the trainees know what to expect each week. Each method is covered using the following sequence, which takes three class meetings.

### **Week One: Trainees experience the method as observers**

The trainer briefly introduces the method by relating it socially or theoretically to the previous



one in order show trainees that methods grow out of a historical contexts and needs which may be very different from the trainees' own.

The trainees then watch a video demonstration (about 20 minutes long) of the teaching method. I have given the trainees a work sheet to guide them through the structure of the lesson, and I pause several times during the lesson to give them time to jot down their observations.

Trainees next work in small groups to piece together their observations. During this process, trainees realize that each person's observations are slightly different because each person focuses on different aspects of the lesson and notices different details.

Finally, as the class consolidates the groups' observations, I write the lesson plan on the board. At this time I introduce appropriate teaching vocabulary. For example, if a trainee says "The teacher had the students say their ideas.", I write "T elicits Ss' ideas". Meanwhile, I keep an ongoing teaching vocabulary list at one end of the blackboard. The lists end up including some technical terms (e.g. affective filter, L2), but also a lot of low-level, everyday classroom language (e.g. respond, multiple-choice, read aloud). Because these words occur week after week, trainees quickly become confident using them both in discussion and in writing. This early, explicit focus on the vocabulary of teaching is essential for giving trainees the tools to participate in class.

This class ends, as all classes do, with ten minutes of reflective journal writing. The journal entries reveal the trainees' immediate reactions; already, the trainees attempt to relate the method to their own experiences:

To tell the truth, I am surprised at the video context. To my best surprise, the lesson is very active and cheerful. The teacher's pronunciation is very good. The teacher is also cheerful... I also think that I learn English in direct method in this university. (Mr. MA; After viewing a video in which a Japanese high school teacher demonstrates the direct method.)

## **Week Two: Trainees experience the method as students**

The trainer teaches a thirty-minute class using the method in question. Although I usually emulate the video as closely as possible, I sometimes introduce other aspects of the method that were not shown in the video and that might be appropriate to the trainee's teaching situation.

What to teach can pose a bit of a problem; the trainees need to be able to experience the challenge and sense of breakthrough that occurs in real learning situations, and yet still have enough leeway to attend to the method. This is not play-acting. When possible, I have constructed materials following Woodward's loop input, in which the content of a lesson reflects the process. For example, when I demonstrate the Direct Method, I use a short passage that I have prepared about Gouin and his Direct Method. Likewise, when I demonstrate the Audio Lingual Method (ALM), I prepare a short dialog in which two teachers discuss using positive reinforcement, an idea essential to ALM.

It is important to severely limit the amount of materials taught in a demonstration lesson. If too much material is introduced, the lesson can become too long or complex. The purpose is to teach a very small amount of materials very thoroughly, taking the trainees through all the steps of the lesson.

After the demonstration, the class proceeds essentially as it did the previous week. Trainees again work in small groups to piece together what happened, but since it is their second observation of the method, they are able to recognize the parts of the lesson very quickly. Some trainees also begin to use some of the teaching vocabulary that was introduced in Week One. The result is that there is enough time for trainees to have a short discussion about how they felt and about other things they noticed.

Before class ends, I ask for two volunteers to give a demonstration lesson using the method next week. During the week, I will meet several times with them. All other trainees write a paper on the method (including theory, practice, and personal reflections), which is due in two weeks.

This class ends with ten minutes of reflective journal writing by trainees and trainer.

(Audio-Lingual Method:) At the beginning of class, I was confused because I was difficulty in memorizing and following. Then, I was accustomed to repeat the dialog gradually as I practiced. Finally, I felt I was enjoyable in the class. (Ms. JACK)

(Direct Method:) This method is very interesting to me. I've never experienced this method in my school days. I think this method is very hard to do. Because there are a lot of things to prepare. ...Teaching English is very difficult without L1. (Mr. KS)

My own journal entries for this second week tend to reflect the intensity and challenge of presenting a demonstration lesson:

(Grammar-Translation:) I'm exhausted! It was really hard to "play" G-T teacher. I tended to overact and overdo it... They want to start off with a "sexier" method.

(Direct Method:) I made large word cards [but did not] have any Scotch tape at all! Finally, when I went in to do the presentation, all of the darn white board markers were bone dry... I felt like that part of the demonstration was a flop and it rattled me a little bit. But I talked to the Ss honestly about that -- told them what I had learned, or at least had been reminded of -- that you have to be 150% prepared, not 95%.

### **Week Three: Trainees experience the method as teachers**

Two trainees use the method to teach any lesson or part of a lesson from a government-approved Japanese junior or senior high school English textbook. By searching through textbooks to find a lesson that can be adapted to the method, trainees realize that certain materials lend themselves more naturally to certain methods. For example, the trainees using ALM have to find a short dialog rather than a reading passage. Trainees demonstrating Total Physical Response will have to search for a lesson that incorporates commands or directions. At the same time, the trainees start to realize that, once they begin teaching, although they will not have control over what they teach, they will have some control over how they choose to teach it.

Today I and Hideaki demonstrated the Direct Method. It took a lot of time to gather materials to use today's class. However that material used just one or two times and then I understood why we have to get ready 100% or more.... (Mr. HA)

I practiced the Audio-Lingual Method with Hiroko. At the beginning of the class I was very nervous. I practiced backward buildup drill, substitution drill, and restoration drill. In the backward buildup drill, I could not listen to where the student made mistakes. It's necessary for me to train the ability of listening. (Ms. MN)

The demonstrations, in which all trainees become intensely involved, are followed by a discussion, which is usually short because the "students" are reluctant to say anything that might be construed as criticism of the "teachers".

Next, trainees work in pairs or triads answering a few of the ten questions that the textbook poses about each method e.g. What are the goals of the teachers who use the method? What is the role of the students' native language? How does the teacher respond to student errors?

At first, it is extremely difficult for trainees to think through such abstract ideas; hence, this is another area supported by repetition and structure. By the end of the year, after having answered these

questions six or seven times, trainees are more able to grasp obvious and sometimes even subtle differences.

Finally, the class comes back together to share their responses and to discuss how to relate the method to their own language classroom experiences. For the less transparent methods, this discussion might carry over into the next class meeting.

Although only two of the trainees have been able to take the role of teacher, many of the trainees have part-time jobs as tutors at cram schools (*juku*) or at private homes. Some of them experiment with the different methods and write about the results:

I called my English teacher in high school time. I talked him about the direct method. He told me that the direct method was hard for the present high school students, because the students must study the entrance examination English.... [Today for the first time in] my *juku*, I taught in the direct method. To tell the truth, I was very tired because of many preparations for the lesson. My *juku* students enjoyed the lesson, but there was some doubt about whether it can actually be pulled off... To teach English in the Direct Method, I must study pronunciation. I felt that the direct method was hard for me. (Mr. MA)

Today we studied the total Physical Response more. And teacher taught us about the affective filter... I teach English in cram school and I have five students. Two of them can understand my grammar explain one or twice, but the others can't... the other guys need extra explaining. I think this is also the affective filter. I teach same thing but each of them have a different way to understand. (Mr. HA)

Trainees who took the part of students during the demonstration must write a short paper about the principles and techniques of the method, ending by relating the method to personal experiences such as the following:

(Total Physical Response) My friend from Canada went to aerobics club in Japan and listened to many commands the instructor said and acted them. Then he learned many Japanese words there. The aerobics club is not language class, but it is like TPR. (Mr. YF)

## **STARTING THE YEAR WITH A SPECIAL CASE: GRAMMAR-TRANSLATION**

Because Japanese junior and senior high English courses are taught almost exclusively through grammar-translation, trainees are very familiar with it. Rather than watching a video (I have never found one!), they need to articulate their experiences and put them in the framework of a methodology with its own internal logic.

In the first class, following Smith's (1996) suggestion, the trainees compose profiles of "typical" high school English classes. Trainees discover that their notions of The English class -- what happens, teacher and student roles, etc. -- are nearly identical.

I had not realized the standardization of teaching way of high school. It is important to look at Japanese education objectively, because I can find what I never realize. (Ms. JACKS)

This establishes the starting point for the class. I am also able to frame the trainees as experts in this particular method. At the same time, some differences do emerge, as I noted in my journal:

Ss were fascinated to find that they did have differences. (We all like to think our learning experiences were typical.) Some Ss were amazed to hear that others had/had not homework, etc...

Finally, the course begins by validating their experiences as language learners.

I think this method is very good. By this method, students get skills not only grammar, but reading, writing, and vocabulary. (Mr. KS)

I think that the grammar-translation method is good for teachers because it does not take so long time to prepare for classes and they manage classes easily. They have to teach English in many different classes and do a lot of things except teaching, so there is enough time to prepare for classes in a day. (Ms. YAK)

## **OUTSIDE CLASS OBSERVATION AND FINAL PAPER**

During the second semester, instead of writing papers on the methods, trainees observe a class outside this university and write their observations in a final paper.

Both native and non-native colleagues have been extremely cordial in opening up their classes for observation. I simply write up the times, dates and places, and the trainees contact the teachers themselves.

I have chosen not to give trainees a protocol because they are not analyzing for specific teaching techniques, but furthering their skills of observation, analysis, and inference. When writing up the observation, trainees generally follow the same pattern used in class and tend to answer the ten questions that we discuss at the end of each cycle.

The deeper [we] analyze her teaching, the more we can see how she uses a lot of techniques... she seemed to know these methods' merits and demerits. She must have her own method which is made by combining these methods... Most important things is to teach students by using various methods flexibly... (Mr. RATTY)

Especially, it was good for me to watch the lesson by Communicative approach because I have just studied and learned. I could watch pair work (one of the most important activity on Communicative approach) and many techniques. When I am just reading the methods in the book, I have difficulty in imaging and thinking them in my mind. I think that it is not until one reads the book and understands, and moreover one implements the method in practice that one can find good points or bad points in the method. Seeing is believing. (Ms. TM)

## **BENEFITS FOR THE TRAINER**

One purely selfish reason that I set up this course was to focus on my own development as a teacher -- something that I have not been able to make the time for. I felt from the beginning that every aspect of this course should benefit the trainer as well as the trainees. In fact, I have benefited more than I had anticipated.

First, I was able to review in depth the methodologies and theories that I had taken for granted for many years, something I might not otherwise have done. Next, this class provided me with a safe environment to try out methods that I had never used myself before. After my demonstrations in this course, I have been more willing to incorporate some of these techniques into my other EFL classes. A third benefit is a heightened awareness of my own teaching beliefs and behavior. As Dessaux-Barberio (1997) notes:

Every new TT course puts (or should put) the trainers' long-held beliefs into question. Here is where pre-service TT becomes so attractive. Having to answer (often indirectly) the question "Why do you do it like that?" to what seems to be such accepted practice keeps a trainer on their toes.

