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Film as Content: An Alternative Approach

LYNDA CHAPPLE

The Chinese University of Hong Kong

Content-based instruction has become an increasingly popular alternative approach to language teaching and learning as it provides students with a meaningful and relevant context for their language and broader educational development. Film is a culturally rich and intellectually stimulating source of content for the EFL learner, and is especially motivating for advanced learners who often become bored in more conventional EFL classes. In this paper I will describe a content-based course on film currently being taught at a university in Hong Kong. I will discuss the advantages of a content-based approach and explain alternative approaches to the use of film in EFL situations. I will conclude by examining student responses to a small investigation into the effectiveness of this approach.

BACKGROUND

The term “content-based instruction” refers to an approach that integrates language instruction with content instruction, but which allows the content to determine the nature and order of the linguistic syllabus (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989; Stryker & Leaver, 1997). In this sense it provides a departure from more traditional linguistically-driven syllabi. Content-based instruction (CBI) in language teaching is not new; however, as a formal approach with theoretical underpinnings, it has gained in popularity, particularly in ESL environments, in the past ten years (Snow & Brinton, 1997). Certain manifestations of CBI have also become popular in EFL settings, especially where ESP courses are central to the curriculum, although generally they have been slower to catch on in Asian contexts.

Many studies have examined the theoretical bases and justifications for the use of CBI. Grabe and Stoller (1997) locate what they see as strong pedagogical support for CBI in second language acquisition research, training studies, educational and cognitive psychology and program outcomes. Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989) argue that CBI provides a meaningful basis for language development, as it not only builds on students’ previous learning experiences and current needs and interests, but also takes account of the eventual purpose for which students’ need the language. By exploiting material that is often intrinsically motivating for students, CBI helps to enhance language development and retention. Further, the content itself can be more intellectually stimulating and challenging for students than is often the case in more conventional language classes. Other important justifications for CBI include the high degree of co-operative learning involved and the ways in which the approach complements an academic curriculum.

Programs based on CBI have taken many forms, but there are generally considered to be three main models for approaches to CBI: theme-based, sheltered and adjunct (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989). Theme-based programs use topics or themes as a basis for structured language development. Typically, several different themes are taught within a teaching term and the language is introduced gradually and recycled throughout the unit. This approach is often used to complement a more traditional language-based syllabus. Sheltered programs involve the teaching of

content courses, often by content-area specialists, in the target language to an identified group of students. The approach is based upon immersion principles and works best with relatively advanced students in an institutional framework. Adjunct programs exist where students are enrolled concurrently in two separate but linked courses—a language and a content course—where there is considerable liaison between the language and content teacher in developing a language course that supports the content area. ESP programs are frequently modeled on this approach. The program that I wish to describe here takes the sheltered model as base, employing an immersion-like approach, but departs from it in important ways.

FILMS AS CONTENT

If content-based instruction is not new, neither is the use of film in language classes. Many of us have been using film or television, either excerpts or whole programs and movies, for a long time, and most of us do not need convincing about its value as a teaching tool. It is not until recently, however, that language teachers have started to use feature length films in more extensive ways (see Williamson & Vincent, 1996); and, I would argue, they have done so with good reason. Film has enormous cross-cultural value and offers linguistic diversity, especially in monolingual situations. In all cultures people tell stories to each other and, as David Wood (1996) has noted, it is the narrative element of feature films that makes them so compelling. In the desire to find out what happens next, students will often, therefore, persevere with a film even if the language is difficult. Given students' experience as film viewers, it becomes possible to develop highly student-centred programs and classroom activities. Further, as Wood (1996) notes, the use of film also helps to extend learning beyond the limits of the classroom; students develop skills and interests that they can pursue throughout their lives. Finally, and importantly, the study of film is intellectually stimulating, challenging and enjoyable for both students and teachers. In an academic environment, it provides an excellent basis for the development of broader academic and critical thinking skills.

APPROACHES TO THE USE OF FILM

There are a variety of approaches to the study of film that can be usefully employed in the language classroom. These can be broadly categorised as (a) language-based, (b) theme-based, (c) genre-based, (d) literature-based, and (e) theory-based.

Language-based approaches are the most commonly used in ELT. These involve either the use of short excerpts to demonstrate or stimulate language use, or the development of more comprehensive integrated skills units based on an individual film (Loneragan, 1984). The approach usually depends on a high degree of teacher control of the film text, especially in terms of lexis, and is therefore often used with lower level to intermediate students.

Theme-based approaches are also popular in ELT. Here the focus is on how the film explores certain themes deemed interesting or relevant to the students, for example, war, race, gender and the environment. I would include cross-cultural approaches here, where enquiry into and comparison of different cultures becomes the thematic concern. Such an approach can be employed usefully across a wide range of levels, and is often favoured by teachers who have less experience and/or background in the teaching of film.

Genre-based approaches provide a departure from theme-based ones in that they take more than the content of the film as their focus; a genre-based approach includes consideration of the narrative and representational elements of the film, in addition to the content. This is not as specialised as it sounds; most of us have a great deal of experience of genre films, these being the most commercially popular (Prince, 1997; Turner, 1993), and most students can, if pushed, identify

some quite complex genre structures and characterisations.

Literature-based options seek to compare a written text with a filmed version. The approach is comparative in nature and is frequently used in upper-secondary and tertiary environments, although the approach itself is suitable for a wider range of levels than this suggests.

The final group of approaches I want to mention is much less common in ELT programs. What I would call “theoretical” approaches historically emerged from film studies departments. They are more academic and require more intellectual and linguistic sophistication on the part of the students and more expertise on the part of the teacher. For these reasons, they are obviously more suitable for upper-intermediate to advanced students. Such approaches include the following: an auteur approach, the study of the films of the same director; a sociological approach, the study of the ways in which films explore social norms; an aesthetic or humanist approach, the study of the emotional and artistic elements of film; an ideological approach, the study of the way the film represents, supports or refutes dominant hegemonic discourses; a cultural studies approach, the study of the ways films both express and create popular culture; and other, more highly theoretical approaches, such as semiotics and post-modernism.

The type of approach one chooses to use, and the methods and activities employed to exploit the film text in the classroom, will depend on the program and lesson objectives and the level and needs of the students. I also find that the form and content of the film itself are powerful determinants in my decisions about classroom presentation, and it is of course possible, and frequently desirable, to vary and mix approaches.

THE PROGRAM AT THE CHINESE UNIVERSITY OF HONG KONG

At the Chinese University of Hong Kong, we teach a course called “Thinking Through the Culture of Film”. The course is offered to undergraduates under the auspices of a General Education program. Students have 2 1/4 hours’ instruction per week over the duration of a thirteen-week semester, and receive credits towards the General Education requirements of their degree. Students are undergraduate Cantonese speakers who have had upward of fourteen years of English language instruction. The course description advises that they should feel confident about their English language abilities when they enter the course and, while it is true that generally most are of an upper-intermediate to advanced level of proficiency, frequently they lack confidence, especially in oral English.

The program runs for a 13-week semester and students attend 3 classes of tutorial instruction each week—one forty-five minute session and one ninety minute session. Eight films are discussed in detail over the course of the semester—seven assigned by the teacher and one nominated by the students. Students view the films outside class. A majority of class time is spent in small group and whole group discussion of films and the issues that arise or are explored in them. A wide variety of films are used including films from various English speaking countries as well as those from Europe, Hong Kong, China and other Asian countries.

The title of this paper suggests the use of film as an “alternative approach” to language learning. This program represents a departure from most traditional language programs inasmuch as we teach very little language per se. The course is taught by ELT staff, but is not offered as a conventional English language subject; rather it has been conceived in broader liberal education terms to develop students’ analytical skills, understanding of cultural issues and aesthetic appreciation. There are no specific English language teaching aims, although the course itself is taught in English and students are required to submit work in English. A broad range of approaches to film are used, particularly those that stimulate more complex intellectual enquiry.

The justifications for such an approach are varied. Our students both need and want to enhance their English skills, yet many fail to take further ELT courses. The reasons for this are manifold: they

may have fulfilled the language requirements of their degree; they may have already taken a number of ELT courses and want to diversify their educational experience; they may be tired of English courses after so many years of formal study; or they may simply be bored. Many students seem to find that this course, where they learn in English (but not about English), while simultaneously developing analytical and critical thinking skills, is a refreshing way to engage with both interesting content and the English language.

THE STUDENTS' RESPONSE

Questions arise about such a program, taught in English in an EFL environment. How far, if at all, does it help to develop students' language skills? What other skills and knowledge do the students acquire? And, how far do students think they have developed? In order to address these questions in part, a small-scale study was undertaken to survey students' beliefs about their own language and academic development. As the constraints of the program currently make more complex pre- and post-testing impossible, I decided to ask students to rate their own development and comment on the skills they thought they had acquired. I did so on the assumption that students' belief in their own improvement is a valid outcome in itself.

METHODOLOGY

As a part of an anonymous end-of-course evaluation, students were asked to rate how far they thought their English language skills had improved throughout the course. They were asked to rate their own improvement in the following six areas: confidence in expressing themselves in English, ability to express their ideas when speaking, ability to express their ideas when writing, English listening skills, knowledge and use of English vocabulary, and English presentation skills. These were all areas in which students had been required to use skills, yet in which they had had little or no formal instruction. Students rated their improvement in the above areas on a four-point Likert scale. The labels assigned to the indices—a great deal, quite a bit, a little, or no improvement—were designed to differentiate the degree of improvement as clearly as possible for the students. In addition, students were given the opportunity to make comments about the use of English as a medium of instruction, and asked to describe what they thought they had learned from the course.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 tabulates the results of students' ratings of their perceptions of improvement in terms of English language skills. Given the relative absence of instruction, the ways in which the students appear to perceive their own development are interesting. The development of confidence rates the highest with 74.2% of students claiming to have improved either a great deal or quite a bit. Listening and speaking skills are the next most highly rated with 67.8% and 67.7% of students respectively seeing a great deal or quite a bit of improvement, yet these were the areas where students received the least instruction. The category of listening is especially interesting considering that only half of the set films were in English. Student comments on the development of listening skills shed further light on this. As one student says: "I like it [the course] because it really improves our listening skills. [The teacher] speaks native English, but it is clear enough for us to understand." What is interesting about this comment, is that it is listening to the teacher speak in English, not listening to the films, which the student identifies as the source of improvement. The language of the content, in other words, appears irrelevant; it is because the language of instruction is English that many students feel they improved.

The other three areas—writing, vocabulary and presentation skills—were the three where a small

amount of instruction was given, yet improvement, although still significant, is rated lower by students. Vocabulary, where most instruction occurred, is rated the lowest. There are a number of possible explanations for these results. It may be that students perceive that forms of more conventional ELT instruction are ineffective in this context. This may be connected to their expectations of the course and of formal instruction in general. In undertaking a course that explicitly distances itself from conventional ELT programs, students may resent the imposition of this type of instruction. Viewed from a slightly different angle, they may expect greater gains where conventional instruction is made explicit. Another possibility is, of course, that the instruction itself was simply ineffective and did not facilitate learning. Student comments, however, do not seem to support this reading, as many identified, often in very positive terms, the development of English vocabulary as a learning outcome. We should note too that although the results for the categories of writing, vocabulary and presentation skills are lower than the other skills, they are not low; in all categories more than fifty percent of students note either a great deal or quite a bit of improvement.

Students did express some frustration at the limitations of their English language skills for dealing with some of the more sophisticated concepts discussed in the course. The temptation in conceptually difficult situations to resort to the use of Cantonese was acknowledged by many. As one student put it,

The instructor helps us to develop confidence in speaking English. However, some ideas may be difficult to express clearly with a second language. In this case, a more in-depth discussion may be impossible.

The comment focuses well on the complex relationship between conceptual challenge and language skills, and it is the nexus of these two areas in the students' responses that offers some of the most interesting data for analysis. Apart from comments about the improvement in their English language abilities, students consistently and repeatedly commented on the development of their analytical skills. As one student says, "I think I have learned to think more when I watch a film." Another puts it very nicely when, in response to the question "What have you learned from the course?", she says,

Movies are not just goods for pleasure, but a powerful platform on which different opinions can be made publicly but yet implicitly. I also learned to pay attention to every detail of the film, which makes the story a whole fiction that conveys some message.

It is in the awareness of the importance of detail and its relationship to the whole that she exhibits the development of depth of understanding and ability to think critically about it. The

TABLE 1
How much have your English language skills improved?*

	A great deal	Quite a bit	A little	No improvement
Confidence expressing myself in English	12.9%	61.3%	19.3%	6.5%
Ability to express my ideas when speaking English	3.2%	64.5%	25.8%	6.5%
Ability to express my ideas when writing in English	12.9%	45.2%	38.7%	3.2%
English listening skills	16.1%	51.7%	29%	3.2%
Knowledge and use of English vocabulary	12.9%	38.7%	41.9%	6.5%
English presentation skills	3.2%	51.6%	38.7%	6.5%

*N = 31

development of analytical skills is one of the central course aims, and comments like this testify to the achievement of those aims. What is more interesting, however, is the way in which comments about the acquisition of analytical and critical thinking skills are frequently linked to those about the development of English skills. This often happens at a sentence level, as in the following: “[I have learned] how to watch and analyse a film and express my idea in English better.” This coupling of analytical and language skills recalls our earlier observation about the relationship between intellectual challenge and enhanced learning. What is interesting here is the possibility that the increase in language ability reported by the students may be a result of the greater intellectual challenge afforded by the content material.

Finally, and importantly, students made a number of comments about the ways in which their ability to perceive and understand issues in a multiplicity of ways had increased. One student says, “[The course] makes me think of questions raised from various aspects—the director’s viewpoint, social expectation, my own feeling”. Another claims, “from now on I’ll try to view and even appreciate a film in a multi-faceted manner”. For some students, it seems the course has also helped to develop different perspectives on understanding; this in itself is a valid pedagogical outcome.

CONCLUSIONS

The small-scale study described here is not comprehensive, nor do I wish to suggest that it provides any conclusive evidence of the effectiveness of these approaches in terms of language development. However, in both formally required university evaluations and this small informal survey, the student responses to the program are very positive indeed. Enthusiasm for the course extends over a range of areas: the development of analytical ability and aesthetic awareness, the development of film knowledge (identified by many students as having useful social applications outside the classroom), the development of English language skills, the development of broader academic skills, the development of interest and enhanced enjoyment and the development of broader understanding about the world and their place in it. One student puts it very nicely when she writes, “the course widens my horizons”. On an intuitive level I feel the students have made a good deal of progress in the development of critical thinking, academic and language skills, but obviously further investigation into this is required. Nonetheless, if student responses are any guide to the validity and effectiveness of language programs, and I believe they are, then the use of film as content in the EFL class warrants serious consideration.

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THE AUTHOR

Lynda Chapple teaches at The Chinese University of Hong Kong where she is developing and teaching courses in the area of film and visual media. Her current research interests involve the use of film in the classroom and the effectiveness of content-based instruction.

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What EFL Teachers Learn from Action Research

ANDY CURTIS

Hong Kong Polytechnic University

Although action research is not new in some educational settings and contexts, such as those in North America or Europe, it is still relatively rare for teachers to think of themselves as researchers in Hong Kong, and elsewhere in Southeast Asia.

One reason for this is the pressures of and constraints within their teaching and learning environments. Despite these conditions, a group of twenty experienced Hong Kong secondary school teachers were asked to and helped to carry out small-scale action research projects in their own classrooms, to explore the reasons for the relative lack of use of spoken English by students in class during their English lessons.

The results of the study show that, not only were the teachers able to learn more about the language interaction patterns in their classrooms from their small-scale, classroom-based action research projects, they were also able to learn more about their learners and about themselves as teachers and as researchers.

It is clear that there is a logical and obvious relationship between the notions of teachers as teaching and learning practitioners, teachers as agents of change, and teachers as researchers. Action Research (AR) is one way of combining these three essential roles, and a way which is gaining increasing attention in Southeast Asia.

As van Lier (1994) pointed out, the idea of AR is more than 50 years old, having been first used by Kurt Lewin in the 1940s (e.g., Lewin 1946). Four decades later, Bell (1987) stated that: "There is nothing new about practitioners operating as researchers" (p.5). However, what Bell might actually mean is that there is nothing new about the idea of teachers as researchers. Despite her implication that teachers have been carrying out classroom research for many years, more recent research in this field reveals the difference between knowing about the existence and possibility of something and operationalizing that knowledge, so that it becomes an action and an activity.

For example, Hancock (1997) points out, despite the fact that "the teacher-as-researcher movement has been in existence for some twenty years" (p.85), relatively few teachers become involved in research. He gives four reasons for this: teachers' low professional status; their lack of confidence; their difficult working conditions; and the difficulties of applying "outsider's research methodologies" to their own contexts and classrooms. Although Hancock's comments and findings are based on and refer to the situation in England, some of his conclusions may well apply to the situation for many classroom language teachers elsewhere, including Southeast Asia.

AR has been defined in many different ways, but, as is often the case, it is sometimes the earlier definitions that stand the test of time. Cohen and Manion (1980) defined AR as "an on-the-spot procedure designed to deal with a concrete problem located in an immediate situation" (p.178). They highlighted the step-by-step nature of the process, and the importance of findings being "translated into modifications, adjustments, directional changes, redefinitions, as necessary" (p.178). However, Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) emphasized the importance of collaboration between

practitioners/classroom teachers and the evolution of change, as a result of their AR. Nunan (1992) also agrees that change is an inherent part of a definition of AR.

THE FOCUS OF THE STUDY

The importance of encouraging the use of spoken English in second language (L2) classrooms in Hong Kong was pointed out by Chen (1981) nearly 20 years ago:

I have learned that the actual minutes or hours spent in an English language class may be the only time students really have the opportunity to speak English..... Therefore, the English teacher's task should be to encourage the students to open their mouths and practice speaking English in the classroom setting (p.124).

One of the first large-scale studies in Hong Kong was carried out by Lai (1993), who identified "three main constraints in the English classroom—the language anxiety factor, the low self esteem factor and inadequate opportunities for meaningful communication" (p.40/41).

Based on further research in Hong Kong classrooms, Tsui (1996) stated that:

Getting students to respond in the classroom is a particular problem that most ESL teachers face...The problem...is particularly acute with Asian students, who are generally considered to be more reserved and reticent than their Western counterparts (p.145).

One important reason for the limited progress in this area in Hong Kong, despite nearly twenty years of research, may be the lack of practical, classroom-based research carried out by teachers to learn more about what is happening (or not happening) in their classrooms and why.

This research project, then, combines two areas—use of spoken English in ESL classrooms and use of practical, classroom-based action research—both of which have been recognized as not only being of importance, but also as areas in which there is much progress to be made.

This project was designed, then, to address two main research questions:

1. Can teachers working in environments such as Hong Kong and elsewhere, with the pressures of and constraints within their working environments, successfully engage in practical, classroom-based action research?

2. If so, what can the teachers learn about themselves, their students and their teaching and learning environments through an exploration of the underlying causes of limited use of English in their English lessons?

The study is made up of four parts, two of which will be the focus of this paper: the teacher's identification of factors affecting the use of spoken English in their classrooms and the teachers' identification of project outcomes in relation to their own learning. The other two parts of the study, details of the approaches the teachers used to encourage the use of more English and the teachers' evaluation of their success or otherwise, will be discussed in more detail elsewhere (Curtis, forthcoming).

THE STUDY

A group of twenty secondary school teachers attended a fifteen-hour in-service course arranged over six Saturday mornings (2.5 hours each week). The course was entitled Language Systems and the English Syllabus for Secondary Schools and was organized by the School of Professional and Continuing Education (SPACE), part of the University of Hong Kong.

The teachers were asked to carry out small-scale action research projects in their own classrooms, to explore the reasons for the relative lack of use of spoken English by students in class during their English lessons. Although the course designer and presenter put forward the focus

of the AR projects, ie, how to encourage the use of more use of spoken English in class through an exploration of causes and the development of possible solutions, the teachers were given the option to develop their own different focus. However, as the above discussion of previous studies shows, this has been an area of concern for Hong Kong teachers for some time, and all 20 of the teachers chose to focus on the promotion of spoken English in their classrooms.

The teachers were asked to first find out about and collect data on their perceptions of the possible causes for the relative lack of spoken English in their classrooms. To do this, they drew on their own experience, observed their classrooms and took notes on, for example, their own and their students' language behaviors, and collected information from their students, using questionnaires, small group discussions and other types and methods of data-collection.

Based on this data, they designed tasks and activities, as well as different approaches and techniques, for encouraging and increasing the use of spoken English in their classrooms. They then observed and made notes on any changes which occurred in their students' English language behaviors, and evaluated the success (or lack thereof) of the changes they had introduced against their original aims and goals.

To avoid the tendency to evaluate, rather than observe, the teachers were given guidance, for example, showing and stressing the difference between: "When put into groups, the students soon stopped attempting to speak in English and went back to speaking in Cantonese," which is an observation, versus "Attempts to get students to speak English in small groups didn't work", which is an evaluation.

TEACHERS' IDENTIFICATION OF FACTORS AFFECTING THE USE OF SPOKEN ENGLISH IN HONG KONG CLASSROOMS

The teachers identified a number of reasons beyond those mentioned above for the limited use of English in ESL classrooms in Hong Kong.

In the classroom, two parties are usually thought of: teachers and students. However, the teachers identified three parties involved in the interactions in their classrooms: themselves, the particular student(s) they were communicating with and the other students. The teachers also realized that these three parties are reacting on at least three different levels: knowledge and skills, behavior, and affective factors.

Some of the teachers identified a "vicious circle" or "vicious cycle" being set up. A lack of confidence or lack of language knowledge leads to the student producing an incorrect response, which then receives a negative response from the other students (or the teacher), which makes the student wish they had not attempted to answer in the first place, so reinforcing their tendency to avoid even trying to use spoken English in future.

The teachers also became aware of the role they play in creating and perpetuating this situation. As one teacher put it: "I think teachers can be the major reason why there is lack of oral interaction in English in the classroom." Another gave the cause as being because "the lesson is too teacher-centred and students have not enough chances to speak." In relation to teachers' pedagogic knowledge and skills, one another teacher referred to "the quality of teacher training and the availability of qualified teachers providing professionalism in the classroom" as being a limiting factor.

An interesting example of the teachers' fears and doubts about trying "new" approaches was provided by the teacher who wrote that: "For the teacher, oral interaction in class is very time-consuming. It may cause discipline problems." The reference to time factors was made by many teachers, but this comment also shows what this teacher feels about using more spoken English in her classes, i.e., that it might lead to discipline-related problems. In this case, the associated feelings appear to be classifiable as negative, and it would be interesting to see what would happen if

her feelings about the possible effects of greater use of English by students in her classes were more positive.

The teachers also identified another important area which is sometimes overlooked in relation to classroom interaction: communication—intrapersonal and interpersonal. Intrapersonal communication, less well known, but equally important as the interpersonal kind, comes from our communication with ourselves, as we respond and react to what we hear and see ourselves saying and doing. Interpersonal communication occurs when we communicate with others, in this case, student-student and student-teacher interactions.

Based on their data gathering, the teachers were also able to identify two kinds of environmental factors: those operating within the school system and those operating outside of it. One of the language-related internal factors in Hong Kong involves schools in which English is the official medium of instruction (EMI), but in reality Cantonese is used. As one of the teachers put it: “The medium of instruction of my school is English—but in name only. Cantonese is used in different science and social science subjects...This practice aggravates the problem of lack of oral interaction.” This comment was made by a number of other teachers, one of whom reported that, “Although the school they {the students} study in is an English medium one, ninety-nine percent of their classes are conducted in Cantonese.”

Other internal environmental factors, such as class size and student:teacher ratios, were also identified by the teachers: “The size of the normal class is an obstacle. There are over 40 students in one normal class and there are only 40 minutes in each lesson.” Another example of an internal factor was syllabus requirements, often in relation to time constraints: “The tight and long syllabus also limits the use of time by teachers for oral interaction...it is not “economical” to “waste” time like that. Thus the teacher will usually give up on the oral interaction and continue the teaching or lecturing method instead.” The fact that some teachers may see time spent on developing oral skills as being a “waste of time”, in relation to what must be covered on the syllabus for the exam, has clear and considerable implications for the development of these oral skills.

The main environmental factors outside school identified by the teachers were the lack of opportunity to use English outside of school or the lack of a need to do so, as Chen (1981) described the situation in Hong Kong nearly 20 years ago: “In almost all other situations, Hong Kong students can rely on using Cantonese.” Compare this, for example, to the following teacher’s comment: “My F1 students feel there is no need to communicate in English in their daily lives. They use Cantonese to talk with their friends, classmates and family.” These two comments are important as they show that, despite all of the many other changes that Hong Kong has experienced over the two decades, these factors have remained almost constant, showing very little change.

One of the most important contributions that this study makes is in identifying a number of social factors influencing the lack of spoken English in Hong Kong classrooms. These social factors can be grouped under three headings: socio-psychological, socio-economic and socio-political.

Although “culture” is a term which should be used with caution, as it has so many possible connotations and meanings, what might be considered to be “cultural factors” were described by some of the teachers. According to one teacher, “Apart from peer group pressure, self-effacement is exerting great influence on the behavior of my students.” Tsui’s (1996) comments (mentioned earlier) were echoed by one of the teachers: “There is a fundamental difference between the West and the East. In the western countries, students are more active in class and they are willing to take part in class activity. As for the students in eastern countries like Hong Kong, they play a passive role.”

What is important here is not, as is often thought, whether these cultural generalizations are “true” or not, or to what extent they are true, as all such generalizations may claim to be true to some extent. What is more important is the fact that, if these teachers believe these statements to be

true, then their students may do the same, and behave accordingly, reacting and responding in ways that reinforce the generalizations, in effect making them true.

The association between family background, income and education means that these factors can be grouped together under socio-economic factors. The relationship between these factors and others, such as self-confidence, was highlighted by one of the teachers: "Their family background affects their [the students'] character. As the majority come from low-educated families, they lack self-confidence." The same teacher also noted the relationship between family background and another factor, opportunities for practice outside the classroom: "Furthermore, they can hardly practice their oral English at home even if they want to because... their family members know little English. They are not encouraged to speak English at home" [emphasis added]. This finding was supported by another teacher's observation: "Most of the elderly in the families do not understand English."

The end of more than 150 years of British colonial rule in Hong Kong has, of course, been accompanied by political change. However, another social factor, socio-political influences, is the most important recent factor, as it relates to the recent change of sovereignty. One teacher reported that, "A lot of my students tell me that English will no longer be popular in Hong Kong after 1997." Again, as explained above, what is important is not so much the truth of the statement regarding the post-reunification popularity of English, as the extent to which people believe it, as it is this belief that will determine how influential this factor will be.