Finally, this course has provided many insights into my authentications of language teaching and learning. As a non-Japanese within the Japanese educational system, I am gently reminded how different our perspectives are of the EFL classroom.

## CONCLUSION

For pre-service trainees, methods courses can be mechanical and abstract, a syndrome of top-down, prescriptive training.

Fortunately,

the last few years have seen a waning of the methods syndrome. It is being replaced by a different view of teacher and of teachers... this approach involves teachers developing their own individual theories of teaching, exploring the nature of their own decision-making and classroom practices, and developing strategies for critical reflection and change. (Richards, 1990, p. 9)

This experiential-learning course on EFL methods provides a concrete "way in" to these larger, abstract issues. At the same time, it helps teacher-trainees make meaningful connections between their lectures in pedagogy and their own experiences as language learners. Through observation, analysis, and reflection, this course is a powerful way to explore not only methods, but the self as learner and as teacher.

## THE AUTHOR

Suzanne Yonesaka is associate professor and EFL coordinator at the Department of American, British, and Canadian Studies in the Faculty of Humanities at Hokkai Gakuen University in Sapporo, Japan. She received her MA in English (TESL) from San Francisco State University and has presented at TESOL and IATEFL. Her current interests are in teacher-training, curriculum development, and composition.

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# Internet Based Classroom Activities

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**UNJU PAK BLAPPERT**

*Kyongwon College*

Having internet and World Wide Web access can be extremely useful for language teachers and ESL/EFL students. Of course, once teachers start "internet surfing," it's very easy to become caught up in the wonders of the Internet, but as with any resource for teaching, the actual use by the teacher is more important than the resource itself. Searches on the Internet do not always lead to useful information, and just like in the library, searches on the Internet sometimes lead to informational wild goose chases. However, as users become more experienced and as more of the ever-expanding resources of the Internet are catalogued, time and effort will produce increasingly useful results.

The following report is based on the discussions held during a presentation given at the 1997 KOTESOL conference in Kyong-ju South Korea which focused on available Internet sites and demonstrated how certain sites can be used for ESL/EFL classroom activities.

**V**ocabulary: One of the most difficult things that a student of English confronts is idioms. Students are often frustrated when they try to get the meaning of certain idioms by translating word by word. However, learning culturally embedded idioms can be stimulating and enjoyable when detailed explanations are provided by teachers. For example, teachers can teach idioms through multiple choice exercises, crosswords, matching exercises, completing sentences, rewriting sentences, and so on. The two following sites for idioms can be used for intermediate/advanced adult students.

COBUILD Idiom of the Day - Each day this site automatically displays a new entry from the *Cobuild Dictionary* with definitions and examples. One example idiom is "in the soup" as in the sentence, "If you are in the soup, you are in trouble." One of the sample sentences the site provides is "She has a knack of landing herself right in the soup." This site can be found at <<http://www.Titania.Cobuild.collins.co.uk/Idiom.html>>

Dennis Oliver's Idioms - As one of many links of Dave's ESL Cafe this site also lists many idioms in alphabetical order with definitions and example dialogues. This site <<http://www.eslcafe.com/idioms/id-a.html>> has clear examples of each idiom in context so that students might use that particular idiom immediately.

## **GRAMMAR**

Interactive English Language Exercises - As a part of an ongoing pilot development program this self-testing site by the International Language Centers Group in England has five Grammar, Vocabulary, and Idioms exercises for mixed levels and vocabulary quizzes called "Flag & Countries Quiz" with five levels of difficulty. The former consists of ten fill-in-the-blanks or multiple choices and the latter is a fun way to practice the English names of countries and learn national flags by matching the name of the country with the flag. A sample question of their grammar exercise is, "I tried to call you yesterday but I \_\_\_\_\_ get through." This site is found at <<http://www.ilcgroup.com/interactive.html>>.

ESL Quiz Center - Provided by Dave Sperling written by Dennis Oliver. This site also has easy multiple choice self-testing quizzes covering many confusing grammar sections such as count/non-count nouns, if-clause, modals, prepositions, tense, agreement, word form and so on. This site will be good for homework for elementary and intermediate level students. This site can be found at <http://www.pacificnet.net/~sperling/quiz>.

## WRITING

International Pen Friends - This is a great way to make friends around the world or for ESL/EFL students to practice their language skills by getting an international pen friend. Europa Pages are offering this free service to everyone: students wishing to meet other language learners, teachers wanting to exchange ideas or anyone keen to make new contacts in other countries. This site can be used for all ages and for all levels just to get an address to correspond with someone from another part of the world while practising English. Anyone simply adds his/her entry to the list of people looking for pen friends by giving information such as, full name, sex, nationality and e-mail address or postal address and a written message. The information will appear instantly on this site. This site is supervised so that any obscene text or adult-oriented material, or any unsuitable entry will be removed. Every entry is erased from this site automatically after one month, and students may directly contact their pen friend either by e-mail or correspondence. This is a real motivation to practice English for ESL/EFL students, and not simply study about English. This site can be found at [http://www.europa-pages.co.uk/penpal\\_form.html](http://www.europa-pages.co.uk/penpal_form.html).

Dave's ESL E-mail Connection - By adding their names and e-mail addresses to this site your students can communicate with ESL/EFL students from all over the world through e-mail. Any level or age group can use this site to exchange their ideas. This site is found at <http://www.pacificnet.net/~sperling/student.html>.

ESL Discussion Center - Dave Sperling presents this discussion site for ESL students and teachers. Students can practice their English by writing about current events, food, holidays, learning English, movies and music, and ESL/EFL teachers can exchange ideas about activities, games, computer assisted language learning, employment, English for Specific Purposes, teaching - learning materials, and teaching tips. This site is found at <http://www.eslcafe.com/discussion/wwwboard4/messages/731.html>.

Create Your Own Fantasy - Any one can create one's own paperback romance by filling in the boxes at each prompt of this site. By filling in about 25 boxes and following the directions such as entering the "name of an ex-lover's mother, a noun, a number, an amusement park, or an adjective," students and teachers can have their own fantasy writing. When they finish filling in the boxes, the final product will appear on the screen. Adult students at any level can be motivated by their guided writing. This site was created by Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer Inc. and it is at [http://www.mgm.com/paperback/fantasy/fant\\_madlib\\_1\\_input.html](http://www.mgm.com/paperback/fantasy/fant_madlib_1_input.html).

Poetry - The Magnetic Poetry Kit by Dave Kapell can be useful for anyone who is interested in writing poems. This kit is available at the Internet site <http://prominence.com/java/poetry/source.html>. Students/teachers can simply rearrange some of the 300 words shown on the screen. There are suffixes, prefixes and an extensive word list. They can play online by clicking and dragging or they can print out the list of words to compose their own poem off-line. During the presentation the presenter and the group of teachers actually tried to form a group poem orally with the list of words, with each member of the group providing words or phrases to continue the unfinished poem. We had a little difficulty composing a poem orally, but it was fun to feed word by word spontaneously to make a poem. One important problem discussed during the session was the need to choose the words from the list that are appropriate to the level of the students to implement this activity in the classroom.



Otherwise, writing a poem might be a bit frustrating and time consuming.

## **SPEAKING/READING/WRITING**

ABC News - ABC.news.com provides daily news at their site with news summaries and full stories. This site can be used for improving all three language skills for high intermediate or advanced level students. During the session there were many useful ideas on how to use this updated material in EFL classes. Several audience members had already visited this site and implemented the materials in their classes. One teacher explained that they had used the summary of the news as a speaking activity, and the teacher showed only pictures and let the students come up with their own titles for each picture, or to handout the summary of each article and let the students draw pictures for each story. Another idea was using this summary of the four pieces of news as a pre-reading activity by guessing what the full story would be like or using the full story as a reading and post reading activity. This news material can also be used to teach vocabulary by filling in the blanks with the list of words provided next to or at the bottom of the material. It can also be used as a writing activity for the high level students to write an essay after reading the whole article. This site is found at <<http://www.abcnews.com.html>>.

## **STYLE**

Common Errors in English - EFL students are often confused in using certain words, especially homonyms. Paul Brians, a Professor at Washington State University explains common errors with an explanation of differences in meaning and usage. For example, when we discussed the differences between the words imply and infer, some of the teachers knew the difference quite clearly, but most said the two words were almost the same. Professor Brian provides an explanation and an example as in the following:

These two words, which originally had quite distinct meanings, have become so blended together that most people no longer distinguish between them. If you want to avoid irritating the rest of us, use "imply" when something is being suggested without being explicitly stated and "infer" when someone is trying to arrive at a conclusion based on evidence. "Imply" is most assertive, active: I imply that you need to revise your paper, and, based on my hint, you infer that I did not think highly of your first draft.

This site can be useful for the high level adult students to refine their English. This site is at <<http://www.wsu.edu:8080/~brians/errors/errors.html>>.

Commonly Made Suggestions - Paul Brians also has this supplementary page to answer queries on common errors and to receive suggestions from teachers from all over the world. For example, someone asked, "You should say 'Write to me' rather than 'Write me?'" What Professor Brians suggests is that "This is just a matter of style, not correctness. In informal writing such as I use on this site, 'write me' will do just fine." This site is at <<http://www.wsu.edu.8080/~brians/errors/cms.html>>.

## **GAMES**

Learn Vocabulary Syndicate - Learning vocabulary can be fun for everyone. At this site students can enjoy graded puzzles, comic strips, word games and many other ways to sharpen their skills. Endorsed by many teachers, these quizzes can be used to prepare for the SAT, GRE or LSAT tests. Students might even win a T-shirt of the comic characters or other signature prizes in the monthly random drawing. Students at advanced levels will be challenged and motivated by the competition and awards. The site can be found at <<http://syndicate.com/index.html>>.

One of the Learn Vocabulary Syndicate sites is the Contest Puzzle Descriptions which provides

students with an opportunity to test their understanding or learn multiple Latin and Greek roots, word families, single roots, analogy, and synonym/antonyms.

Another game found at this site is the Grade Level Puzzles which also provides an opportunity to test three different levels for upper-elementary, middle school, and high school/college prep. Immediate correction of answers is provided, and new puzzles are available every month.