One effect of the return of Hong Kong to China has been an increase, in some cases a dramatic increase, in the number of children from mainland China attending Hong Kong schools. For example, one teacher reported that in his school, "95% of our students are new Chinese immigrants...they have extremely limited English language education if at all from China." This problem of low levels of ability to use English, as the previous studies have show, has also been a concern in Hong Kong for many years. However, adding a whole layer of cultural and historical differences to the linguistic complexities probably adds to the influences and factors that shape the use (or lack of use) of spoken English in Hong Kong's classrooms.

TEACHERS' IDENTIFICATION OF PROJECT OUTCOMES AND THEIR OWN LEARNING

Having identified the factors which were limiting their students' use of spoken English in class, the teachers set about trying to change their own behavior as well as trying to motivate students by using, for example, more information-gap games. Although the teachers found that their attempts to increase the use of spoken English in their classrooms met with varying degrees of success, all of the teachers agreed that positive change had occurred. However, one of the most important findings was the teachers' belief-realization that they were able to and capable of doing research into their own classrooms. There was the teachers' belief-realization that they could learn more about what was happening in their classrooms, which could help them to better understand the language teaching and learning happening (or not happening) in their classrooms, through this kind of small-scale AR project. This increased awareness and knowledge led to a greater understanding, which, in turn, led to these teachers trying out new approaches, techniques, tasks and activities, as this teacher's conclusion showed:

Overall, this project has been worthwhile. Personally it has reminded me of how important a role T [teacher] behaviour has in classroom interaction. The project stimulated a questionnaire [given to students] the results of which produced a new strategy which is having a positive effect on oral ability and T/P [teacher/pupil] interaction in the classroom.

According to Johnston (1990): "An aim of staff development must surely be to encourage the continuing evolution of the competent, well-informed, reflective teacher" (p.25). The results of this

study show that, with support and guidance, language teachers, even those working in difficult and demanding contexts, can become experts in their own classrooms through AR and reflective practice.

THE AUTHOR

Andy Curtis is an assistant professor in the Department of English at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. His main research interests relate to EAP (English for Academic Purposes) at the graduate level, and teacher development, in particular, approaches to reflective practice and the management of change in language education in Southeast Asian contexts.

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Popular Culture And Language Education

MARTIN DIBBS

Kwangju University

HYPOTHESIS

Korean EFL students who are provided with a background in the history and development of Western popular culture, both in its effect and influence upon social, political and economic evolution and its effect upon written and spoken English, will gain a better overall understanding and fluency in the language than Korean EFL students who are provided only with instruction in the standard language tools of reading, writing, listening and speaking.

BASIS FOR HYPOTHESIS

English is a fluid, constantly evolving language that takes nourishment from a number of contributing sources. While new etymology, phraseology and idioms are constantly being added by exposure of the language to our burgeoning, technologically-linked, multi-cultural globe, perhaps the biggest contributor to growth in the English language is Western popular culture. This culture has many facets encompassing the realms of music, art, film, literature, radio, television and, most recently, the Internet. It could be argued that many of the great upheavals, social and otherwise, that have enveloped the West in the last half of the twentieth century have found their roots and their reflection in developments in popular culture. It seems reasonable, therefore, to suggest that a keener knowledge of these events, developments, and influences can only help to increase EFL students' understanding of the finer nuances of contemporary English.

If one accepts the current trend in thinking that a cognitivist approach to learning language, in which the student is encouraged to actively develop and apply his or her own methods of learning, is more advantageous than the traditional, non-participatory methods based solely on exposure to the written and spoken word, then a course in popular Western culture, in which the student is both instructed in English and required to use English as an analytical and a research tool, should prove to be both an interesting and vital addendum to an EFL program. This paper will provide examples and discussion of various applications of popular culture for teaching contemporary English.

EXEGESIS

Someone once asked former Beatle John Lennon for his definition of rock and roll. He replied, "Sex and attitude." With those words he managed to explain the huge changes in Western culture brought about by the advent and growth of popular music, and crystallized the youth movement that would eventually challenge conventions in areas ranging from art and fashion to politics, religion, and sexuality.

It is the nature of popular music to renew itself, to keep changing and evolving, and to occasionally look back on itself with a jaundiced and cynical eye. But, like all aspects of culture and

society, there is more to popular music and popular culture than meets the eye or ear. How did we travel from Elvis Presley to Rage Against The Machine in four short decades? A brief analysis of the myriad changes in popular culture over the last forty years may provide some clues to the importance of said culture not only in Western, but in Asian societies as well. Such an analysis may also provide us with some suggestions as to the value of linking popular culture and language in an educational model.

Before I became a teacher, I spent fifteen years working as a professional musician. During that time I was able to observe firsthand the effects of popular music and culture on many kinds of people in different countries and societies. I was always struck by the power of music as entertainment and as a significant means of communication. I find myself today in the fortunate position of being employed by a university that is willing to stretch the boundaries of language education and explore the possibilities of linking language education with an exploration of related popular culture. In this paper I will outline some of my experiences and methods for developing programs that link language and cultural studies.

Before we look at program development, however, let us briefly look back at the development of Western popular culture since the 1950s. Since music is my area of expertise, I will concentrate on this field with some reflection on related developments in other areas.

The 1950s was a period of relative innocence for the West. The Second World War and the Korean Conflict had ended, and America and other Western countries were beginning to enjoy the benefits and prosperity of the post-war period. This was the seeding ground of the Baby Boom generation. For those fortunate enough to be in the majority, America was a land of apple pie and Norman Rockwell. People became fat and contented.

For other parts of American society, however, times were not as golden. After serving faithfully during the war years, many minorities returned to America to discover they were still very much second class citizens. Many women also discovered that their services, so valuable during wartime, were no longer required. This was a time of racism, segregation and inequality. A time of *Donna Reed* and *Father Knows Best*.

While the Women's Movement was not to find its full voice until the 1960s, Black culture found a way to express itself vibrantly. America began to awaken to the "race" records of the period and to hear the joys and sorrows of Black experience expressed in the original American art forms of jazz, blues, rhythm and blues, and a new type of music that took its name from a slang expression for making love. That new type of music was "Rock and Roll", and not only America's Blacks were listening. American teen-agers, feeling the first pangs of rebellion, heard the music too. One of those teen-agers was a truck driver's apprentice from Tupelo, Mississippi named Elvis Presley.

When we listen to Elvis's music today, it sounds almost unbearably sweet and innocent. We must remember, however, just how shocking and dangerous his music was considered in a conservative American society still unsure how to treat its minority members. That society, soon to be called "the Establishment," was truly frightened by this young man. His early concerts were even filmed by the police because his dancing was considered potentially obscene. He became an instant hero to millions of teen-agers, not just in America, but wherever his music was played.

This same spirit began to find itself expressed in other areas of culture as well. James Dean and Marlon Brando both began their careers portraying "angry young men" (the short-lived Dean never really played anything else). Films like *The Blackboard Jungle* portrayed youth dissatisfied with the values of its elders. The theme song from this movie, *Rock Around The Clock* became an international hit and struck a very positive chord with four young men from Liverpool, England. As The Beatles, they would come to epitomize youth culture in the 1960s and beyond.

The Beatles and, perhaps to a lesser extent, Bob Dylan, became the voice of cultural change in the 1960s. The products of working-class backgrounds in England and America respectively, they offered a voice that challenged the perceptions and rigidity of the very class structures that had

produced them. Popular music became more than entertainment. It became the vehicle for a message. This message reflected the views and feelings of an increasingly disenfranchised, but also increasingly powerful, youth culture. Popular music became their voice, and modern troubadours sang paeans of love, peace, brotherhood and equality. The fact that these songs were sung against a background of the Vietnam War, political assassinations, race riots and bra burnings made their lyrics all the more poignant. All was not “peace and love”, however. Many lost their way during this era. Many significant voices were lost to the indulgences of the “drug culture”. Nevertheless, when The Beatles finally disbanded in 1970 they left behind them a very different world.

The dawning of the 1970s witnessed the triumph of “style” over “substance” in much of Western popular culture. The societal pendulum swung wearily from the fierce social dedication of 60s rock music to the self-indulgent, pulsing dance rhythms of disco. This trend continued unabated until another clarion call sounded from the United Kingdom. A time of mass unemployment and disenchantment with a strongly conservative government, coupled with a revulsion for the excesses of disco and “dinosaur” art-rock bands like Pink Floyd and Genesis, gave birth to another angry young generation. The Punk and New Wave movements once again took the basics of American rock and roll (and a new form of music, reggae, native to Jamaica and itself often the victim of political repression), turned them inside-out, and shouted their dissatisfaction to the world.

The 1980s saw a major new force emerge in the dissemination of Western popular music and, subsequently, popular culture. That force was music video. For the first time, audiences could see the faces and images behind the music. Music was no longer words and melodies drifting through the airwaves. It became more concrete. Consequently the messages it conveyed about both style and substance became more concrete as well. While some have decried the advent of video as sounding the death knell of imagination (the listener no longer was required to create his or her own images to accompany the song), it can be argued that this new “art-form” was a prime force in exporting popular culture around the world.

The 1990s have witnessed continued diversification of popular music and culture. Rock and Roll shares the contemporary stage with Retro (epitomized by the Northern uproar of neo-Beatles, Oasis), Grunge (the late, lamented Nirvana), Rap, Hip-Hop, Reggae, Hardcore and Techno. Each style has its own leaders, its own culture, its own fashion and its own language. Over time this new language has been incorporated into the mainstream. This evolving vocabulary is reflected in all aspects of media, entertainment and society. Unfortunately, it is seldom reflected in the textbooks we use to teach language. That is why it is so important to develop courses of instruction that reflect the vocabulary, idioms and expressions of popular culture.

METHODOLOGY

To date, I have developed two courses currently being offered at Kwangju University. *Pops English* (PE) is offered by the Kwangju University Foreign Language Center while *Pop Song English* (PSE) is a general course recently added to the permanent curriculum of the University proper. Textbooks are under development for these courses at present, but I will outline here the core methodology used in teaching them.

The two are similar courses. PE is geared to small classes of 10 - 20 and designed for an eight-week term. PSE, on the other hand, is a full-semester course geared towards larger classes of 50 - 100 students.

Each fifty-minute class is divided into four segments:

1. Each class begins with an introduction to the song to be studied that day. The students are provided with a brief background on the performing artist and, where appropriate, the contributions of the artist to popular music and culture are examined. This portion of the class gives students an opportunity to practice their listening and analytical skills.

2. Students are provided hand-outs with the lyrics to the song. Some key words are missing. The song is played (usually twice) and students are asked to complete the missing words. These missing words are then discussed one by one. Once again, this segment gives students the opportunity to hone their listening skills.

3. Vocabulary, idioms and expressions are defined, explained, and discussed. This gives students the opportunity to understand the meaning and derivation of terminology they are constantly exposed to in popular songs, movies and other media, but which are generally ignored by most contemporary EFL texts.

4. The meaning of the song is discussed. Where appropriate, the song may also be discussed and analyzed in its historical context. If the song is available in video format, the students may be asked what kind of visual imagery they would use to compliment the song. After watching the video, they can compare their vision with that of the artist. The purpose of this segment is to help students develop conversational and analytical skills and to promote the use of their imaginations.

CONCLUSION

I stated earlier in this paper that my previous career as a professional musician and producer had helped prepare me to design and teach these new courses. This should not discourage those with dissimilar backgrounds from attempting to teach similar courses. Histories of popular culture, artist backgrounds, and song lyrics are available in many books and comparable information can also be found on the Internet. With appropriate research and study, any EFL instructor should be able to develop his or her own programs. As a starting point, I have found the music of the following artists to be both useful and of interest to my students:

1950s: Elvis Presley, Buddy Holly, Chuck Berry, B.B. King

1960s: Beatles, Beach Boys, Bob Dylan, Creedence Clearwater, Simon and Garfunkel, Jimi Hendrix, Rolling Stones

1970s: Elton John, Bob Marley, Stevie Wonder, David Bowie, Chicago, Bread, James Brown, Elvis Costello, Klaatu, John Lennon, Paul McCartney, Jim Croce, Don McLean

1980s: Van Halen, The Police, Dire Straits, Bangles, Romantics, King's X, Bryan Adams, Prince, Marshall Crenshaw, Phil Collins, Richard Marx, Extreme

1990s: Oasis, The Verve, Rage Against The Machine, Radiohead, Backstreet Boys, Sara McLachlin, Joan Osborne, Will Smith, Four Non-Blondes, Counting Crows, Janet Jackson, Ziggy Marley, Sting, Blur, World Party

A final thought, instructors with interests in other areas of popular culture (art, literature, fashion etc.) should also be encouraged to use their specialized knowledge to develop EFL courses that explore these subjects. It is my hope that, in the near future, EFL students will be able to take courses, taught in English, that will explore a number of areas of interest. This approach will encourage the use of English as a learning tool rather than as a subject in and of itself. These programs could signal an exciting new direction for EFL instruction.

THE AUTHOR

Martin Dibbs was born in Manchester, England. After earning a degree in Philosophy from the University of Western Ontario, he pursued a career as a professional musician. He toured Canada, the United States, and elsewhere until 1992. A songwriter since the early 1970s, he has published more than 300 compositions. His songs have appeared on popular music compilations in Europe and America. Dibbs is a member of the Society of Composers, Authors and Music Publishers of Canada (SOCAN). His poetry and short stories have been translated into several languages and have appeared in publications in North America, Europe and Asia. He is currently teaching English in the Department of English at Kwangju University, South Korea.