The last game site discussed was the Syndicate Comic Strips which features vivid mental images and visual word association for the reader. The main characters, are all a play on words, and allow the student to visually encounter the word. In every comic strip the meaning of the word, the use of the word in context and the derivation of each feature of word is given. Knowledge of word roots gives students the building blocks toward achieving a larger more active vocabulary.

There are many other interesting sites in addition to those the presenter and audience discovered and discussed during the KOTESOL conference. Like most material for the classroom, these sites should be adapted to the levels and the age groups of the students by the teacher. Many of these resources and sites give self-motivated students the opportunity to proceed at a pace and speed that they are comfortable with and the opportunity to use English outside of the traditional classroom setting. Many students and teachers have access to the Internet at home or in class, and it is important to utilize the vast resources available to students and teachers to create more interesting classes and to motivate students while they learn English.

## **THE AUTHOR**

Unju Pak Blappert is a Lecturer of English at Kyungwon College in Seoul. She is currently the Membership Coordinator for the Seoul Chapter of KOTESOL.

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# Pan-Asian Voices: The Classroom Today

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## **JANE HOELKER**

*JALT National Public Relations Chair*

## **UBON SANPATCHAYAPONG**

*Thailand TESOL Second Vice President*

## **KIM JEONG-RYEOL**

*Korea TESOL Past President*

## **KIP CATES**

*JALT Global Issues National Special Interest Group Coordinator*

The First Pan-Asian Conference was held in Bangkok in January, 1997. The goal, as Jane Hoelker explained, was to search for a Pan-Asian teaching methodology. Speakers explored what teachers in Thailand, Korea and Japan have in common, and what distinguishes them as a region. The PAC 1 Colloquium entitled "Agenda 2,000" discussed issues such as the value of distance learning programs, and the role of professional organisations such as IATEFL and TESOL in providing opportunities to share ideas and materials across boundaries. The role of technology in language education and the acculturation of English to Asian cultures were also examined.

At the PAC 2 Planning meeting at the Bangkok conference, Chris Candlin emphasized that the goal of the PAC conference series -- the cross-fertilization of ideas and formation of cross-cultural research groups -- will not occur unless fostered through networking opportunities established by the conference committee. These opportunities must be clearly communicated to the participating community. That is the purpose of the PAC 2 colloquium, "Pan-Asian Voices: The Classroom Today." Speakers presented observations on the current changes in English education and issues in the classroom. Interested parties networked and formed research groups.

## **THAILAND**

Representing the country which hosted the first and very successful Pan-Asian Conference, Ubon Sanpatchayapong, Thailand TESOL Second Vice President and professor at Mahidol University in Bangkok said that in Thailand English has been taught as a foreign language. That is, Thais normally do not use English to communicate with one another.

Starting in 1996 the Thailand Ministry of Education required that English be taught from the primary level on because as technology plays a greater and greater role in daily life, Thais realized the global need of studying English. Elementary school English teachers had to be trained. Syllabi were designed to serve student needs. Thai parents always expect the best from school, so the pressure comes from multiple directions. Texts used at this level are obtained from commercial sources. Which

methodology or which materials to use is often a top down decision in Thailand. But this top down decision making process is not always a smooth process. A school, for example, might have an ample supply of CD-ROMs available, but no steady supply of electricity to use the CD-ROMs.

Second, the students' English lessons are determined by their future career path. Most English teachers use the communicative teaching strategy and integrate the use of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Of course strategies are adapted to each classroom situation. All schools have the language laboratories, computers and software required to meet the needs of their particular students. Commercial texts are often used by schools, and they are usually adapted or even simplified to match the students' background knowledge and needs. It is interesting to note that one topic always covered in an English textbook used in Thailand is traffic jams. Authentic materials sometimes supplement the syllabus if time allows. Classes, however, are very large and, hence, it is difficult for teachers to meet the demands of the syllabus. Students often take intensive courses outside school. High school students, especially, sign up for such courses since they must prepare for the university entrance exam which is considered a "push forward in life."

University entrance tests in English are "ruining" English. The washback effect of English testing is the development of an "artificial" English. In contrast to this type of English is the practical English taught on television shows such as the ever popular, "English for Taxis." However, beginning in 1999 the new system of evaluating students for entry into the university based on their Grade Point Average (GPA) will be instituted. Sitting a university entrance exam will no longer be required.

Third, English courses are determined by each university to serve the needs of their students, especially the requirements of the students' future careers. Some universities offer English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses while others offer, for example, Business English, or English for Academic Purposes. ESP is very popular and the materials are changed frequently, even every semester, to keep up with the latest ideas. Teacher training seminars are held regularly on the latest methodology. Thailand TESOL is trusted throughout the country by the teachers because the organisation offers teachers an opportunity to meet and discuss methodology. It is through Thailand TESOL that teachers have the rare chance to find out what they want and need to do in the classroom. English teachers at this level not only teach in class, but also pursue research projects, and even write books and materials for the courses they teach.

Fourth, colleges like teacher training colleges, vocational schools, or secretarial institutions, teach English with a view to prepare students for future careers. These colleges offer day, night and weekend courses such as Academic Writing, Everyday Conversation, English for Kids, TOEFL, and TOIEC. Some universities have even set up long-distance learning modules to serve the needs of students in remote areas. For example, Sukothai University offers such a distance learning program through television broadcasts, a newsletter and distribution of materials. An examinations is held on a certain day. Due to increased trade with countries speaking languages other than English such as German, French, Japanese and Chinese, those languages began to be offered as electives a few years ago.

Finally, in the private sector many English schools are run by businessmen and retired educators. They will even tailor intensive courses to meet the demands of the students. The business of teaching English is probably one of the very few which has not suffered in the severe economic climate of today in Thailand.

In general, the study of English is greatly promoted all over Thailand. So far, the major problem is the lack of opportunity to use the language in daily life. Also, it is true that many English teachers, though committed, are not well-qualified to teach the language at this time.

## **KOREA**

Kim Jeong-ryeol, Past President of Korea TESOL and PAC 2 Conference Chair, said that public versus private language education is a major issue today in Korea. English language education was implemented in elementary schools in March, 1997<sup>1</sup>. The government has made private tutoring (such as regular paid home visits by teachers or in language institutes) of elementary students illegal when the students study the language as a part of the mainstream curriculum. Attendance in language institutes is extremely widespread and is seen by some as undermining, or showing up, language teaching in public schools. Some language institutes are beginning to use textbooks that the public schools use. Therefore, students who attend these institutes are at an obvious advantage, which causes even greater disparity among levels within the same class.

Teacher training programs, both pre-service and in-service, are government sponsored. There is an increasing number of private institute and business programs which are not officially accredited for promotions. How can we assist our members who might participate in these programs? Or, how might we assist in organizing and implementing these programs?

Recruiting qualified native speakers as teachers is a great concern among government agencies, colleges and universities in Korea. Currently the demand is much greater than the supply for qualified teachers, i.e. teachers with a Masters and above in TEFL or other English related fields. Government agencies here have a particular problem with this since they are bringing in about 600 teachers each year to teach in the elementary schools<sup>2</sup>. Currently they are accepting BAs/BSs in any field, and most teachers are fresh out of college.

Cultural education and assimilation of incoming teachers in the English Program in Korea (EPIK) is a concern. These teachers arrive with little or no training in teaching and are expected to team teach with their Korean counterparts. They are having immense problems adjusting both culturally and in their teaching environments. Currently they are given a one week training or preparation course, but many feel it is entirely inadequate. Secondly, they don't know how to interact with the Korean teachers in culturally appropriate ways. A system, possibly similar to the one currently in place in Japan, needs to be assessed and possibly adopted here in Korea.

## **JAPAN**

Kip Cates, JALT Global N-SIG Coordinator, represented JALT which will host PAC 3 on Kyushu island in October, 2001. He discussed how the final years of the 20th century constitute a time of challenge and change for English language teaching in Japan.

One challenge is the debate concerning Grammar-Translation versus communicative approach in schools. Driving grammar-translation are Japan's history as an island nation eager to absorb Western knowledge and the college entrance examinations with their washback effect on content, methodology and motivation. The shift to communicative teaching is being driven by the Japan Ministry of Education's new oral communication component of high school English and by experiments in communicative children's English at selected elementary schools.

A major player in the English education scene continues to be the government-sponsored JET Programme, established in 1987, which brings over 5,000 native speakers from 18 different countries to raise international awareness and promote communicative language skills through classroom team-teaching in schools throughout the nation.

Population demographics is a factor in college EFL. The post-baby boom decrease in student numbers has led to increased competition among universities, resulting in the development of new EFL programs which cater more to student needs and focus on communication, content and culture.

1. Fourth graders will begin studying English with the 1998 school year; fifth graders in 1999 and sixth graders in 2000.

Another trend is the spread of modern technology. Classroom use of video has grown to such an extent that there now exists an Association for the Teaching of English through Movies (ATEM). Initial interest in computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is now expanding with the spread of e-mail, the Internet and the World Wide Web as language learning media.

A final trend is the internationalization of English teaching as part of the internationalization of Japanese society. This can be seen in the increasing number of overseas school trips and exchanges, the shift from English as language of the United States and the United Kingdom to a global language of communication, and increased teacher interest in dealing with global awareness and global issues in their teaching.

### **FORMING RESEARCH PROJECTS AND PROGRAMS:**

Discussion during and after the PAC 2 Colloquium resulted in the research projects, programs and topics below. Interested parties should contact the names below.

#### **PAC 2 Asian Youth Forum to be held October, 1999 in Korea.**

This unique event will bring together young people studying English (and other languages) from Korea, Japan, Thailand and other Asian countries to discuss aspects of Language, culture, education and international understanding through the medium of English-as-an-Asian-language. Contact: Kip Cates, JALT GILE N-SIG Coordinator. Tottori University, Koyama, Tottori-shi 680, Japan. tel/fax: +81-(0)857-31-5650 e-mail: <kcates@fed.tottori-u.ac.jp>

#### **Moving Beyond Stereotypes**

Contact: Jeanne E. Martinelli, Department of English Education, Pusan National University, San 30 Jangjeon-dong, Kumjeong-ku, Pusan, 609-735 South Korea. h/tel: +82 (51) 510-2609 fax: +82 (51) 582-3869 e-mail: <jeanne@hyowon.cc.pusan.ac.kr>

#### **Asian Students' Expectations of Classroom Life.**

Contact: Stephen Ryan, Rafine Minami Ibaraki 704, 1-5-39 Tenno, Ibaraki-shi, Osaka-fu 567 tel: +81 (0726) 24-2793 e-mail: <RX1S-RYAN@asahi-net.or.jp>

#### **Testing: TOEFL, TOEIC; Konglish, Japlish, Thaiish**

Contact: Laurie Baker, Postech, Div-General Education, Hyoja-Dong 790-784, Pohang, Korea e-mail: <ljb@postech.ac.kr>; Nick Miller e-mail: <nerm@sag.bekkoame.or.jp>

#### **How does American/English Culture Enter Into Asian English Teaching?**

Should North American (United States, Canada) or British (English, Scottish, Irish, Welsh, Australian, Indian, etc) culture be considered as part of this discussion plan?