Authentic English for Modestly-skilled Listeners: It's on the Radio

ROBERT J. DICKEY

Kyongju University

INTRODUCTION

It is uncontested in the ELT profession that listening practice makes a direct impact on not only the listening comprehension, but also the production skills of our students. In order to maximize student use of listening opportunities, we must address three student concerns: topical interest, difficulty, and authenticity. In the classroom we must generalize, and point to areas of common ability and interest (we hope!) in addressing the first two concerns. Authenticity is the step-child of teaching. Teachers struggle to find and use authentic material, and textbooks claim use of authentic material. However, despite definitions, everyone wonders what “authentic” really is, and when it might become unauthentic due to age, formatting, editing, or mere inclusion in a book! Because of the difficulty in preparing current authentic materials, most teachers settle for something less.

A source of authentic listening materials exists in Korea which nearly every student can access—the radio. Of course, the English language instruction programs broadcast over the radio are an option, but we might find these to be hardly authentic, considering how the “authentic” movie and music clips are utilized. Better programs are nevertheless available.

BROADCASTS AVAILABLE IN KOREA

A partial listing of radio broadcasts available in South Korea is included in Table A. Stations on the AM band include KBS Radio News in English (broadcast in the evening) and AFKN-Radio (available near US military installations and on some cable-tv/radio networks). Shortwave radio broadcasts in English which can be received in South Korea on simple radio/antenna systems include Voice of America, BBC, Radio Canada International, Radio Japan, and China Radio International (and until very recently, Voice of Russia). A larger investment in the radio/antenna system can bring in additional transmissions on a regular basis, such as Radio Manila. Via the Internet, literally hundreds of radio stations and current audio files can be obtained (see Table B for a few Internet addresses).

Of course, we should not ignore the television broadcasts available in South Korea as well: AFKN-TV, Arirang TV, and occasional English simulcasts or English program broadcasts on Korean TV, as well as the satellite broadcasts of STAR-TV, NHK (Japan) English simulcasts, and the half-dozen other English language channels available.

SHORTWAVE RECEPTION

Many radios and radio/cassette systems include a “shortwave band.” Less expensive systems generally use analog tuning—these tuners may be so imprecise as to make reception of even a strong signal uncertain. Generally, if the “shortwave band” isn't divided into 3 or more different tuning

sections, each at least 6 centimeters long (or at least 15cm of tuning length), tuning can be quite difficult, especially in the mountainous regions of Korea. A digital tuner alleviates this problem of precision. (It should be pointed out, however, that the author's principal radio/cassette recorder for this project does not meet either of these two analog tuner qualifications.)

More important than the tuner, however, is the antenna. Radios with shortwave tuning generally include a telescopic antenna, this should be fully extended. The radio/antenna should be next to a window, away from florescent lights and electric motors (which cause interference) and pointing in the general direction of the transmission. It is quite important to remember that the same broadcast can be sent from different transmitters, in different lands, at different times of the day. These may be on different frequencies. The point is that we need to "tune" (orient) the antenna as well as the tuner. Another option, which really isn't quite as difficult as it may sound, is the external antenna. (See Appendix A.)

A third concern in reception is local broadcast interference. While local public broadcasts are not generally transmitted in frequencies which conflict with short-wave broadcasts, there is an important exception: when the receiver is very near to a powerful transmitter. The interfering signal, whether a local tv/radio broadcast antenna, microwave transmissions from private corporate communications, cellular phone antenna, or military communications, can overpower wide ranges of the short-wave dial. This may be a nearly insurmountable problem. Generally there are fewer local broadcasts in the midnight to 5 A.M. hours.

A fourth issue is natural interference, particularly from sunspots and weather. The multi-year cycle of solar activity is on the downswing; the problem of solar interference should decrease over the next few years. Lightning affects signal clarity, even when the storm is hundreds of miles away, if the lightning is near the signal path from transmitter to receiver. On the other hand, as many people know, cloud cover enhances reception. Local buildings, even trees, can interfere with reception if they are very near the antenna. Radio signals generally travel better at night, and over water.

One further consideration is consistency of reception. Shortwave has neither the signal stability of AM nor the stereophonic purity of FM. Transmitted over long distances, the quality of shortwave transmissions will ebb and flow, often within mere moments, as atmospheric activity in the path from antenna to receiver affects the signal. Within reasonable bounds, this can be a useful challenge for students. On the other hand, it can be an unreasonable difficulty for experienced (native-speaking) shortwave listeners. Experience within the listeners' own locality will identify transmissions that can be received regularly with maximal clarity.

A final point is scheduling. Shortwave schedules are written in UTC time (Coordinated Universal Time, previously known as Greenwich Mean Time, GMT). Most shortwave broadcasts are repeated throughout the day, but Korea is in the UTC +9 time zone, and in many cases English-medium programming is more limited during our "peak hours" as broadcasters focus on Asian-language transmissions. Schedules vary by seasons, seek internet web-pages for current schedules.

USES OF RADIO

Innumerable articles have been written on the need for listening practice. Nunan's (1997) article "Listening in Language Learning" has a good bibliography from which to get started. Radio has been used as a teaching medium almost since its inception, with lectures and study courses broadcast both live and on tape-delayed bases. Whether using designed instructional materials, or "authentic" programming, radio provides another option for teaching and learning. See Parker and Monson (1980) for general background in this field.

Can radio be used in the classroom? Certainly, though there are a few issues to be dealt with; live

broadcasts are unpredictable, and seldom is the ideal broadcast transmitted at class-time. Using recorded broadcasts, however, introduces concerns of copyright violation and quality of reproduction. Internet radio broadcasts, which often use clips that remain available at the sight for days, and can usually be downloaded and saved without copyright restriction, alleviate this concern, but availability of technology and the length of the recordings can be an issue for the classroom. Tuzi (1998) discusses classroom use of internet radio in more depth.

The BBC webpage also discusses using radio, both within and outside the classroom, at http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/BBC_English/suggesti.htm and http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/BBC_English/usingrad.htm.

Radio is an ideal classroom supplement however, and that is the focus of the remainder of this paper. Two issues must first be addressed difficulty of material, and replaying.

Most of the listings in the tables that follow this article do not focus on English language learners, particularly the modestly-skilled. However, our students work hard to understand things that interest them (look how hard they work on *Time* magazine!). When students record and replay the material, revisiting more frequently the more difficult sections, we can expect that many students will understand most of the material, even when it is not oriented towards student-listeners.

The issue of copyright, and the education/fair-use exemption from copyright restrictions, is one of the most misunderstood, and vociferously debated, issues in teaching. (Recent legislation in the United States may even challenge this exemption!) It has been generally accepted, however, that single copies of broadcast materials, for research and study, is not a copyright infringement. In plain English, this means that if the students make their own copies from the radio, for their own study purposes, there should be no problems. It is when teachers make multiple copies that questions begin to be asked.

BROADCAST SOURCES FOR MODESTLY-SKILLED STUDENTS

Most of the “authentic English” radio sources are not geared towards listeners with modest skills in English. The remainder of this paper discusses sources that will be less difficult for learners of English.

The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and the Voice of America (VOA) are the pre-eminent broadcasters of English programming around the world, they also both offer programming, geared to persons with less than native-speaker competencies in English.

Voice of America Special English programming is broadcast 365 days per year, and includes “Life in America” features, lasting from three to ten minutes. A cassette tape including recording from this program is available with this paper-VOA sends sampler tapes out freely, along with scripts to the recordings. An important feature of the VOA programming is availability of scripts for most news and features broadcasts, these can be downloaded from <http://www.ibb.gov/newswire/> and [gopher://gopher.voia.gov:70/11/service/newswire](http://gopher.voia.gov:70/11/service/newswire). (Both sites available.) Voice of America specifically does not restrict copyright of their broadcasts and newswires, they only ask that the source be identified. Audio can also be downloaded or recorded from their web-site-this makes VOA perhaps the most Teacher-friendly listening resource in Asia.

“Special English” is a term used by both VOA and BBC to identify broadcasts using a limited vocabulary and slower speaking speeds. The VOA Special English vocabulary set can be downloaded from <http://www.voia.gov/special/sevocab.html>. (Available.)

An extract from the minutes of a production meeting held about the main World Service news and the particular challenge of Slow News follows:

What is the purpose of Slow News ?

There was a wide spread here, between basically an English lesson to basically a news bulletin. The facilitating nature of Slow News was apparent-though some people doubted if we could ever realistically expect listeners to progress to a full speed World Service News.

The main points were:

- practice for those listeners with slower listening fluency (than native speakers)
- a means of widening the audience for WS news & information
- a linguistic leg-up to the news at native-speaker speed
- a benchmark for World Service news writers who may wish to address a non-native speaking audience
- To present topical, objective, accurate news in a readily understandable form to listeners whose first language is not English.
- To enable the listener to be able to understand a news bulletin more easily; to be able to compare what they have heard with a similar bulletin immediately afterwards in their own language. This aids comprehension and adds to size of vocabulary.
- To provide listening practice
 - .. to improve comprehension by removing impediments
 - .. to prepare the listener for standard news broadcasts
- To make it possible for listeners to develop their listening skills and extend their knowledge of English (H. Norbrook, personal communication, October 14 1998).

The BBC website describes the design of BBC English-study programming. "BBC English programs are produced to fit in broadly with the levels of the BBC English Core Curriculum." Unfortunately, no programs are broadcast in Asia below Level 4, levels 4-6 are for students at an intermediate level. As a point of reference, BBC's descriptions of Level 3 and Level 4 follow:

Level 3: Has a limited range of English sufficient for everyday practical needs. Sound knowledge and control of basic English vocabulary and grammar. Difficulty in more exacting situations. Approximately at Council of Europe's "Waystage" level-could function socially and at work during temporary visits to another country.

Level 4: Has a basic range of English sufficient for familiar, non-pressurising situations. Communication and comprehension somewhat restricted due to weaknesses in accuracy, fluency, appropriacy and organisation. Approximately at Council of Europe's "Threshold Level"-could lead social and business life when living permanently in another country. (BBC, 1998)

There are 9 Core Curriculum levels. BBC's "News in Special English" follows broadcasts of educational programming in "Learning Zone."

There has been a running debate on TESL-L (an email discussion list for teachers of ESL)¹ TESL-L is hosted by City University of New York. To join TESL-L and/or its branches, send the following command in the body of an email message to <LISTSERV@CUNYVM.CUNY.EDU> 'SUBscribe TESL-L yourfirstname yourlastname' You need no subject line for your message. about the relative speeds of various broadcasts. Prof. R. M. Chandler-Burns (1998) wrote that in his dissertation research, in analyzing an American radio station in Houston Texas, delivery at normal speed was 140 words per minute. He compared this figure with a similar measurement of BBC World Service programming, at approximately 90 wpm. Norbrook (1998) of the BBC wrote on that same date "we read our Special English news at 96 words per minute, while VOA Special English goes out at 57." Arditti (1998), with VOA's Special English Branch, replied that "VOA Special English is read at nine 65-character lines, or about 90 to 100 words, per minute." It would seem each measures speed differently. Students may find that, due to reception quality or accents, they prefer one to another.

A somewhat surprising source is Voice of Russia. While they do not offer scripts, and do not focus on learners of English, their speed of delivery seems a bit slower than other broadcasts not

directed to learners. Their announcers use a variety of English accents, but seem to offer a careful selection of vocabulary in most general topic areas. Voice of Russia broadcasts are not “Special English” type broadcasts, however. Their English-language shortwave transmission signals were quite strong and clear, at least in the Kyongsang regions of Korea, but recently have been hard to locate. (Voice of Russia claims to be available to Southeast Asia, but makes no claim to Northeast Asia.) Voice of Russia was received best of all “over the air” shortwave English broadcasts by this author during the Fall of 1997 and Spring 1998, it is hoped they will soon be back.

Principle announcers for both Radio Japan and China Radio International speak quite clearly, though “Asian accents” are sometimes heard. Obviously this is not a concern, rather a benefit, for those who subscribe to World Englishes theories in TEFL. Unfortunately, it is often a disincentive to students who may be more interested in American or British forms. Radio interviewees on these programs often have heavy local accents, however, and native speakers of English not familiar with Chinese- or Japanese-accented English can find comprehension a problem-so much the more for less-skilled students.

REQUIRED (?) LISTENING

I have been requiring students to do listening homework “15 minutes, everyday” for the past two years. I do not check their homework. I allow them to choose their own content: “Good Morning Pops” (a bilingual English study radio program), STAR-TV, videos, TOEIC test preparation cassettes, and other such material are announced as acceptable. Students who regularly do their homework (according to their own accounts) definitely show greater improvement in listening and speaking skills than those who do not, but I would also point out that many of these “improved” students are likely more interested in the subject, and many of them were better skilled when the course began.

THE AUTHOR

Robert J. Dickey has been teaching English in Korea since August 1994. He is presently a member of the faculty of the Department of English and Tourism at Kyongju University. He holds an RSA/Cambridge/UCLES Certificate in Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Adults (CTEFLA) from International House, Hastings (England). His special interests include “low-tech” solutions for English study, ethics within the professions, student empowerment, and professional development. His email: <rjdickey@soback.kornet21.net>

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APPENDIX A EXTERNAL ANTENNA

There are two different types of external antenna. These can improve reception dramatically. A simple wire antenna is often sufficient; a piece of insulated wire, 3-5 meters long, hanging out the window, with a small weight on the far end, is one option, according to Radio Japan's web-page (available: <http://www.nhk.or.jp/rjnet/listen.html>, Oct. 12, 1998). BBC suggests experimenting, and that a few meters of insulated copper wire, wrapped around the base of the telescopic antenna and hung out the window, away from metal objects, may be all that is necessary (available: <http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/schedules/swreception.htm>, Oct. 12, 1998) Radio Australia recommends a 6 meter (20 ft) antenna (Available: <http://www.abc.net.au/ra/res/howto.htm>, Oct. 12 1998), and offers a free guide to suitable antenna (which I never received, despite numerous requests to their general email contact). Radio Japan points out that an external antenna should be kept away from dense tree cover, telephone and power lines, and other buildings. Radio Netherlands notes that more is not necessarily better, a 10 meter antenna may cause tuning and reception problems on small radios due to overloading (Available: http://www.RNW.NL/realradio/rx_choosing.html, Oct. 12, 1998). Precise details on building external antenna are available from Radio Netherlands on their web-site. The second type of antenna is an "active antenna"; a self-contained unit, consisting of a telescopic antenna and a signal-amplifier to boost weak incoming signals, which may be appropriate for those living in apartments, and others unable to erect an antenna (Radio Japan).