Contact: Laurie Baker, Postech, Div-General Education, Hyoja-Dong 790-784, Pohang, Korea e-mail: <ljb@postech.ac.kr>; Samantha Vanderford e-mail: <samantha@seafolknet.or.jp> or <outrider@surflife.ne.jp>

#### **Suggested Research Topics:**

Identities & English Learners

Academic versus Communicative Language Learning

## CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Jane Hoelker encouraged participants forming research projects and programs to take the step from PAC 1 research to PAC 2 publication. PAC 2 publishing opportunities for cross-cultural research results are currently being organized and the three language teaching associations will be publicizing the information soon.

## THE AUTHORS

Jane Hoelker has taught EFL in universities and commercial institutions in Rwanda, Mali, and Korea. She is currently assistant professor at Kanazawa Institute of Technology. She is the JALT National Public Relations Chair as well as the JALT Advisor to the Pan Asian Conference series.

Kim Jeong-ryeol is past president of Korea TESOL and is coordinating the Second Pan Asia Conference to be held in Korea in 1999.

Kip A. Cates has an MA in Applied Linguistics from the University of Reading, England. He is the coordinator of the "Global Issues in Language Education" Special Interest Group of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT). He teaches English at Tottori University, Japan as well as graduate courses on global education for the MATESOL program of Teachers College, Columbia University, Tokyo.

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# Bafa Bafa: A Cross-Culture Simulation

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**JEANNE E. MARTINELLI AND PHILLIP O'NEILL**

*Pusan National University*

Especially, the amazing and splendid class was the time when we played Bafa Bafa simulation, because we had not got any common cultural experience till we played the situation, and then we felt together what was the cultural difference in spite of a little amount. When the situation was over, we had got a time to share our feelings with the others. Some were astonished by what they had done, then got satisfied face. It was really very very good. -- "Harry", *Pusan National University, Cultural Awareness Class Student, Bafa Bafa Simulation Participant.*

In those exact words of a Korean EFL university student, we see precisely the power of a simulation experience for truly "learning" and "understanding" at a gut level, cultural differences and realities, and our behaviors within such; as opposed to simply theoretically discussing such abstract notions. Bafa Bafa has proven again and again, since its creation in 1977 by R. Garry Shirts, to be a challenging, provocative, and stimulating way to delve deeply into questioning stereotypes of other cultures, as well as values of one's own.

In a simple, yet complex process guided by a director and an assistant director, participants (ranging from 12 in each of two cultures as a minimum number, up to about 20 in each culture for a maximum number of participants) are "briefed" and given time to practice their new "Alphan" or "Betan" cultural rituals, before going on exchange visits to each others' cultures to really have an experiential learning episode!

The game is fast-paced and continually moving, to assure all Alpha and Beta residents a chance to observe and interact in each others' cultures in a spontaneous manner, which can be similar to what one likely encounters when one travels to a different culture in the "real world". After participants live and cope in the new "foreign" cultures, in Bafa Bafa, there is a "debriefing" time in which participants are able to bring their feelings and thoughts from their experience together to the whole community to really process and better understand the behaviors and reasons behind the behaviors they observed. Through this debriefing, attitudes may change from hostility to understanding, and the immediate Bafa Bafa Alpha and Beta cultural experiences can be generalized to attitudes towards other groups in the real world.

As native AND non-native English language teachers working in Korea, we are constantly faced with the often times inevitable and often deeply penetrating cultural clashes resultant from the imported intrinsic values of the various brands of Western English language (Canadian, American, Australian, English, New Zealand, etc.), carving out a place in Eastern Asian cultural paradigms, in Korea's current quest towards "Globalization". These cultural differences manifest themselves with Korean students daily as they try to fully grasp such linguistic cultural subtleties; as well as with Western and Korean teachers grappling with communication issues and misunderstandings among themselves... while speaking "English." But, as professionals in the EFL field, our task only begins with the teaching of "the English" language at a very superficial level. For most responsibly, as professionals in our EFL field, our mission continues towards identifying and raising awareness of the much deeper-seated and penetrating values and issues of cultural differences, conflict, and change in

which we all find ourselves currently in Korea in the late twentieth century.

So, as we struggle along towards improved linguistic competencies in our EFL teaching in Korea, why not become more culturally sophisticated and aware, so as to bring full benefit to ourselves, our students, our co-teachers and colleagues, as we attempt to overcome where necessary and to more readily understand where necessary, often held beliefs such as:

differences between cultures are generally seen as threatening and described in negative terms; people often feel their own language is far superior to other languages; it requires experience as well as study to understand the many subtleties of another culture; feelings of apprehension, loneliness, and lack of confidence are common when visiting another culture; when people talk about other cultures, they tend to describe the differences and not the similarities; stereotyping is probably inevitable in the absence of frequent contact or study; it is probably necessary to know the language of a foreign culture to understand the culture in any depth; and perhaps a person can accept a culture only after he or she has been very critical of it.<sup>1</sup>

Bafa Bafa is a tool. A very effective tool to raise awareness around such above mentioned issues, as well as any issues especially sensitive to the particular participants playing at any specific time. Sexism, capitalism, community, individual, physical touch; any of these and more can surface for discussion during the debriefing period of Bafa Bafa. Bafa Bafa participants have also come to realize that

what seems irrational, contradictory or unimportant to him/her may seem rational, consistent and terribly important to the person in the other culture; and one is likely to seriously misinterpret other cultures, if one evaluates them solely in terms of one's own values, expectations and behavior; visitors are often "invisible" to people within the culture; developing a close friendship with a sensitive person from the other culture who can serve as one's guide and advocate is one of the best strategies for understanding and working with the other culture.<sup>2</sup>

## THE AUTHORS

Jeanne E. Martinelli has worked on five continents in the ESL/EFL field over the past 17 years as a teacher/facilitator, materials and curriculum designer (inclusive of week long academic trips, special projects, seminars and workshops), international student advisor, and cross-cultural trainer. She's taught language arts and art at the elementary level in a Montessori school, high school French, at risk youth, gifted and talented creative writing students, drama, college humanities and composition; served on the teachers advisory panel at The Art Institute of Chicago, was education consultant at the Illinois Art Gallery, and has curated numerous art shows for ARC Gallery Chicago (including international exchange shows). Her interest in culture and language was formalized with her BA degree in cross-cultural communication from the School for International Training, where she developed a cross-cultural simulation game, and continues to be her primary area of research now in her second MA degree, again from SIT, in TESOL. Her first MA degree is also in education.

Phillip O'Neill has completed undergraduate and postgraduate studies in the fields of English, Spanish, Linguistics, Education and Applied Linguistics at La Trobe University and The University of Melbourne in Australia. He has travelled, lived and worked in various parts of Europe, Asia and Latin America. Before coming to Korea as an exchange instructor at Pusan National University, he was teaching in both the Horwood Language Centre and the Department of ESL and Communications Skills at The University of Melbourne. He has worked in the fields of Adult Literacy Education, Languages Other than English, ESL and EFL. His interests include the cultural politics of language, varieties of English, drama, and culture.

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1. *Simulation Training Systems, Catalog for Educational and Non-Profit Organizations*, p.4&5 For the catalog and further ordering information: email: sts@cts.com <http://www.stsintl.com/>

2. *ibid*

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# Student Centered Learning in Asia

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**PETER NELSON**

*ChungAng University*

**NA-EUN HWANG**

*Pusan National University*

**MERTON BLAND**

*Kongyang University*

**ANDREW TODD**

*Oxford University Press*

The emergence of East Asian nations into the Information Age has exposed their education systems to new teaching models and methodologies, some of which are considered direct challenges to traditional methods. How each country balances traditional education techniques and newer approaches will later influence its academic excellence and economic competitiveness.

Student centered learning is one of several new methods used successfully in TESL and TEFL programs at secondary schools and universities. It emphasizes active student participation with a major role for the teacher as an enabler/facilitator, and differs from the traditional model which emphasizes a top-down teaching method. In this panel discussion summary, four teachers will draw upon their own experiences to consider the feasibility, viability and applicability of this technique in Korea and abroad, noting both advantages and limitations of the methodology.

## **PANEL DISCUSSION SUMMARY**

**P**eter Nelson opened the discussion by indicating that each panellist would present one aspect of student centered learning. The rest of the time was devoted to audience participation. This established format was followed closely, and audience participation was strong although the ratio of native speakers to Koreans was quite high at approximately 4:1.

Peter referred to the handout sheet (included here) describing student centered learning generally. He stressed the importance of viewing this teaching method as a continuum rather than an all-or-nothing approach. Hence a teacher interested in the topic but with limited time, or facing other constraints, could introduce student centered learning in stages, or could simply use it in one portion of the course. He also outlined some advantages and disadvantages when discussing this approach within an Asian setting.

Na-eun Hwang noted major characteristics of Korean education pertaining to student centered learning. Impediments within the Confucian based system include traditional communication flows from teacher to students rather than encouraged teacher/student interaction, hesitancy of Korean students to give opinions freely, inexperience at being consulted, self-consciousness at speaking, and

their preparation for university entrance exams which concentrate on grammatical accuracy versus fluency. These combined effects have led students to become passive and relatively unresponsive to new teaching methods. Despite these drawbacks, she felt the method can work with self-confident, motivated and/or advanced university students, although the road to acceptance is long.

Andrew Todd distinguished between student-centered learning and student-based learning. The former retains teacher control over content and implementation while permitting students varying degrees of autonomy. Teacher functions include resource, guide, organiser, facilitator and language authority. In the latter case, students are responsible for all aspects of learning including materials selection, activities and language applications. The teacher is more of a guide or resource, and must be proficient in the students' mother tongue. Both approaches, however, engage students more actively than do teacher-centered models, although the challenge for the teacher is to keep students motivated while helping them improve language skills.

Merton Bland noted that student centered teaching is just one effective approach of many collectively called communicative teaching, all of which are superior to traditional grammar-translation based systems because they are a more efficient, integrative way to help students acquire a second language. It also incorporates students' felt needs and acquired experiences, thus enhancing motivation. While this approach empowers the students, it does not lessen responsibilities of the teacher, who remains the enabler, resource, and provider of standards. Moreover, all this is subject to negotiation, for in order to work, everyone must understand and agree beforehand to organization and implementation details. These include aims of the class, methods of achieving goals, and formalized responsibilities for students

The subject was turned over to the audience (about 50) after each panellists' introduction, and participants were requested to make statements or ask questions of panellists or colleagues. Interest and participation were high, and discussion concentrated on individual teacher efforts to introduce aspects of student centered learning into their own classrooms (primarily high schools). A consensus emerged that implementation was possible but at times difficult. Barriers included student uncertainty or passivity, teacher uncertainty, the relative lack of appropriate teaching or resource materials, and related concerns. Two interesting comments noted that the model could include songs, prose and poetry as well as conversation, and that it was possible to use the approach even with young students in primary school. Several questions were also asked of panellists themselves, although these considered clarification of statements more than their own opinions.

The panellists had agreed beforehand that no one would be asked to sum up the views expressed during the meeting. Before ending, however, Peter noted the panel's concern that the majority of the audience consisted of native speakers and not Koreans. He said this concentration took on a preaching-to-the-converted feeling, and hoped that future meetings on this topic would include more Korean teachers wanting information on student centered learning.

## **HANDOUT: WHAT IS STUDENT CENTERED TEACHING?**

This is a teaching model in which the students' opinions, backgrounds and goals are acknowledged and incorporated within the learning environment. It is in sharp contrast to the traditional model in which the teacher makes most, if not all, of the decisions regarding content and materials. It also differs in degree from the student-based model of teaching, whereby the students themselves have large responsibility for course content, materials selection and direction.

### **Why the switch to this model?**

There are many reasons, but all humanistic approaches to teaching have acknowledged the

importance of individual students, the value of their separate life experiences, and their ability to relate their differing backgrounds within the learning environment. By making the learners more responsible for course information, content and direction, it is argued, they will help encourage a positive group atmosphere, more interesting and relevant materials, good feedback, and (ultimately) reduced preparation time for the teacher. In effect both students and teachers will benefit.

### **What is the role of the teacher?**

This varies depending on the extent of student-centered learning that is incorporated in the classroom. Generally, the teacher can be an active participant in the group, a helper and resource, and a class monitor of progress. Whatever the role, the purpose is to narrow the traditional gap between teacher and student, although the teacher retains primary responsibility within the classroom.

### **Must the teacher adopt an all or nothing approach to student-centered teaching?**

Definitely not! Teachers can use direct student involvement techniques on an occasional basis, as a complement to course books, or as a segment of a course. Alternatively, a teacher may focus learner based teaching on a specific language area: grammar, exams, games, translations, etc. It is important to emphasize that the instructor is not surrendering his responsibilities, but supplementing them. He must of course be sensitive to cultural expectations, ages of the students, their level of English and other factors. One instructor, for example, asked college students to evaluate textbooks they would like to use, and requested their (anonymous) recommendations to improve the class.

### **Are special materials needed for this teaching approach?**

Generally not, although the amount may differ according to the degree of responsibility for course content accorded to students by the teacher. For example, the instructor may support student selection using existing texts, or encourage them to use outside sources including newspapers, audiovisual equipment, overhead projectors, etc.

### **What advantages are there?**

These depend greatly on the extent the model is employed, personality and communicative skills of the instructor, characteristics of the class, etc. General benefits include:

1. enhances fluency by encouraging learners to express their ideas freely
2. enables the teacher/students to introduce items of local or topical interest
3. reduces repetitiveness by providing a more open-ended learning experience
4. increases student involvement by drawing them into the learning process
5. enhances the element of surprise or curiosity by introducing new materials
6. increases peer teaching and correction on topics chosen by students themselves
7. assists group solidarity by helping each student participate actively

### **What disadvantages are there?**

These also depend on the factors noted in question six above. Generally, problems arise in several areas:

1. preconceptions or expectations of students that inhibit this teaching model
2. personal characteristics of students, such as competitive versus cooperative attitudes

3. reluctance to participate for cultural reasons or low self-esteem
4. Loss of focus or direction by teacher; inability to articulate goals and assist class
5. Loss of focus by students, or lack of cooperation to achieve stated goals
6. External restraints (e.g. assigned textbooks, little free time) that inhibit teaching.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This workshop review has relied heavily on Colin Campbell and Hanna Kryszewska, *Learner-Based Teaching* (Oxford University Press, 1992), especially pages 1-11. Thanks also to Andrew Todd, Oxford University Press representative in Seoul, for making this timely, important work available. Those wanting more information may call Peter Nelson, Department of English Education, ChungAng University, Seoul: (e-mail): peternel@cau.ac.kr; (O) 82-2-820-5396; (Fax): 82-2-820-5396

## THE AUTHORS

Peter E. Nelson, PhD (Government, Economics, Arizona) holds a CELTA (a Certificate in Language Teaching to Adults) from International House, England. He teaches English Conversation in the Department of English Education at Chung-Ang University in Seoul. He has taught in Korea since September 1995.

Na-eun Hwang received her MA from the State University of New York. She currently teaches at the Language Research and Education Institute of Pusan National University.

Merton L. Bland, teaches at Konyang University in Nonsan. He holds a MA in French from Middlebury College, Vermont; a MA in Linguistics from George Mason University; an EdD. from the University of California Los Angeles and a Certificate in TESOL from George Mason University. He has worked as an elementary teacher in California; a Foreign Service Officer, USIA and has taught ESL/EFL in The United States, China, (the former East) Germany, Malaysia and Korea.

Andrew Todd is a full-time teacher trainer and marketing representative for Oxford University Press, Korea. He joined OUP in 1996 and brought with him a background in EFL teaching, teacher training, material design, and professional presentations.

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# How to Use Movie Technology in a Non-technological Way

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**TED NICKELSBURG**

*Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST)*

Most Korean college students love movies and enjoy discussing them in conversation classes if not overused. The focus of this paper is to give freshness to this idea, by telling how to develop story lines and use activities with them. First, to develop a story line, teachers should know popular movies, actors, and actresses, including Korean, Western, and others. Whether the student or instructor develops a story line, it should be a one to five page narration or conversation. If students develop the story line, such parameters as characters, circumstances, plot, or movie type should be explained. Second, such activities as a strip story or running dictation may be done if instructors do their own story line. If students are to do their own, they should develop the story line from given parameters and then tell it to the class. If more time is available, students can write their own scripts and present it through drama. For the story line process and activities, both steps and examples will be given.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Generally, when English instructors come to Korea, they are expected to teach conversation, but do not know at first how to effectively approach the students. My first year in Korea was no different in that regard. At the same time, I found that textbook-based instruction would lose the students' interest after a certain point. However, I did find that movies were very popular with these college students. Therefore, when movie characters, actors, or themes were incorporated in the classroom, I found that the students looked forward to these classes and especially enjoyed such activities. As such, I developed the movie ideas further by including not just characters or themes, but also imaginative sequels and variations as well. These ideas became the framework for the story lines and related activities that will now follow.

## **HOW TO DEVELOP STORY LINES OF MOVIES.**

In order to develop story lines for movie-based activities, you need to know about popular movies, actors, actresses, or other famous people if these are not already familiar. While it may be easy to do with movies from one's own culture, it is especially helpful to be familiar with other movie cultures.

This was my case, as I was not overly interested in movies three years ago. Consequently, I had to familiarize myself both with the Hollywood types and Asian types. When I did this, not only did it make classes more interesting, but it is also helped build bridges between my students and me. Specifically, Korean students thoroughly enjoy Hollywood, but it is not their own. Therefore, when you incorporate Korean or Hong Kong types in your story line, the students identify with it even better since it is their own culture. This will go a long way towards building bridges between you and your students.

So how can you familiarize yourself? You can read movie reviews or biography sections in magazines like *People* or *Newsweek*, as well as from newspapers or the internet. Of course, you should also watch some movies or videos so you can intelligently talk about them with your students. However, it is not necessary to watch every movie that comes out. The important thing is to know what is popular or relevant to your students. This is easily done and you should watch movies from cultures other than your own, just to get a taste for movies, even if we do not understand the language. In addition, if you talk with and ask questions from your students about Korean or Asian movies, as I like to do, they will be more than glad to give you a gold mine of information. However, make sure to take notes, otherwise it is all forgotten.

When you are familiar with this information, many ideas will come to you as you try to develop activities for your students. For example, from an assignment for my students, I found that *Dead Poet's Society*, *Braveheart*, and *Terminator 2* were their most popular movies. Through talking with them, I also found out the most popular Korean stars and movies. From doing this, I was able to generate ideas for several assignments.

After you are familiar, you should take time to write your own story line or short conversation which is based on popular movies, actors, actresses, or other famous people. However, it should not be a whole script, rather just a one page story. At the end of this article I have included activities using *Mission Impossible 2* and *2 Cops 3* as examples. When you do this for an activity, it can serve as an example for your students when it is their turn to develop a story line.

In order for your students to do so, you need to present to them the common items in movies like the characters, setting, plot, or movie type. They can also use famous Korean or American actors or people, as well as familiar circumstances and current events.

Whether you or your students develop the story line, it should be a one to five page narration or conversation. If you do the story line for a one hour class activity, it should only be a one page narration with little or no conversation. Otherwise, too much time is spent on writing a story. When I wrote the lesson plans included in this paper and others like it, I enjoyed developing the story, but it took more than two hours just to do a one page story.

If your students write their own story line, one page is enough for just a one class activity. These activities can be used to reinforce singular conversation functions like narration or small talk. A three to five page story line should be saved for doing a drama project, which is done over several periods and is focused on several conversation functions like introductions, small talk, or describing the past. Again, if your students develop the story line, such parameters as characters, setting, plot, or movie type should be explained.

## **HOW TO USE ACTIVITIES FROM THE STORY LINES**

Once you or your students have the story line, there are a number of activities that can be generated from it. In addition, these activities do not have to be limited to what is mentioned in this article. If you have your own ideas for activities, by all means use them.

If you want to give quizzes using your story line, that can be done with a fill-in-the-blanks quiz. When I wanted to test my students about giving instructions, I created the scenario for *2 Cops 3*, as seen in the appendix to this article. In the conversation, students have to fill in the blank with phrases related to giving and receiving instructions.