APPENDIX B. PARTIAL LIST OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE RADIO BROADCASTS AVAILABLE IN SOUTH KOREA

- AFKN Radio (24 hours)
- KBS Radio News in English
- Voice of America (VOA)-complete table of frequencies Available: <http://www.voa.gov/alsked.html#E> (Oct.12, 1998)
- VOA table of Special English scheduling Available: <http://www.voa.gov/special/#freqs> (Oct.12, 1998)
- British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC)-tables of frequencies and scheduling Available: <http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/schedules/foreast.htm> (Oct. 12, 1998) Or Available: <http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/freq/> (Oct.12, 1998)
- Voice of Russia-table of frequencies and scheduling Available: <http://www.vor.ru/ep/html> (Oct. 12, 1998)

Radio Japan-table of frequencies and scheduling Available: <http://www.nhk.or.jp/rjnet/Proe/bsche012.html> (Oct. 12, 1998)

China Radio International/English-table of frequencies and scheduling Available: http://pw2.netcom.com/~jleq/cri1_skedfreq.htm (Oct. 12, 1998)

APPENDIX C.
SHORT LIST OF INTERNET RADIO ADDRESSES

(All Available: Oct. 12, 1998.)

Voice of America Available: <http://www.voa.gov/programs/audio/realaudio/>

Or gopher://gopher.voa.gov:70/11/audio/realaudio

BBC Available: <http://bbc.co.uk/worldservice/audio/index/htm>

Radio Australia Available: <http://www.abc.net.au/ra/rahome.htm>

Radio Canada International Available: <http://www.rcint.ca.en.index.htm>

Other Sites with lots of listings:

Yahoo: Available: http://dir.yahoo.com/News_and_Media/Radio Or http://dir.yahoo.com/News_and_Media/Internet_Broadcasts/Audio/Radio/Stations/

<http://www.wps.com.au/radio/ra-radio.htm>

Audio Net Available: <http://www.audionet.com/>

Language Learning and Self-Discovery Through Multiple Intelligence Theory

LANNY M. DRYDEN & MICHELLE H. MORRONE

Nagoya University of Foreign Studies

Multiple Intelligence (MI) theory enlarges teachers' and learners' understanding of their relationships to each other and to the subjects they are studying. MI theory also supports and illuminates the processes by which learners come to understand themselves and their place in society. To clarify all these relationships and processes, the authors offer a thorough explanation of MI theory, interpret the role of MI in helping learners towards self-discovery, and finally reflect on the potential of MI theory to stimulate educational reform, particularly in East Asian countries.

INTRODUCTION

The central task of adolescence is to develop a clear sense of identity. To do this, learners must look both back and forward in time. Learners look back to the past, to remember the signs of their earlier identity in childhood and youth, the very things that may have been lost in the course of formal education. Learners also look forward to the future, in anticipation of the places they will take in adult society. In our efforts in the classroom, we have found that teaching students about MI theory encourages them to develop a sense of self and identity and, moreover, enfranchises the full range of learners, including those who have been generally neglected by traditional education.

WHAT IS THE THEORY OF MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES?

MI theory was pioneered by Howard Gardner, a cognitive psychologist at Harvard University, in the late 1970s and early 1980s. Gardner (1983/1985) began to investigate the nature of human intelligence after observing that standardized intelligence tests predict students' likelihood for success in school but are much less accurate in predicting success in life beyond formal schooling. Gardner contends that general intelligence (IQ) tests, accepted for most of the twentieth century as reliable measures of human potential, are seriously flawed. By reducing intelligence measurement to pencil-and-paper exams with discrete-point items, such tests encompass too narrow a range of abilities and rest on a far too limited model of the human mind. Gardner concludes that intelligence is not unitary but pluralistic—that is, throughout history, human beings have shown many ways of being intelligent in particular cultural contexts.

The implications of MI theory for educational policy and practice are profound and far-reaching, yet they may be stated fairly simply: Standardized testing is generally an inauthentic and unreliable means of measuring true potential. Moreover, most schools, as they are currently organized, are short-changing too many students, whereas MI theory offers a model for curricular reform to serve the needs of all learners.

The Seven Intelligences

Gardner suggests that an intelligence has to do with the capacity for “solving problems” and for “fashioning products in a context-rich and naturalistic setting” (Armstrong, 1994, p. 2). By the time of publication of Gardner’s works referred to here, seven intelligences had been identified: linguistic, logical-mathematical, intrapersonal, interpersonal, visual-spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, and musical. Other intelligences are likely to be accepted eventually, by means of criteria to be explained later. A fuller explanation of each intelligence, however, will help to clarify the multiple intelligences and what people do when they use them. (The following discussion of the seven intelligences synthesizes ideas from Armstrong; Gardner, 1983/1985, pp. 17-26; and Gardner 1993, pp. 73-276.)

Linguistic intelligence, according to Gardner (1983/1985, 1993), involves the ability to use words skillfully in speaking and in writing, as well as sensitivity to the sounds, structure, meaning, and functions of words and languages. Linguistic skills include giving and remembering information; persuading others to accept another point of view; explaining, teaching, and learning; talking about language itself; and writing novels and poetry. People who use linguistic intelligence are writers, teachers, poets, librarians, radio and television announcers, lawyers, journalists, secretaries, proofreaders-and anyone who enjoys reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

Logical-mathematical intelligence involves the abilities to use numbers skillfully and reason well, to solve puzzles easily, and to follow long chains of reasoning. Logical-mathematical skills include understanding the qualities of numbers and the principle of cause and effect, as well as the ability to predict what will happen or explain what has happened. People who use logical-mathematical intelligence are engineers, scientists, detectives, accountants, economists, bookkeepers, mathematicians-and anyone who likes to solve problems.

Intrapersonal intelligence is the means by which people understand themselves, and come to know their strengths and weaknesses; discriminate among their moods, desires, feelings, emotions, and intentions; understand how they are similar to or different from others; remind themselves to do something, and know how to control their feelings. Intrapersonal intelligence is used by psychologists, therapists and their patients, counselors, wise elders, priests and other religious leaders, novelists, program planners, entrepreneurs-and anyone who keeps a journal or thinks often about the meaning of life.

Interpersonal intelligence, by contrast, is the means by which individuals understand and skillfully respond to other peoples’ moods, feelings, motivations, desires, and intentions. A person uses interpersonal intelligence in order to work effectively and get along well with people, and to persuade others to do what he or she asks of them. People who use interpersonal intelligence include politicians, diplomats, administrators, parents, counselors, teachers, therapists, social scientists, business managers, salespersons, public relations persons, travel agents, social directors, courtroom lawyers, religious leaders-and anyone who spends a lot of time with friends or is involved in clubs and activities with other people.

Visual-spatial intelligence involves sensitivity to form, space, color, line, shape, and depth; the abilities to perceive the visual world accurately and to represent visual or spatial ideas, either graphically or mentally in three dimensions. Those who use visual-spatial intelligence include architects, painters, sculptors, pilots, dentists and surgeons, inventors, engineers, photographers, interior decorators-and anyone who draws for pleasure.

Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence can be seen in the ability of people to use their bodies to express ideas and feeling, as well as the capacity to handle objects skillfully. This intelligence involves physical coordination, flexibility, speed, and balance. People who use bodily-kinesthetic intelligence are dancers, swimmers, ballplayers, instrumentalists, artists and artisans, physical therapists, farmers, mechanics, carpenters, craftspersons, factory workers, forest rangers, jewelers, dentists and surgeons-and anyone who plays physical games and sports for recreation or enjoys working with their hands.

Musical intelligence, finally, involves the abilities to produce and appreciate rhythm, pitch, and melody; to appreciate the forms of musical expression, recognizing songs and longer musical works; to vary speed, tempo, and rhythm in melodies, and to compose music. Those who use musical intelligence are musicians, poets, disc jockeys, songwriters, conductors, singers, music therapists, instrument salespersons-and anyone who enjoys making or listening to music.

MI theory is a useful tool for analyzing educational systems and for suggesting reforms. For example, the first three intelligences-linguistic, logical-mathematical, and intrapersonal-are the ones generally endorsed by schools, while the other four are those that curricula usually neglect. (This observation is generally true for schools in North America and Europe. By contrast, in Japanese schools, with the social emphasis on group identity, interpersonal intelligence displaces intrapersonal intelligence.) Paradoxically, most teachers tend to score high in one or more of the "big three," while most students incline toward the other four-indicating the extent of the mismatch between school organization and the needs and abilities of the majority of learners.

Criteria For An Intelligence

One might naturally ask how the intelligences can be verified. Through his work at Harvard University and the Boston Veterans' Administration Hospital, Gardner developed criteria to establish the existence of particular intelligences. One is potential isolation by brain damage. When part of the brain receives major injury, the intelligence normally processed there is lost or impaired, but other faculties remain unchanged. For example, damage to Broca's area, the left frontal lobe that controls some language functions, may result in significant linguistic difficulty¹. Broca's aphasia is marked by an inability to plan the motor sequences used to form words. Persons suffering from Broca's aphasia speak haltingly and without certain function words such as to and the although basic word order is correct. yet the patient may still be able to sing, do math, dance, reflect on feelings, and get along well with others. Another criterion is the existence of savants, prodigies, and other exceptional individuals, e.g., Mozart, Einstein, and the character Raymond (played by Dustin Hoffman) in the film *Rain Man*, all of whom excelled phenomenally in at least one cognitive area but who had difficulties in interpersonal relations and other aspects of life-i.e., in other intelligences (Armstrong, 1994, p. 4).

Still another criterion is a developmental history leading to definable end-states: Each intelligence has its own trajectory, with musical intelligence awakening earliest and generally lasting throughout life, while high-level logical-mathematical intelligence usually reaches its peak in the teenage years and declines sharply after the age of forty. Among the remaining criteria of an intelligence are an evolutionary history and plausibility (i.e., an intelligence must be deeply rooted in human evolution); support from psychometric findings (that is, verification by standardized tests); identifiable core operations (sets and subsets of activities unique to each intelligence); and susceptibility to encoding in a symbol system (written language, musical scores, blueprints, choreography, etc.), (Gardner, 1993, pp. 15-16).

DEVELOPMENT OF THE INTELLIGENCES

Each intelligence develops by means of three main interacting factors:

1. biological endowment, including heredity and genetics, and physical insults and injuries to the brain before or after birth;
2. personal life history, including experiences with parents, teachers, peers, friends; crystallizing experiences in which one discovers one's strengths in a particular intelligence; and paralyzing experiences in which the development of a particular intelligence is impaired by traumatic life events;

3. cultural and historical background, including the time and place in which one is born and the state of cultural and historical developments in various domains (Armstrong, 1994, p. 21).

A useful illustration can be seen in the life of Mozart, who was born with a prodigious biological ability for music. Growing up in a musical family in a time and place in which music was highly valued contributed significantly to the full development of his biological potential. Such development, however, is not guaranteed. As Armstrong (1994) observed, "If Mozart had instead been born to tone-deaf parents in Puritan England, where most music was considered the devil's work," it is highly unlikely that his musical gifts could have developed to a high level "because of the forces working against his biological endowment" (p. 22).

KEY POINTS IN MI THEORY

In summarizing MI theory, several important points are noteworthy. One is that each person has all seven intelligences. They are part of the common human heritage. The fact that we each have different combinations and various strengths and weaknesses among the intelligences makes each person unique. Moreover, most people can develop each intelligence to an adequate level. In addition, and very importantly, intelligences work together in complex ways. Rarely does one intelligence dominate an individual. In daily life, most people engage several intelligences simultaneously. Furthermore, there are many ways to be intelligent in each category. For example, one might be clumsy on the playing field but extremely skillful in woodworking or carpet weaving. Finally, there may be other intelligences not yet identified. Among the current contenders are spirituality, moral sensibility, creativity, intuition, and humor. (Armstrong, 1994, pp. 11-13). An eighth intelligence, naturalistic-that is, "attraction to and skill with flora and fauna" (Kagan & Kagan, 1998, p. 4.37)-has been identified recently .

Finally, it is extremely important to consider the theory of multiple intelligences as a scientific model that is subject to modification and change based upon further findings. Gardner (1983/1985) himself acknowledges that the multiple intelligences are "at most, useful fictions ... I must repeat that they exist not as physically verifiable entities but only as potentially useful scientific constructs." (p. 70) Kagan and Kagan (1998) take this position even further:

MI theory advanced education by arguing that there is no such thing as one general intelligence, claiming that there are many. A similar advance can be made by claiming that there is no such thing as one linguistic or one mathematical or one spatial intelligence, but many. (p. 22.2)

In effect, Kagan and Kagan are arguing for a *Multiplicity Intelligence* theory as the natural successor to Multiple Intelligence theory. They are seeking a more comprehensive theory that takes into account the many different subsets of each intelligence that cannot be explained fully by Gardner's model of seven separate intelligences. As in all such matters, when a more all-encompassing theory emerges, science rejoices.

MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES AND SELF-DISCOVERY

Our students explored MI theory in relation to their own lives in a computer lab, but the activities could easily have been done in a conventional classroom, with pencil and paper activities substituting for word processing and HTML work. We had students do the activities on-line for everyone's ease and convenience, especially when researching people the students admired, and certainly when putting together the students' work into personal home pages. Nonetheless, each activity initially involved individual handwritten note-taking and/or paired discussion work, and that is what should be kept in mind in the following discussion of the activities themselves.

As stated earlier, the central task of adolescence is to develop a clear sense of identity. To do this, learners must try to remember who they were in previous stages of their lives, particularly before their early natural interests were, as it were, beaten out of them by formal schooling and other forms of socialization. The activities we asked students to do were designed to help them rediscover who they were earlier, that is, their more authentic original selves. From there we asked students to define who they are now, with the goal of having them work toward understanding their full range of abilities and intelligences and, from that perspective, to think about appropriate careers. (Many of the activities described below will eventually be posted on a website. Please contact <ldryden@aol.com> for further information.)

We began by asking students to complete a self-assessment questionnaire, which returned them mentally and emotionally to the world of their childhood. Without using the terminology of MI theory, we asked the students to remember such details from their past as whether they had ever spontaneously made musical instruments out of whatever was around them—drums from tin cans, for instance; whether they had enjoyed doing puzzles or taking things apart and putting them back together; how they had controlled their moods, emotions, and behavior from an early age; how they first experienced numbers and words; and a host of similar questions. We had the students follow up the self-assessment questionnaire by interviewing each other in pairs, in order to clarify the interests and abilities the students had shown at earlier times in their lives.

Only then did we introduce the seven intelligences and other formal aspects of MI theory, first with a summary of the theory, then with some worksheets for students to reformulate the elements of the theory into statements in their own words. We followed this step with another interview in which partners helped each other revisit the original self-assessment questionnaire and understand their early interests and abilities in light of MI theory. Additional self-assessment forms served the dual purpose of clarifying MI theory for the students and guiding them to define their own particular strengths among the intelligences. These efforts led naturally enough to a composition titled “Who I Am”, in which the students traced their intelligences and abilities from childhood to the present, defined their current strengths, and began to formulate future goals and aspirations (including a job resume) in light of their intelligences. Not surprisingly, the most successful reflective essays were those in which students identified two or more well-developed intelligences in themselves, confirming Gardner’s view that the intelligences operate in relation to each other in complex ways.

From their efforts at self-definition in the “Who I Am” essay, students moved progressively to the next assignment which took them a bit outside themselves, asking them to write about “A Person I Admire.” Here students gathered information, via the Internet, about personalities as diverse as Mariah Carey, Walt Disney, and Mahatma Gandhi. In addition to the basic facts about the admired person’s life, students had to analyze the various intelligences based on information about MI that the admired person exemplified. The culminating tasks asked students to review their own academic lives and employment experiences in order to produce a resume and a cover letter that might be used after graduation. All of these writing tasks were composed in simple HTML and linked together in a format that could be posted on the Internet as a webpage for each student, though, of course, the same activities could certainly be done in a more low-tech situation. Most importantly, all the writing tasks asked students to take stock of who they were by remembering forgotten abilities and defining current ones, and to these ends MI theory proved to be a most helpful instrument.

MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCE THEORY, AND EDUCATIONAL REFORM

Over the long term, new models of education offered by MI theory will help transform the ways that schools are organized. They will do this by replacing teacher-centered activities and a

standardized curriculum for everyone with student-centered activities and a curriculum that is custom-made for each student. (Student-centeredness refers to a methodology and pedagogy in which the student's interests drive the curriculum, not the teacher's objectives or the school's goals.) The same promise appears in the convergence of MI theory and CALL-computer-assisted language learning. A discussion of this aspect of MI theory can be found in Dryden (1998).

In the short term, however, without wholesale institutional reform, an understanding of MI theory can help teachers and students make better choices about learning activities. Reid (1998) believes that MI theory has "great potential for helping to revolutionize our concept of student language-learning in the ESL classroom" (p. 7). In effect, Reid says, MI theory enables teachers and students to understand their own learning preferences and to know which intelligences are engaged in particular learning activities. Such self-knowledge, if you will, is likely to result in more informed choices about what will help to optimize the learning of any subject, including languages.

In Japan and elsewhere in Asia, there is currently a good deal of urgent discussion regarding the need for widespread educational reform. As McMurray (1998) observes, the new buzzword among Asian ministries of education is "creativity" (p. 19), which is seen as the key to reviving Asian economies and making them competitive again in the global marketplace. In this regard, the enfranchising power of MI theory holds the potential to effect and guide significant changes in Asian educational systems and societies.

Creativity or, if you will, intellectual flexibility in solving problems and creating products (i.e., Gardner's definition of an intelligence) will, however, not be easy to introduce immediately into the educational systems of many Asian countries. In Japan and elsewhere, the central place of discrete-point examinations in the curriculum serves to inhibit creative problem-solving, because the rationale of such exams rests upon the notion of a single right answer for every question. Rohlen (1983) notes the failure of Japanese education to stimulate intellectual curiosity by observing that "Japanese high school education provides no intellectual roots, it turns out students long on information and short on intellectual understanding" (p. 267).

To a certain extent, the Confucian foundations of many Asian societies and their educational systems may be seen as barriers to innovative ways of thinking and acting. The cultural roots of Confucian hierarchy certainly run deep—from the millennia-old practice of standardized examinations as the best way of ranking people, to the notions of the teacher as knower of the right answer and the student as humble imitator of the master. These hierarchical features are embedded in the culture and the very language of such countries as Japan, where such terms as *sempai* and *kohai* (senior and junior), *uchi* and *soto* (insider and outsider) define virtually all social relations. Introducing non-native notions of creativity, while perhaps desirable, will require care and caution, as they will somehow have to be grafted onto long-established traditions that are diametrically opposed to such open-ended and individual ways of thinking.

Viewed another way, however, the Confucianism that underlies many Asian school systems may be the very impetus for stimulating reform from the foundations of the native cultures themselves. (This may be true of the schools in Japan as well as those of such countries as Korea and Taiwan, whose educational systems have been strongly influenced by Japan.) De Bary (1997) suggests that a return to the origins of Confucianism may bring about a greater emphasis on self and a balance between individual responsibility and social responsibility. He argues persuasively that the Western antitheses between "the individual and the group, between rights and duties" are highly dubious, and that Confucian ethics, instead of being primarily a "social or group ethic" starts with "self-cultivation, and works outward from a proper sense of self to the acceptance of reciprocal responsibilities with others in widening circles of personal relationship concentric with that self." In effect, de Bary contends that Confucianism's basic orientation to life is "Learning for One's Self" (1997, p. 33). If this is so, the native Confucian tradition holds the potential for transforming the current educational systems in Asian countries so as to promote the kind of creative and innovative

thinking that the Asian economies require for their own regeneration.

The need for such reform has rarely been more urgently felt than now. Particularly in Japan, there are many signs of the present educational system's failure to fit today's youth or society. Among them are growing doubts about the link between academic success and a guaranteed fulfilling career. In addition, there has been a rapid increase of incidents of *ijime* (bullying), as well as other kinds of school violence in middle school. These developments are traceable to the pressures of entrance exam testing and the lack of relevance in the curriculum to students' lives-the same things that also account for the growing drop-out rate in high school. Such acts of unusual violence as the beheading of a school child in Kobe have shocked the nation, in part because the crime was committed by a teenager from an upper-middle-class family, not from a broken, economically burdened home. Developments like this have reverberated throughout Japanese society, provoking the Ministry of Education to put into effect *kokoru no benkyo* (lessons of the heart). Such lessons, while extremely important, nonetheless address only limited aspects of the many problems facing Japanese education.

Multiple intelligence theory may serve as a catalyst for fundamental change by providing plausible models and prescriptions for reform. By helping students understand their intellectual strengths as well as the areas in which they can improve, MI might spark a revival of the Confucian spirit of self-cultivation, putting "Learning for One's Self" at the center of the curriculum. Japanese schools, at the very least, need to reduce their emphasis on standardized test-taking skills (which now fall mainly in the areas of linguistic and logical-mathematical intelligences). The chief function of the schools-currently the ranking of students along a hierarchy of test-taking abilities-needs to be replaced by new commitments to promoting equality and making learning both intellectually stimulating and responsive to students' particular intellectual strengths. Greater emphasis could be given to performance-based assessment, administered in real contexts, and to the importance of individualization-that is, letting learners have more choices in their own paths of learning.

As a sign of encouragement, the traditional belief in training of body and mind together in Japanese schools shows that the educational system already has made room for bodily-kinesthetic intelligence. A similar willingness to endorse and accommodate other kinds of intelligence could make learning meaningful for students-that is, based on discovery through projects and personal experience. Moreover, a humanistic program of computer-assisted language learning would further these ends admirably. Such goals may sound utopian, but they are within the grasp of teachers and learners who understand the potential of MI theory. When such insights are put into practice, the liberating purposes of education can be achieved-that is, for all learners to come into full possession of their powers and to realize the potential of their own rich combination of intelligences.

THE AUTHORS

L. M. Dryden has worked in the area of CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) since coming to Japan five years ago. Before that time, he taught with Macintosh computers and multimedia in English classes for native speakers and ESL students for five years in the United States. He also has long-standing interests in multiple intelligence theory and Jungian archetypal psychology as applied to the study and teaching of English literature and language.

M. H. Morrone's background is in comparative education and culture, with a focus on Japanese preschool and elementary education. Since coming to Japan eight years ago, she has become increasingly interested in alternative methodologies and, in particular, in the advantages of a curriculum which takes into account the diversity of individual development and abilities within an education setting.

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Seven things you wanted to know about learning a foreign language but were afraid to ask

MICHAEL DUFFY

Dong-A University

The Korean speech is different from all other tongues. It is very difficult to learn because they have different ways to express the same thing. They speak very fast or slow, especially among important people and scholars. (Hendrik Hamel on the first western attempts to learn Korean as cited in Buys, 1994)

Every year innumerable conferences are held and countless journals published in which language teachers talk or write about language learning. In contrast, very little is said or written about language learning from learners themselves. Since I first came to Korea in 1988, I have spent rather a lot of time, and occasionally money, studying Korean, and, like many of our students, have managed to reach a rather low level of proficiency. While I feel, therefore, that I have something in common with my students, there is at the same time a big difference between being a Korean (KFL) and an EFL learner, a difference arising out of the unequal power relationship between the two languages. English is a world language, and its native speakers tend to expect everybody else to speak it, either well or badly. On the other hand, Koreans generally do not expect foreigners to speak their language. One long-time British resident in Pyongyang, frustrated at his inability to communicate with the locals despite having learned Korean, was told that a foreigner speaking Korean was “like a tree asking you for a cigarette”. That said, I would guess that there is a great deal of common experience shared by all foreign language learners, so I would like to put forward a number of observations based on my own career as a learner of Korean.

1. LANGUAGE TEACHERS ARE NOT REAL PEOPLE AND REAL PEOPLE ARE NOT LANGUAGE TEACHERS

There is a widespread assumption, sometimes shared by language teachers themselves, that living in the target language community is the Royal Road to mastery of the language. If this were true, I would by now be an excellent Korean speaker. So, why am I not?

Language teachers are unlike real people, at least during their working hours, in that they are paid to do nothing but talk to and be talked to by language learners. Since they have a responsibility to be comprehensible by their students, they may speak more slowly, clearly and simply than they would outside the classroom. Furthermore, while the students are speaking, they have all the time in the world to listen, and to wait for the students to start and finish speaking, secure in the knowledge that they will continue getting paid even through prolonged periods of silence. The behavior of real people differs from that of teachers in a number of respects. One was well-described by a classmate of mine, a professor of Portuguese, whose experience is similar to that of Hendrik Hamel:

[W]hen Koreans talk to foreigners they use the same speed and structures and vocabulary as they use with their peers. This makes the foreigner get scared and develop a sense that it is impossible to converse with natives (de Andrade, 1997).

L2 speech is often very slow, in terms both of latency and delivery. Teachers are well used to this fact, and accordingly allow their students plenty of space in which to formulate and complete their utterances. This is particularly necessary when there is a wide structural difference between L1 and L2, as is the case with Korean and English. Real people are generally not so patient. They expect foreigners to speak at the same speed and as promptly as native speakers. If I am speaking a complex sentence with embedded clauses, it can be extremely difficult to get to the end of a sentence, without the interlocutor starting his own utterance or “helpfully” finishing the sentence for me.

Even among more sympathetic listeners, there is one very common unhelpful habit. Sometimes one may need to confirm what someone has said before one is able to respond, but with some people this “confirmation” becomes like a reflex, resulting in conversations something like this:

I'm going to see a movie tonight.
A movie?
Yes. The new Jacky Chan.
Jacky Chan?
Yes. It's on at the Cheil Theatre.
The Cheil?
Yes. One of my students said it was his best ever.
Your student said?
Yes. By the way, why do you always repeat my words?
Repeat... words... me???

2. PRACTICE IS EASIER THAN PERFORMANCE

As Showstack (1983) points out, sports coaches and orchestra conductors know that those under their charge are never going to perform better on the big day or big night than they do in the sheltered setting of training or rehearsal. Likewise, the classroom provides an extremely protected environment in which to practise speaking. A teacher is likely to be a better conversation partner than a “real person”, and the interaction between teacher and student is free of the pressures and distractions usually present in the real world, like background noise and the more pressing concerns an interlocutor may have. So a learner who can perform well, for example, a “buying a train ticket” role-play in class may still have difficulties when he goes to the noisy, crowded, busy station to do the real thing. I know that if I can't say something in the classroom, I certainly won't be able to say it outside.