Another activity that you can use with your story line is a strip story or running dictation. When you do this, you need to make sure that the story line is straightforward enough to put into sequential order after the students receive individual sentences on strips of paper totally out of order. You should also make sure that there are enough transitions between the individual strips and you may need to give your students some hints if they find it too difficult. As an example, when I used the *Mission*



Impossible 2 strip story, I found it to be good for teaching narration or describing the past. The students enjoyed putting the story into order, as well as the story itself, but sometimes needed help.

Another activity alluded to earlier that your students can do is to develop their own story lines. When my classes do this, it takes about one class hour and I present the characters, setting, and other parameters by way of old magazine photos or just wording. Most times it's quite interesting and fun for all of us, especially when they tell it to the whole class.

If more time is available, students can write their own three to five page story line and present it through a short ten minute drama, many times done as satire or comedy. For example, my students have done drama based on many different movie scenes or variations, such as Before Sunrise, Terminator 2, or 2 Cops or such originals as Terminator 3, Snow White and Rambo, KAIST Cops and many others. Another idea that has worked very well with these ten minute dramas is talk shows. Again, the students will write their own script, but instead of a certain plot or setting, they will create a particular host(s) who interviews certain famous people, discussing their lives, jobs, or current events.

It's also possible to use movie based activities for a listening class, although you will probably have to generate the stories yourself. In my case, I developed several listening tests from a four-part story of a Korean high school student who visited his older sister and studied English in the US during summer vacation. In the process, he has different adventures and meets Michael Jordan and Park Chan Ho.

## **CONCLUSION**

The ideas presented here have been used in my classes several times successfully and should be able to work well in your classrooms as well, given the right adjustments that only you know for your classes. For example, dramas may not work as well in hakwon classes since attendance can vary from day to day; however, the one period activities would work well. The ideas presented here are not necessarily exhaustive, but can be a springboard for developing your own ideas for movie-based activities. Such an idea may include using comic books or animation characters and scenarios which are also quite popular with students. Whatever you do though, when you incorporate movie-based ideas as part of your classroom activities, you will discover an extended dimension in your classroom that brings you and your students closer together, as well as sparking greater interest for learning English.

## **THE AUTHOR**

Ted Nickelsburg is from Ohio, the United States and currently teaches listening and conversation at KAIST. He has also taught several courses of technical and academic writing. He has a MA in Education/TESL and has taught the last three years in Korea, with previous experience in Japan and America. He is also pursuing research in English for Science and Technology.

### **APPENDIX A:**

#### **QUIZ #2: CHAPTER 9: "2 COPS 3" OR "3 COPS 1"**

Officers Jo Ban Jang, Kang Hyung Sa, and Lee Hyung Sa must team up together because they face their biggest challenge ever. They must arrest members of the Russian Mafia who are trying to smuggle guns to members of the Korean Mafia. Complete their conversation with appropriate phrases or short answers.

Lee Hyung Sa: I do not know how we're ever going to stop the Russian Mafia from selling guns to the Korean Mafia.

Kang Hyung Sa: Yah, it will be so difficult and once they do, they will reign terror. It may be even worse than a North Korean invasion. We must stop them. Jo, you are the big shot here, what will we do?

Jo Ban Jang: Don't tell anybody, but a secret agent with his secret weapon will help us. He's so secret that I only know his code name, "Eraser". His secret weapon is the EM (electromagnetic) gun and he will give us some of those guns to stop the two Mafia groups.

Lee: (1) How does the EM gun work and what is the plan?

Jo: Well, I'll let Eraser describe the EM gun and then I'll give you my plan. Here is Eraser.

Eraser: Good day gentlemen. Thank you for volunteering for this very dangerous assignment. But we must do it or we will be erased. Hahaha!!

Jo: That's a bad joke, please just (2) tell us how to work the EM gun.

Eraser: Sorry, I guess I shouldn't be a comedian. Anyway, to operate this very powerful gun, you have to know what it can do. It shoots a small aluminum projectile at a very high velocity, 100,000 meters per second, using no gunpowder, only electromagnetic energy. Since the projectile has a very high velocity, it has much more destructive power. That's what it does.

Now to operate it, (3) the first thing you do is/ first of all, put on the power belt.

Kang: Let me ask a question, Eraser. (4) What is the belt used for?

Eraser: Well, it's the power supply for the EM gun. Because after you've put on the belt, (5) the next thing you do is plug in this wire to the power belt. It conducts power to the gun itself. (6) OK so far?

Jo, Kang, Lee: Yah, we understand.

Eraser: OK, after you've plugged it in, you have to aim the laser guidance at your target.

Lee: (7) Excuse me, I'm not very clear.

Eraser: Sorry, let me try that again. You should turn on this switch that turns on the laser beam to indicate your target. (8) Got that?

Lee: Yah, thanks.

Eraser: (9) Good! That's it. (10) Oh, and then don't forget to pull the trigger. Then its "*Hasta la vista, baby!*", Hahaha!!

Jo: Another bad joke. OK, I guess we should go practice with it now.

Eraser: *Nae, Kapshida!!*

Jo, Kang, Lee : Hahaha!! *Hangukmal chalhaeyo!!*

#### APPENDIX B:

##### "MISSION IMPOSSIBLE 2" OR "WHAT ALMOST HAPPENED TO MICHAEL JACKSON"

Date: September 10, 1996

Ethan Hunt (Tom Cruise) was on a KAL airplane headed for a well deserved vacation near Sorak-san.

As he is listening to "Bad Meeting" through his earphones, the music is suddenly interrupted with a message for his next mission.

The message tells him that he has to stop the North Korean agents currently on a spy sub planning to come ashore near Sokcho.

The agents plan to kidnap Michael Jackson during his concert and take him back to Pyongyang for Kim Jung Il's private concert.

However, Kim Gun Mo, Michael Jackson's interpreter, is sitting behind Ethan and has agreed to

help Ethan with whatever he needs.

The message self destructs in 5 seconds. 1 . . 2 . . 3 . . 4 . . 5 " BOOM!!!"

Ethan Hunt is a fan of Kim Gun Mo and especially likes his latest album, "Exchange", but he turns to look for him and finds his seat empty.

Then a North Korean spy disguised as Kim Gun Mo returns to his seat.

So Ethan starts to ask the fake Kim Gun Mo about "Bad Meeting" and "Exchange".

When the imposter gives Ethan the wrong answers, he knows that this man is not Kim Gun Mo.

Meanwhile, in the luggage compartment, a Russian mercenary (Arnold Schwarzenegger), hired by the North Koreans, is interrogating the real Kim Gun Mo.

The mercenary wants to find out Michael Jackson's schedule of times, dates, and places so the North Korean agents can accomplish their mission.

But Kim Gun Mo only says "*Mollayo*".

By now, Ethan has tricked the Kim Gun Mo imposter, found out where Kim Gun Mo is at, and sedated the imposter.

So Ethan secretly climbs into the luggage compartment, karate chops the mercenary, and rescues Kim Gun Mo.

Then Kim Gun Mo says "Thanks, you can have two free tickets to Michael's concert in Seoul".

After that, the plane lands in Sokcho and Ethan and Kim Gun Mo proceed to make plans to stop the North Korean sub.

Since they know that the agents will come ashore near Sokcho, Kim Gun Mo disguises himself as a taxi driver and patrols along the beach road until he spots them.

Very quickly, he calls the Korean army to catch them.

The rest is history and several weeks later Kim Gun Mo and Ethan enjoy Michael Jackson's concert without any disturbance.



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# A Workshop in Reading and Writing

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**WILLIAM SNYDER AND BARBARA WRIGHT**

*Korea University, Institute of Foreign Language Studies*

The presenters discussed the successes and problems with a one week workshops program in reading and writing for Korean high school and middle school teachers. The purpose of the workshops was to enhance the English skills and teaching techniques of non-native English teachers. The presenters modeled some of the innovative activities used in the workshops and allowed participants to try out some of their more successful techniques: schema building, graphic representations, strategic reading, alternative assessment, critical thinking, creative thinking and writing. They also explained the theory behind these techniques.

Before beginning their discussion, the presenters provided a short summary of the university workshop program for Korean high school teachers of English. The two week program offered the opportunity for teachers to choose some aspect of teaching for study. For example, they could choose a five hour reading or writing course. Although this seems like a very short time for the subject matter, the teachers were able to both practice their English and learn about the theory behind their teaching of English.

## **INTRODUCTION TO THE SITUATION**

Next, the presenters discussed some common problems faced by high school teachers in Korea and suggested some possible solutions to the problems. Some of the main difficulties mentioned by the teachers in the workshop were related to class size and classroom arrangement. For example, in a class of fifty high school students, it was difficult to use communicative techniques because they could not move the desks around into groups. Teachers felt that free discussion might lead to a lack of discipline in the classroom.

In addition, teachers expressed fears that their own English might not be adequate because they felt they had to serve as the native speaker informant for their classes. Another area of difficulty was related to the required textbooks and university entrance exam which the teachers felt obliged them to use the grammar translation method in their classes. Finally, they said that they could not modify their teaching methods due to the students' expectations and the parents' demands for college entrance exam preparation.

While they acknowledge the real problems that high school teacher in Korea face, the presenters suggested that some modification in the direction away from the grammar translation method would lead to greater learning of English while still using the same required textbook. Using different methods to teach English in their classes would create greater motivation on the part of the students. Ultimately a change in methods would lead to better test scores. The teachers were encouraged to do some action research by trying to change a little at a time to see what the results would be.

Contrary to what they may have thought, it is not necessary for the classroom teacher to be a native speaker since there are many videos, cassettes, and songs available which can serve as supplementary material.

## **THE READING WORKSHOP**

By focusing on the process rather than product of reading, the teachers were taught how to use instructional scaffolds as a pre-reading strategy to help students construct schema (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994) for understanding what they had read. They were also encouraged to promote free reading for fun using abridged, easy-to-read books for the non-native speaker such as the Longman Fiction simplified editions. It seems to be more important for a student to learn how to read for understanding (Krashen, 1982, 1993) than for students to translate and memorize many texts.

The participants sat around six tables (four or five to a table) to practice the reading activities in the handout. These activities (Wright, 1997b) included a pre-reading exercise: watching a short film (Huckleberry Finn and Friends) without the sound, filling in a web (Walter, 1996) with information from the film, reading a short simplified text, solving a crossword puzzle about the story and writing a pyramid story as a post-reading activity. (See Appendix A.) In addition, activities which stimulate creative thinking were recommended; asking open-ended questions and opinion questions.

## **THE WRITING WORKSHOP**

Since English composition is not a part of the curriculum for English instruction in Korean schools, and because that is unlikely to change, this portion of the workshop was not aimed at having teachers practice drafting and rewriting in order to create essay-like texts. Instead, the primary goal of the workshop was to introduce teachers to practical, short classroom activities that they could use or adapt for their students. A new activity was presented and completed with the teachers each day of the program.

The writing activities presented were short enough to be completed in a single class session and needed to be adaptable to students' levels. Discussion of how to simplify the activities was a part of each day's practice in the program. Since developing writing ability is not a primary goal of the curriculum, the activities chosen were ones which integrated writing with other language skills. Part of this integration was the use of activities which permitted collaboration between students in producing the final piece of writing. Moreover, the activities also could be adapted to practice specific language structures or vocabulary that had already been presented to students.

While rewriting was not practised as part of the program because of time constraints, the fact that the writings produced were only first drafts, and the problems of errors and revision were also discussed in the program sessions. It was suggested that teachers could have the students practice focused revisions on particular problems, such as spelling or verb tense, as part of integrated language practice.

## **THE WORKSHOP ACTIVITIES**

The five activities presented at the workshop included one written description, three short stories, and poetry.

1. First Impressions (adapted from Littlejohn, 1993): creating a description of a person from a set of question prompts provided by the teacher. While teachers wrote descriptions of one another and discussed their accuracy in the workshop as an icebreaker, the classroom version could be done with pictures taken from magazines.

2. Reverse Comprehension (adapted from Sion, 1985): groups work together, using a set of comprehension question prompts, to produce a story which contains answers to the questions. Teachers can control the difficulty of this activity by limiting the number of questions or using a familiar story as a basis for the prompts. The prompts can also be used to require certain language forms, such as past tense, in the story.

3. Story Completion: from a beginning supplied by the teacher, groups collaborate on producing a middle section. Then students work individually on endings to be shared with their group. Difficulty can be controlled by requiring a certain number of sentences in both the middle and final sections.

4. Mini-Sagas (adapted from White and Arndt, 1991): individuals write stories of exactly fifty words, then work in groups to check grammar and make improvements in their texts. The exact word count requirement forces attention to the language forms used. The task can be eased by lowering the number of required words. The group review should be focused on particular problems students are familiar with.

5. Poetry (adapted from Littlejohn): individuals write poems involving different structures, including haiku, acrostic poems, and triangle poems, which are then shared in groups. In the classroom, teachers may choose to use fewer types of poems or have students work in pairs or groups to complete a poem as ways of adjusting the task to their students ability level.

## **THE POETRY LESSON PLAN**

The following is a sample lesson plan for presenting poetry to learners. The sample plan here will teach one particular type of poetry, the acrostic poem. The lesson itself is planned for one hour, but this can be changed to fit the schedule in Korean classrooms. The time markers in this sample lesson refer to the minutes at which each segment should begin and for how long each segment should last. (A model handout is provided in Appendix B)

0:00-0:15: An introductory page is distributed, describing the acrostic poem the learners will attempt. The introductory page includes a reassurance that students can write poetry in English, despite their perceptions of difficulty. The instructor presents the sample poems and describes their special structure to the students. It is very important that students clearly understand this structure. It may be necessary to give an explanation in Korean to students whose English level is low.

0:15-0:40: Following the introduction, students select topics for their acrostic poems and begin to write. The teacher may have them work initially in groups and, if there is time, later write a second poem individually. The teacher should circulate among the students, helping them with word choices, spelling and grammar.

0:40-0:50: Students can spend the last ten minutes sharing their poems with other students or, if the teacher desires, copying them on poster paper to be displayed in class.

## **THE AUTHORS**

William Snyder has a PhD in Linguistics from Northwestern University specializing in second language acquisition. He has taught courses in linguistics and teacher education at University of Illinois-Chicago, DePaul University, Northeastern Illinois University, and National-Louis University and worked as a curriculum coordinator at Herzon State Pedagogical Institute in Leningrad, USSR for two years. He currently works in the Institute of Foreign Language Studies at Korea University in Seoul, teaching courses in English conversation and composition. His current research examines untrained teachers perceptions of classroom communication. He also has ongoing interests in lexical processing and orthography. He may be reached via e-mail at <wsnyder@elim.net>.

Barbara Wright is an Associate Professor at Korea University. She received a PhD from the City University of New York and a MA in Linguistics from Harvard University. She has taught Teacher Education courses for the past ten years in the United States, Mexico, Japan and Korea. Her interests lie in developing content based EFL courses. She may be reached via e-mail at <76752.1537@compuserve.com>.

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### APPENDIX A:

#### CONFERENCE WORKSHOP HANDOUTS READING WORKSHOP

Pre-reading: Before you begin reading the text

Motivate your students; Ask students about their attitude toward reading and English.

Do you think there is a best way to read? What is it? (expectations)

In your free time would you rather read or watch TV? (leisure time)

Do you feel comfortable reading an English language newspaper without a dictionary?  
(comfort level)

Why are you studying English? (motivation)

Get the students involved and committed to the task.

Assess the students' prior knowledge of the subject/author/setting of the story

Preview the text for the students pointing out structure etc

Help students to build schema or framework to better understand what they will read.

Use graphic representations or video to build schema (see web template)

Use video before reading to build schema (see video sample)

Reading: approaching the task.

Use the top down rather than the bottom up method

Talk about ideas first, details, words after. (see simplified reading sample).

Read without a dictionary: Guess what the meaning of the word is from context

Do Extensive rather than Intensive reading

Don't just translate into Korean.

Read aloud or use tapes or other technology (videos, cassettes, CD's)

Post-reading: find out what the students understood and what they can do with the information.

Assess comprehension

retell the story (see pyramid story)

talk about the characters or role play them.

recall the main ideas or draw a picture of what happened.

recall the supporting detail or make up a trivia quiz

understand story sequence and structure

make inferences about the story using evidence from the text.

Look more closely at words.

Develop the themes.



Compare and contrast ideas.

Write new endings and ask "what if" questions.

Ask open ended questions with no right or wrong answers

Alternative Assessment:

Have the students draw a picture of what happened.

Make a Crossword puzzle

Have the student role play or enact a play

Go beyond comprehension

Other hints: for teaching more effectively

Call on each student every day: measure students' progress

Make good use of technology

Make your teaching relevant

Vary your teaching methods: not everyone learns in the same way.

This is a pyramid story about Aunt Polly's Fence from *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* by Mark Twain.

TOM SAWYER  
WHITE FENCE.  
AUNT POLLY SAID "PAINT!"  
"WHO ME?" ASKED TOM  
MANY FRIENDS WANTED TO PAINT  
LIFE WAS FUN AGAIN FOR TOM.

**APPENDIX B:**  
**INTRODUCTORY POETRY HANDOUT**

Many people who are learning English are scared of writing poetry in English. They think poetry in English has to rhyme or have rhythm. Both of these things are hard for learners. Today's class will show you a kind of poem that doesn't need rhyme or rhythm. You can write poetry in English.

One type of poem you can write is an acrostic poem. In an acrostic poem, the first letter of each line spells a word which is the title of the poem. The lines can be any length, and do not have to rhyme. Two examples are given below. (The first one is from Littlejohn; the second is by William Snyder) Some good ideas for acrostic poems are seasons (fall, winter), weather (rain, wind), places (Seoul, beach), and people (mother, son).

Tired, longing for a bed  
Reading, trying to kill the time  
Aching legs, no room to stretch  
Visits to distant friends, when will we arrive?  
Empty seats to slump across  
Loathing the return

Smokey sky hangs low blue-gray  
East of everywhere is where I am  
Over the city from evening  
Until morning  
Lights twinkle like stars



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# Comprehensive list of presentations at the fifth annual Korea TESOL conference; Kyoung-ju South Korea October 3-5, 1997

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The 1997 KOTESOL conference committee gratefully recognizes the following people who presented papers, conducted workshops and led discussions at the 1997 Korea TESOL annual conference. The following list is in alphabetical order by last name of primary speaker. Presentation titles are shown in italicized text.

- Carl Adams, Si-sa-yong-o-sa *Teaching Low-level Listening and Speaking: The Journey Doesn't Have to Be Uphill!*
- Ron Aizen, Korea Advanced Institute of Technology (KAIST) *Internet Homepage Design for English Instruction*
- Ron Aizen, Korea Advanced Institute of Technology (KAIST) *Advice Columns and Classroom Activities*
- Steven D. Aran, Longman *Strategies in using Exploring English*
- Steven D. Aran, Si-sa-yong-o-sa *Using Crosscurrents*
- Allen Ascher, Hongik Media *An EFL Course for Real Communication*
- Allen Ascher, Longman *True Colors*
- Laurie Baker, & Gabrielle Goodwin, Pohang University of Science and Technology (POSTECH) *POSTECH Live-in English Program: A Measure of Success*
- William M. Balsamo, Kenmei Women's College, Japan *From Silent Films to Written Words and Speech*
- John Michael Bellows, Inha University *"Mirror, Mirror": Using the Internet to Promote Globalization and Social Awareness in the EFL Class*
- Troy Blappert, KyungHee University *CALL, & Data-Driven Learning in the Classroom: A Corpus Based Approach for EFL Classes*
- Unju Blappert, Kyungwon College *Internet Based Classroom Activities*
- Karen Brock, Oxford University Press *Good News, Bad News: News Stories for the EFL Classroom*
- David Campbell, Foreign Language Education Center, Inha University *Visual Dynamics: Art and Literature in the ESL/EFL Classroom*
- Kip Cates, Tottori University and Teachers College, Columbia University, Tokyo *English for Inter-Asian Understanding: Korea and Japan*
- Lynda Chapple, The Chinese University of Hong Kong *Using Video Material in Listening Strategy Testing*
- Michael Cholewinski, Trident School of Languages; Duane Kindt, Trident School of Languages; William Kumai, Nagoya Seirei Junior College; Paul Lewis, Aichi-Shukutoku JC's Multimedia Centre, & Matthew Taylor, Kinjo Gakuin University *Learning and the Edge of Chaos: Complexity in EFL*
- Fiona Cook, School For International Training *MAT Program Options at the School for International Training*
- Gina Crocetti, Kwangwoon University *Techniques and Methods for Using Video*
- Larry Davies, SchMOOze University *Godzilla Gets Virtual About Language Teaching*
- Jackie Davis, Kwangju University *Communicative Language Learning Through Korean Culture: Challenge Students with an Applied Tourism Project*
- Randall S. Davis, Nagoya City University *Discovering the Instructional Magic of TV Commercials*
- Randall S. Davis, Nagoya City University *Fostering Cross-cultural Understanding via Simulations*
- Richard R. Day, Longman *Impact Issues-Critical Thinking, & Real Discussing*
- Peter Drysdale, Hongik Media *Activities with High Five*
- Peter Drysdale, Si-sa-yong-o-sa *Teaching Parade*
- Carl D. Dusthimer, Hannam University; Tim Grant, Editor of *Green Teacher* magazine; Rebecca Keller, Directorate of Public Works, US 8th Army; Alan Maley, National University of Singapore, & Frank Tedesco, Sejong University *Global Issues Education in Korea*
- Karen Frazier, Oxford University Press *Look! My Students Are Really Talking!*
- Irina V. Gadolina, Yong-In Technical College *An Experience and Some Ideas in Using Computers for Class*