3. LISTENING IS HARD

This may seem too obvious to state, but the point should be made that the difficulties in listening are not only those which arise from having to deal with unfamiliar linguistic structures and vocabulary. Jill Hadfield (1992) found that many teachers complained about students being bad at listening to each other in class, and cited a number of possible explanations. One possibility that she does not mention is that when a number of people are talking at the same time, as they are when a class is doing pair-work, it becomes difficult to shut out the extraneous voices and focus on one, much more so than if they were speaking their native language. Again, conversation outside the classroom is very often accompanied by background noise (perhaps more so in Korea than in other countries) which may be harder to filter out when one is speaking in a second language.

4. A CONVERSATION CLASS IS NOT THE SAME AS A CONVERSATION

A conversation class is a place for skill training, and just as a 100-meter sprinter does not spend

all his training sessions doing 100-meter runs, a student should not be expected to spend all his class time trying to mimic a real-life conversation. In my case, I like to use my class time to get as much practice as possible in getting my tongue around Korean. This may sometimes lead to what some writers call “language-like behavior”, that is, using redundant and unnaturally elaborate language. Lewis and Hill (1992) cite an example:

- A. Is Peter shorter or taller than Alan?
- B. Alan is shorter than Peter.
- C. Ah, so Alan is not as tall as Peter.

For me, class time is usually the only opportunity to speak Korean away from the pressures of the outside world; for a Korean student, it may be the only time he ever gets to speak English. Therefore, I think there is no harm in, say, answering a question more expansively than one would in real life. A’s question above could be answered in one word, “shorter”; any yes-no question can be answered by a grunt or a shake of the head. Such a response would, however, be a wasted practice opportunity.

5. LANGUAGE STICKS BETTER IF IT IS LEARNED THROUGH MORE THAN ONE MODE

I am reliably informed that learners need to encounter a word seven times before they can commit it to long-term memory. In my case, it may be even more than seven. Many teachers disapprove of students consulting dictionaries in class, preferring that they ask either the teacher or another student “What does _____ mean?”. However, the information about a word one gets from looking in a dictionary is quite different from that which one gets from being told the meaning. Not only is it encountered in a different modality, but also one has to think about its spelling. One perhaps sees related words and learns about its etymology. For this reason, I usually have a dictionary in class, and I don’t mind if my students use them.

6. LEARNING A LANGUAGE IS TIRING, BORING AND DISHEARTENING

I feel physically tired after about an hour of speaking and listening to Korean, so when my students request a break in the middle of a double-period class, I can sympathize with them. While I don’t say that my Korean classes are boring, or that our classes shouldn’t be as interesting as we can make them, for me, and I believe for most learners, there comes a time when learning becomes hard labour, just as learning to dance or play the piano may do. Whether memorizing new vocabulary, reading a difficult text, or failing to communicate in speech, the learner can easily get disheartened at how slow progress can be despite the number of hours one has put into learning.

7. LEARNING A LANGUAGE IS NOT THE MOST IMPORTANT THING IN LIFE

Foreign language students provide language teachers, if not with their *raison d’être*, at least with their salary. In most cases, neither English teachers nor the process of learning English play such a central role in the lives of students, even in Korea. Since I seldom see my students outside the classroom, I think it is useful to remind myself that I meet them only when they are playing just one of the many roles that they perform in life, and probably one of the less important and less interesting ones.

I was very interested recently to read an interview with one of Korea’s best-known English educators, Lee Bo-young of Ewha University and EBS (Education Broadcasting System) (Overseas, 1998). She made the observation that Korean students who go abroad to learn English often find it

doesn't help much, since their classes may be no better than those they have had at home, and they find opportunities to practise usefully outside class to be extremely limited. Everette Busbee (1993) referred to "the myth of the native speaker", the notion that mere contact with a suitable foreigner will do wonders for one's foreign language ability. To this he added "the myth of free talking." Perhaps we can add one more: "the myth of immersion": no matter how well-motivated the learner, merely living in the midst of the target language community is not a sufficient condition either for learning a language or for improving one's language ability. Much more in the way of comprehensible input, low-stress practice, and patient explanation is needed.

THE AUTHOR

Michael Duffy has been a Professor of English at Dong-A University in Pusan since 1990. Previously a vice president of AETK (one of the predecessors to KOTESOL), he served as President for Pusan Chapter of KOTESOL during its first four years.

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ESL/EFL Teacher Development: Top-down or Bottom-up?

THOMAS FARRELL

National Institute of Education, Singapore

ESL/EFL teachers are for the most part, informed by researchers as to how they should teach (teacher education programs) and how they should develop as teachers (in-service courses). The motivation for this education or development comes not from the teachers themselves. Rather, the teachers are told that they must train and develop. This is top-down and there is not much enthusiasm from the individual teachers (Bottom-up). This paper argues that it is the individual teachers' own personal responsibility to engage in developing their teaching skills by a process of continuous reflection. The paper will first give a background to the notion of Top-down or Bottom-up in second/foreign language teacher education. Next, reflection on teaching by the use of case studies will be used as the main example of bottom-up teacher development. Readers will be given an opportunity to reflect on an actual case study of a teacher development situation in Korea.

INTRODUCTION

Why, you may wonder, should we try to develop ourselves as English teachers? Are we that self-motivated to actually think about what we do or are we the opposite, de-motivated in our work? We can give many reasons for the latter: poor administration, low pay, too many contact hours, a lack of support from the owner of the Hakwon, institution or university, or we are just here for the money—this is a job not a profession.

However, this bleak picture of a teacher's life can be changed with a little reflection on who we are as teachers of English in Korea and elsewhere. An advisor of mine once said that there are three types of teachers who stay in teaching and (a) get bored and quit, (b) are bored and keep doing the same old stuff with no reflection or change (they also have an illusion of happiness), or (c) teachers who realize that they can become genuine educators who can reflect on their actions, change what they do and believe and grow towards true inner piece. They are truly professional and are doing the best job possible, always knowing that they will never know it all (Gebhard, 1995, personal communication). This paper is directed at the third type of teacher.

First, I would like to start by telling a story about how I got started in my own development as a teacher of English. Next, I want to talk about a case study on teacher development I conducted in Korea (Farrell, 1998a). Lastly, I will discuss the implications for teacher development in Korea.

Story

One day a young girl was watching her mother cooking a roast of beef. Just as the mother was going to put the roast in the pot, she cut a slice off the end and then she put it in the pot. The ever observant daughter asked her mother why she had done that and the mother said her grandmother had always done it. Later that same afternoon, the mother was curious so she called her mother and

asked her the same question. Her mother, the child's grandmother, said that in her day she had to cut the roasts since they were usually too big for a regular pot (Farrell, 1998b).

Decision based teaching

Classrooms are a lot more complex than cooking. However, the above example does make a point about the need to make conscious decisions about what goes on in your classroom (or kitchen!). Without conscious decision making, teachers can become controlled by the events rather than be in control of these events. What is actually happening here is that the mother (or teacher) is not consciously reflecting on what she is doing in the kitchen (the classroom). Her daughter (an observer) has noticed that her mother has established a pattern in cooking a roast (teaching) and wondered why her mother was doing what she was doing. The mother was unaware of what she was actually doing or why she was doing it, so she had to reflect on where this practice of 'cutting the slice off' came from. When she found this out, she can now make a decision about her future methods of cooking a roast. This is what I mean by decision based teaching.

What this paper is advocating is the need for teachers of English in Korea and elsewhere to move beyond routine practice in their classrooms to a more professional approach to teaching; that of teacher as decision-maker. To do this, English teachers must develop what they know and what they are doing in their classrooms by first looking at themselves as teachers. Of course, this can be legislated from above by a supervisor (as in a top-down approach to development) or individual teachers can become curious about their own classrooms and see if they are actually doing what they say they are doing. However, I want to share a case study with you that I conducted in Korea some years ago and ask you about teacher development as top-down or bottom up.

Development: Top down or bottom up?

First, what is teacher development? Over 28 years ago, Wilgma Rivers, in her very important book: *Foreign Language Teaching* (1970) recognized that foreign language teachers had responsibilities to develop. She said: "Teachers must grow as they teach...remain in constant touch with new developments in the fields of his (sic) profession" (p. 380). She continued: "The successful foreign language teacher should set before him (sic) a dual aim: to keep abreast of the developments in his (sic) profession and to keep growing professionally as a teacher" (p. 380).

Twenty years later Lange (1990) defined teacher development as a process of "continual, intellectual, experiential, and attitudinal growth" (p. 250). So, for the purposes of this paper, teacher development means growth. I would also like to add that this growth stems from teachers making their own informed decisions about teaching well beyond the initial teacher education course.

A case study on teacher development: top-down or bottom-up?

Communicating with colleagues of a different culture (Farrell, 1998a) is a case study about teacher development in Korea. This development was a result of changes in the job status of the author—he was appointed director of a program at a university. What follows is an outline of the case and the results.

CONTEXT

- small (5000 students) women's university in Seoul, Korea.
- program had 25 part-time native Korean English instructors, and
- syllabus was designed exclusively by the director, as were
- all the examinations.

- Each freshman and sophomore student had to take the English classes: conversation, video/audio classes for freshmen, and reading classes (prescribed text) required for the sophomore students.

Problem

- Because I was the first foreign director of the program, the instructors did not know what to expect.
- Previous teacher meetings consisted of giving the instructors their syllabi,
- needs analysis had never been conducted. Also,
- the instructors had not had any meetings during the semester or year to discuss their classes.
- What had developed—different groups of teachers (usually arranged by age) informally discussed things about their work at lunch or in the teacher’s room.
- Instructors never participated in other group discussions.
- I tried to establish better collaboration by having more teacher meetings on topics, usually topics I had thought important.
- Everybody came to these meetings, and at first I was pleased.
- However, it soon became apparent that I was doing all of the talking at the meetings, even when we broke up into groups.
- When I tried to initiate peer observation, I was indirectly told, “This is not the Korean way”, or “It will not work.” And indeed it did not. The biggest obstacle I faced was that as a director in a Korean situation, I should have been authoritative. One day the assistant told me that I was too democratic, “The Korean teachers do not know how to handle that.”
- In my first year as director, I was never given feedback from the teachers, instead they gave feedback to the previous director who in turn told me everything was great.
- I knew better.

Solution

To solve this dilemma, I tried a few different methods, some of which succeeded and others that were only marginally successful.

- I tried to meet the teachers “by chance,” outside my office to see who would be interested to talk about teaching and who might be interested in sharing their views about the program.

1. About teaching: teachers bring lesson plans (favorite) put in a drawer. Both old and new teachers compare and use. I put in my lesson plan. Some followed, and the cabinet did not fill up. But I did manage to tap into some of the informal discussions.

2. About the program: started an exam committee. Worked because teachers had a vested interest in that their students were going to take these exams—if Korean teachers have one overriding concern, it is for their students’ success.

3. Surprise: from a committee such as mentioned above, I found a group of teachers who were interested in the program and their own teacher development. These 5 teachers met with me regularly to discuss their classrooms in more detail.

So, is this bottom-up or top-down teacher development?

In a commentary on this particular case study, Professor Richard Day (citation?) had this to say:

- I agree that top down approaches generally have only superficial results and that meaningful, long term changes involve initiatives by the participants.

- This case had both types: The exam committee was the result of top down action: The program head, Farrell, set up the committee; it was on his initiative that it was established.
- The small discussion group was the result of a bottom up process: some of the teachers...began talking with one another about their teaching (Farrell, 1998a, p. 128)

So both systems worked in this case. However, each mode of teacher development may involve a mixture of top down and bottom up approaches.

IMPLICATIONS

The above case study has several implications for teacher development.

1. Decisions made by a teacher need to be based on informed choices (Richards & Lockhart, 1993; Gebhard, 1996, 1998). These informed choices give the teacher a deeper awareness about teaching and learning and can thus make appropriate decisions about what will be effective in their classrooms.

2. Self-inquiry by teachers can result in a wealth of knowledge about teaching (Richards & Lockhart, 1993; Fanselow, 1987; Gebhard, 1996, 1998). This means teachers must collect information about their teaching individually or in collaboration with colleagues so that teaching decisions can be more strategic. This can mean a bottom-up rather than a top-down approach to teacher development. A top-down approach is concerned with an authority (supervisor) making decisions on what should be developed. A bottom-up approach would mean individual teachers taking the initiative to develop their own teaching.

3. Much of what happens in the classroom is unknown to the teacher (Richards & Lockhart, 1993; Fanselow, 1987). A lesson is a dynamic event in which many things happen at the same time. Teachers cannot hope to be aware of everything that is happening in their classes. This lack of knowledge about what is happening in the classroom can as Good and Brophy (1991) say result in "unwise, self-defeating behavior" (p. 1). However, Good and Brophy (1991) continue: "if teachers can become aware of what happens in the classroom and can monitor accurately both their own behavior and that of their students, they can function as decision makers." (p. 1). Teachers must try and control classroom events and not be controlled by them. First, though, the teacher must know what is going on in that classroom. This can be done by the use of audio-tapes and/or video-tapes of lessons. These can be used to look at the classroom objectively and describing what is happening. The teacher can then comment if these actual events were what was intended or not.

4. Experience is insufficient as a basis for development (Richards & Lockhart, 1993). Is twenty years teaching doing the same thing twenty times and does this mean development?