*Management.*

- Steve Garrigues, Kyongbuk National University *Culture in the Classroom: Perceptions and Misperceptions*
- Steve Gershon, Heinemann *Motivating your Students to Fluency...*
- Michael Gibb, Foreign Language Institute, Yonsei University *Korean University Students' Attitudes Toward Language Varieties*
- Steve Golden, & Karen Jamieson, Prentice Hall *New Fifty-Fifty Intro Level: They Speak; They Listen... And They Like It!*
- Carolyn Graham, Oxford University Press *Performing Jazz Chants in the EFL Classroom*
- Melenie Graham, Longman *Using Graded Readers with Children*
- Tim Grant, Editor, *Green Teacher* magazine *Environmental Education Teaching Activities*
- Tim Grant, Editor, *Green Teacher* magazine *Making the Match: Environmental Ed and EFL*
- Thomas Hardy, Tamagawa University *My Values/your Values: An Anthropological Perspective on Films in the Language Class.*
- Mitsuaki Hayase, Mie University, Japan; Etsuo Koboyashi, & Shinobu Nagashima, Rikkyo University, Japan *Linking English Classes at Two Different Universities*
- Marc Hegelson, Cambridge University Press *Active Listening*
- Marc Hegelson, Longman A "New Wave" of *Communicative Language Teaching: The Ideas behind Impact*
- Marc Hegelson, Si-sa-yong-o-sa *Workplace English*
- Jane Hoelker, JALT National Public Relations Chair and Pan-Asian Advisor from JALT; Jeong-ryeol "Jay" Kim, Korea TESOL; Nicholas Dimmit, Thailand TESOL, & Kip Cates, JALT Global Issues N-SIG Coordinator *Pan-Asian Voices: The Classroom Today*
- Joanna Holmes, YBM Si-sa-young-o-sa *Getting Korean Students to Talk: Sidelines and Sidesteps*
- Douglas Hosier, Kyung Hee University *Panel Discussion in the EFL Classroom.*
- Hyun Tae-duck, & Andrew E. Finch, Andong National University *Promoting and Developing English Conversation Skills at the Tertiary Level: A Process Approach in a Traditional Setting*
- Joyce T. Johnston, Fortune Jr. College of Technology, & Commerce *A Survey and Evaluation of Educational Software Programs and Sources*
- Keem Sung-uk, Hannam University *Why a Multimedia Approach?*
- Lawrence Kelly, & Charles Kelly, Aichi Institute of Technology *The Internet TESL Journal's Online Projects*
- David Kemp, Florida State University, & Christopher Weiss, Florida State University *Cross-Cultural Differences and their Impact in the American Classroom*
- David Kestenbaum, Kangnung National University *Using Movie Clips and Cartoons for Storytelling and Paragraph Writing*
- Benjamin Byoung-su Kim, & Karen Tinsley-Kim, Shin-Gu College *It's Not in My Contract: Negotiation Styles in Korean EFL Administration Environments*
- Kim Jeong-ryeol, & Kim Hyun-joo, Korea National University of Education *Elementary English Materials in Korea*
- Kim Jeong-ryeol, Korea National University of Education *English Team-Teaching: Its Ideals and Reality*
- Kim Sook Kyoung, Nose to the Grindstone: *Task Based Activities for Korean Middle Schoolers.*
- Kim Young Mi, Duksung Women's University *Teaching English Enhanced by Technology: Technopia or Technicism*
- Aleda Krause, Prentice Hall *From Listening to Speaking in EFL for Kids*
- Jeff Krum, Oxford University Press *Gateways: Entering the World of English*
- Eleanor Moore Kuykendall, Language Training Center, Hyundai Heavy Industries *Bringing the World Into Your Classroom*
- Craig P. Lambert, Nanzan Junior College *Developing Materials to Create Personal Investment in the Learning Process*
- Darlene Larson, New York University *Plenary; The Special Role of Language in Peace Education*
- Lee Yong-hoon, Kyongbuk Foreign Language High School *Improving Speaking and Writing Abilities Through Dramatization Activities*
- Paul Lewis, Aichi-Shukutoku JC's Multimedia Centre *JALT's On-Line Presence: Changing the Face of a Professional Organization*
- Angela Llanas, Anglo Mexican Cultural Institute *Adolescence, Motivation and Culture*
- Angela Llanas, Anglo Mexican Cultural Institute *The Necessary Bag of Tricks*
- Angela Llanas, The Royal/MacMillan *Kid's Club*
- M. Katherine MacKinnon, Daelim College of Technology *Dealing with Larger Classes: Problems, Solutions, Challenges, and Opportunities*
- Alan Maley, Longman *Introducing the Longman Essential*

- Activator  
 Alan Maley, National University of Singapore *Plenary: Technology: Bane or Boon?*  
 Richard Marshall, *Teaching Public Speaking to ESL Students*  
 Jeanne Martinelli, Pusan National University *Cultural Understanding Through Cross-Cultural Awareness Activities*  
 Jeanne Martinelli, & Phillip O'Neill, Pusan National University *BaFa BaFa: A Cross-Culture Simulation*  
 Peter McCabe, Heinemann *Grammar Is Great!*  
 Michelle M. McGrath, Chonnam University *Making Korean University Students More Comfortable in the English Language Classroom*  
 Armene Modi, Obirin University, Tokyo *Creative Language Activities to Educate for Peace*  
 Peter E. Nelson, Chung-Ang University et al *Student Centered Learning in Asia*  
 Robert Nelson, Hanshin *How to Evaluate Video*  
 Peter E. Nelson, & Yoon-hee Yoo, Chung-Ang University *Student Design of an English Conversation Course*  
 Tim Newfields, Tokai University College of Marine Science *Issues in Computer Literacy in the EFL Classroom*  
 Wade Nichols, Oxford University Press *Focus Pocus*  
 Ted Nickelsburg, Korea Advanced Institute of Technology (KAIST) *How to Use Movie Technology in a Non-technological Way*  
 Ursula Nixon, University of Canberra *Issues in Materials Development for SE Asia*  
 David Nunan, University of Hong Kong *Beyond Traditionalism: What We Have Learned from Twenty Years of Research and Practice in Foreign Language Teaching*  
 Gary J. Ockey, & Steven Sigler, Kanda University of International Studies *Alternative Techniques for Role Play in the KELP Classroom*  
 Marie Oh, Hongik Media *Teaching English Games For Korean Elementary Class.*  
 Adriana Del Paso, McGraw Hill *FANTASY for Primary Students*  
 Guy Phillips, Hanyang University *Producing EFL Content for an Interactive Multimedia CD ROM*  
 Marilyn Plumlee, & Chang MiKyung, University of Hawai'i *"We'll Do It Our Way!": Promoting Cross-Cultural Communication in Needs Analyses for EFL/ESP Programs*  
 Kirsten B. Reitan, Korean Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST);, & Terri-Jo Everest, Pusan University of Foreign Studies *For Technophiles and Technophobes: Is There a Happy Media?*  
 Jack C. Richards, Cambridge University Press *New Interchange*  
 Jack C. Richards, Oxford University Press Springboard: *English Conversation Gets a New Lift!*  
 Jack C. Richards, University of Auckland *Fluency and Accuracy Revisited*  
 Bruce Rogers, International Thompson Publishers *Hints for Teaching TOEFL*  
 Dan Schulte, Cambridge University Press *Let's Talk (by Leo Jones)*  
 Paul Shimizu, Intercom Press *Activating Large Classes*  
 Shin Gyong-gu, & Park Ji-hyon, Chonnam National University *Using the Internet in Teaching College English Classes.*  
 Terry Shortall, David English House *Data-Driven Learning and the Textbook Writer.*  
 Kevin Smyth, Cornell Foreign Language Institute; Jon Marshall, David English House;, & Cho Sook-eun, Sae Myung Foreign Language Institute *Teaching: The Art of Hassling*  
 William Snyder, Korea University *Experienced Untrained Teacher's Perspectives on Classroom Interaction*  
 William Snyder, Korea University *How Not to Create a Reading Textbook*  
 Song Min Jeong, Ewha Women's University *Combining Reading With Writing Instruction: Using Dialogue Journals in Korean EFL Reading Courses*  
 Richard St. John, Yong In College *An ESL Teacher's Power Tools: Doing More with Less*  
 Tim Stookesbeery, Mc-Graw Hill *Content Matters*  
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 John Thurman, Kanzawa Institute of Technology *Providing Free or Low-Cost Internet Services for the EFL Class via the Mac OS*  
 Andrew Todd, Oxford University Press *Playing Games into the Next Millenium*  
 Julia To Dukta, Educational Testing Services (ETS) *TOEFL*

- 2000: Shaping the Future of Language Testing at ETS*
- J. William M. Tweedie, Namju High School *Prime Video for EFL; A practical, Relevant, Integral, Motivating, Enriching Use of Voiceless Video for the Korean Public Classroom*
- Rodney E. Tyson, Daejin University, & Suan Oak, Ewha Woman's University *Increasing the Usefulness of Oral Achievement Tests in Korean University Conversation Classes*
- Rodney E. Tyson, Daejin University *Motivation, Self-confidence, and the Process Approach in Korean University Writing Classes*
- Christopher Wenger, International Thompson Asia ELT *Teaching Listening Skills Effectively Through Video*
- David Willis, & David Paul, David English House *A Task-based Approach to Reading*
- David Willis, David English House *The University of Birmingham Distance Ma in TEFL/TESL*
- Woo Sang-do, Kongju National University of Education WWW: *A Resource and Tool for the EFL Reading Class*
- Barbara H. Wright, Korea University *American Studies Through Film*
- Barbara H. Wright, & William Snyder, Korea University *Workshop for Reading and Writing*
- Liao Xiaoqing, Fujian Institute of Education *Developing Cross-cultural Awareness in the classroom*
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- Gene Zerna, Hongik Media *North American Spoken English*