CONCLUSION

Teacher development as I have outlined in this paper means that individual teachers have to take the initiative and look at their own teaching and classrooms first. Yes, it may be necessary to reinvent your own teaching wheel. I would like to end by sharing with you a quote by George Bernard Shaw that pretty much sums up my own thinking on development and finding your place as a professional in an interesting and exciting job:

This is the true joy in life, the being used for a purpose recognized by yourself as a mighty one...the being a force of nature instead of a feverish, selfish little clod of ailments and grievances complaining that the world will not devote itself to making you happy (George Bernard Shaw, epistle dedicatory for "Man and Superman" London, 1903).

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Confucian Conundrums: Higher Education And ESL Teaching In Korea And Japan

RONALD GRAY

Taejon University

Confucianism has had a very important influence upon the development of education in Korea and Japan. Unfortunately, there is very little written about the impact of this Chinese philosophy upon higher education in these countries and its implications for ESL teaching. This paper is an attempt to rectify this situation. In it, I shall first define the core tenets of Confucianism. Next, I shall briefly show how Korea and Japan historically adopted these ideas and transformed them. Then, I will discuss the modern logical extension of the Confucian system of education, that is, the Korean and Japanese university entrance examination and the various social and political roles that the test plays. Finally, I shall conclude by discussing the practical implications of all of this for the ESL teacher.

WHAT EXACTLY IS CONFUCIANISM?

Confucianism is a word that is constantly evoked in discussions about Asia, but is seldom adequately defined. It has, through the centuries, performed a variety of roles and can best be understood as a system of thought which is part ethical code, part social ritual, part political philosophy, and part religion. The fundamental problem it was created to resolve was “the basic conflict between the need (deduced from historical experience) for a hierarchical society and the need to mitigate the injustices inherent in such an unequal order” (Van Wolferen, 1990, p. 202).

Confucianism was a philosophical reaction against the chaotic times in which Confucius (551 - 479 BC) lived. During this period, referred to as the Warring States, social order had broken down. Violence, political instability, intrigue and moral disorder reigned. The government was very corrupt and few reformers existed. As a consequence, Confucius looked back to an earlier time, the Chou period (1123 - 221 B.C.), as a moral and political model to be emulated. By grounding his philosophy in precepts from the past, Confucius hoped to illuminate, and in turn bring stability to, the present. His goal, as is true of all traditional Chinese philosophy, was “not primarily that of understanding the world, but that of making people great” (Koller, 1985, p. 245).

Confucius' system was thoroughly humanistic. Man was viewed as the sum total of his social relations. Morality was not to be found outside of human beings but within man himself. The cornerstone of his philosophy was the family, which was a microcosm for the world. He believed that if a person fulfilled his familial obligations, then order would be maintained and that harmony would also flow out into the public sphere. The ethical expression of these responsibilities was the famous five relationships. These relationships form the basis of all social connections:

1. Father-son: considered to be the most stable and lasting relationship. It is the symbol of filial piety.
2. Husband-wife: the most basic relationship.
3. Ruler-subject: symbolizing loyalty, an extension of the father-son relationship. For the ruler, like

the father, has an obligation to care for his ward.

4. Friend-friend: based on mutual trust. Of all the relationships, this one most closely approximates equality.

5. Older brother-younger brother: represents the inherent higher status of someone who is senior in age, experience, and hence, theoretically, wisdom. (This relationship can be extended to any senior-junior relationship).

There was really nothing new in these relationships, they were essentially based upon the social rules of traditional Chinese family life. Confucius' great contribution was in institutionalizing these beliefs and clarifying their ethical connections, thereby codifying obligations and responsibilities. As Fung (1952) has written, Confucius' gift lay in his ability to "give rationalization to China's original social institutions" (p. 60). By this precise blending of the old and new, he was a "creator through being a transmitter" (Fung, 1952, p. 60).

Confucius' other great contribution was in the realm of education. The concrete embodiment of his ideas on education was the Chinese civil service examination system. Confucius was long interested in politics, specifically the question of what method was best in selecting competent and ethical leaders. His solution was simple: in order for government to be effective and rational, the distinction between politics and ethics needed to be abolished, men of morality needed to direct the state, and these men could be found in scholars. He strongly believed there was a key connection between education (the studying of key writings from the past) and morality.

Mandarins, therefore, were selected via a long and laborious set of three key examinations (very roughly equivalent to today's B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. degrees). The system was a meritocracy; theoretically anyone could take it. To give an example of how taxing and comprehensive the examinations were, students were required to memorize the *Four Books and Five Classics*-a total of 430,000 Chinese characters-by the age of twelve. Next, poetry composition, calligraphy, classical commentaries and histories were studied (Smith, 1983).

Overall, Confucianism, with its stress on pragmatism over ideological or religious solutions and strong emphasis on the family, education, ethics, hierarchy and order, grew to become a complex, marvelously self-reinforcing, and rational system which provided a great deal of political and social stability for China.

HOW CONFUCIANISM DEVELOPED IN KOREA AND JAPAN

While there are records of various types of Confucian practices in Korea during the Three Kingdoms period (221 - 280) and early Unified Shilla period, it was not until the 9th century that Confucianism began to exert a strong influence (Lee, 1965). In the 10th century, the Confucian civil service examination system, called *kwago*, was adopted, but with a key change. Instead of the process being theoretically open to all, as it was in China, only the elite *yangban* class and their descendants had the right to sit for the examinations in Korea (Henderson, 1968). The procedures for and the levels of the test were very similar to those in China. The highest educational institution was the National Confucian Academy in Seoul, Song-gwan-today it is a university, but it still operates a Confucian school. By the end of the Chosun period (1392 - 1910), the examination system had so disintegrated (due to political instability, the old Korean problem of factionalism, and ideological rigidity), that wealthy families could get official preferment without sitting for the exam. The last set of tests was given in Korea in 1894. (For an interesting account of the influence of Confucianism upon Korea, see Palmer, 1984.)

Confucianism first entered Japan in the 6th century, but due to the influence of Buddhism it did not become widespread until the emergence of the centralized *Tokugawa* system in the 17th century (Van Wolferen, 1990; Ignas & Corsini, 1981). During this period, the Shogunate adopted a Neo-Confucian approach that replaced the original Confucian notion that filial piety was the highest moral

duty, with that of personal loyalty of the subject to the ruler as being most important. The Japanese also rejected the idea of a meritocracy and the entire civil service examination system. Power was exercised only by the samurai.

THE TEST

Ironically, it was only because of acute foreign pressures that Korea and Japan adopted the idea of mass education and higher education. (Until the end of the 19th century, there was no counterpart in these countries to the Western idea of a university.) In Japan, educational reform was spurred on by the traumatic effect of the “black ships” and the resultant Meiji restoration. In Korea, reform is attributable to the presence of Western missionaries and Japanese colonization (Kim, 1985; Tipton, 1997). Because of these changes, for the first time in both of these countries, education became the main avenue for economic and social mobility.

From the start, because of population size (especially in Japan) and the small number of colleges, competition for obtaining entrance into these colleges was particularly fierce. A strict hierarchy of schools quickly developed (Tokyo University in Japan being the top, with Seoul National University in Korea having the same status). Because of this intense competition, the college entrance examination assumed central importance, to the extent that it has today become an end in itself, “dominating and distorting the purposes of all schools” (Ignas & Corsini, 1981, p. 236). For, unlike in the West, high school grades, teacher’s recommendations, unique skills, and extracurricular activities play no importance in the college selection process.

Every year the Japanese and Korean governments passionately discuss ways in which the educational system can be reformed, unfortunately few significant changes are ever really attempted. (Although, recently in Korea, Seoul National University has announced that in 2003, they are planning to do away with the college entrance examination system and rely instead upon high school grades and teacher’s recommendations).

The main reason why the test continues to be so heavily used is that it serves several social and political purposes. First, what is actually being tested is how well individuals have become socialized. Because the test is so difficult and involves such long dedication, the test itself has become a tool of socialization because it enforces discipline. It makes students accept the values prized by society, the group, and the system. There is a distinctly moral component to this in the sense that education becomes embedded in the value system-nationalism and the Confucian webs of obligation, duties, and social harmony. In this sense, the student, via the test, is implicitly learning to be Japanese or Korean. For if students want to advance and obtain a good job, they must buckle down and successfully pass the college entrance examination. This process of socialization through discipline also serves to cement one’s familial obligations and reinforces the importance of the five Confucian relationships-particularly the bonds to mothers, (because in Japan and Korea mothers play a very important supportive role in regard to education-see Kiefer, 1970), teachers and classmates. (As to why this intense competition does not pose a threat to the stability of the group, see Vogel, 1971.)

Unlike in the West, where the college entrance test is viewed as an I.Q. test, in Japan and Korea it is seen as an index of how well the student is trained. As Eberts and Eberts (1995) have noted:

In some sense it appears that Japanese schools are training students instead of teaching them. The important point appears to be the long hours of studying as opposed to the knowledge gained during the study. Japanese students are tested to see if they will be obedient, hardworking, and loyal to the company. (p. 226).

In other words, what is valued is not the intellectual endeavor of acquiring information, of learning new things, and making connections between them; rather what is admired are the personal qualities-discipline, obedience, spirit, a good memory, the ability to postpone gratification-of the

individual who can successfully pass the test. Evidence of this can easily be found by casual perusal of the examination questions—"short answer and multiple choice prevail, few if any essays or interpretative questions appear... Nor any intelligence quotient kinds of questions to be found... Emphasis is on mastery of facts, control over detail" (Fisher, 1990, p. 94-95). An interesting offshoot of this very practical approach to education concerns the subject of ability. Performance is not viewed strictly from the viewpoint of ability, as in the West. If the student fails the test, he is simply told he did not study hard enough and that he needs to be more disciplined, to show better spirit.

KOREAN AND JAPANESE COLLEGE LIFE

Once the student passes the hurdle of the test, his situation greatly changes. This is because the carrot that is dangled before the student while he laboriously studies for the exam is a tacit social contract, regarding rewards, established between the student and the system if he is successful. First, if he attends a good school, he is generally guaranteed a good job after graduation. (Of course, in these difficult economic times, this guarantee is not as strong as it used to be.) Secondly, the student is finally granted some personal freedom.

This freedom is translated institutionally at the university level into a general respite, except for engineering and science students, from the demands of academic responsibilities. In other words, in many instances, school becomes a "vacation camp for students" (Eberts & Eberts, 1995, p. 226). It is time for them to socialize, join clubs, develop social skills, connections for the future, potential mates, and to explore personal interests. In short, it is a chance to experience those things which were long denied because of the strict and onerous educational system. (For telling accounts of Korean university life written by students, see Chang, 1996; Kim, 1996.)

Therefore, because of this tacit contract, and the fact that responsibilities for making decisions are for the first time placed on the students (instead of being precisely determined by the educational and social system), students are usually poorly motivated and not interested in studying. Socialization is given a much higher priority over learning. Many are mostly interested only in meeting and making friends, drinking, sports, and hobbies, (Van Wolferen, 1990; Christopher, 1983; Reischauer, 1977; Martire, 1995; Cutts, 1997). There are constant MTs (membership training outings) and cheating is quite common. (See "Hey, Just Don't Do It", 1997; Garrigues, 1998.) Because college grades are not all that important when employers are hiring (schools attended are more critical), there is little incentive for students to work hard. In Japan, students cannot fail, regardless of how badly they perform. In Korea, the situation is slightly better. Students (if they are not athletes, older night-school businessmen, or government officials) can be flunked (Martire, 1995).

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE ESL TEACHER

There are several conclusions that can be drawn from all of this, which can be helpful in teaching ESL to university students in Japan and Korea.

It is important that a teacher has a clear understanding of the cultural and Confucian beliefs underlying Korean and Japanese higher education: the role of the test, ideas regarding learning, and perceptions about what is expected of students. As we have seen, the purposes of, and the governing assumptions regarding education are quite different from those in Western universities. High-handed attempts to make students behave exactly like those in the West is in the end both futile and counter-productive.

For example, requiring students to attend classes during festival week, complaining to the administration of MTs, field trips, and sporting events; failing students after having been informed by the administration they "must pass" (for institutional reasons); assigning large amounts of homework, etc. are ultimately unrealistic. Expectations in certain areas need to be slimmed down.

Unfortunately, many existing ESL textbooks, teaching methodologies, and tactics are predicated upon the belief that all Japanese and Korean university students are well motivated, extremely industrious, and serious in their studying of English. The bald fact is that most students are only taking English classes because they are required to, many have no real interest in really learning it (for a variety of reasons-prominent among them is a cultural ambivalence about anyone who can speak or learn English too well), and they are acutely aware that they will never use English outside the classroom.

This is, of course, not to say that as a consequence, one must simply teach like a Korean or Japanese instructor. Rather, the key is to develop one's teaching techniques and style, but within given cultural and institutional constraints. It requires being able to accept limitations and to actually blend them with one's own methodology. Flexibility is fundamental.

Teaching ESL never occurs in a vacuum. We cannot neatly divorce Western teaching methodologies from cultural constraints. As we have seen, in Japan and Korea, among these factors are the legacy of Confucianism and very practical notions regarding the purposes of higher education. An awareness of these factors is essential to a teacher's effectiveness.

THE AUTHOR

Ronald Gray teaches English at Taejon University. He has an M.A. in Philosophy from Brown University. Besides Korea, he has also taught ESL in Saudi Arabia and Japan and lived in Asia for more than 10 years. His main areas of interest are memory and second language acquisition, and Chinese philosophy, and he has given lectures on, and has had papers published concerning these topics.

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Making Large Classes Communicative

ANDREW JACKSON AND PETER KIPP

Ewha Womans University

Making large classes communicative first requires teacher confidence in her/his own ability to manage the class and communicate with the students effectively. In other words, good classroom management and effective patterns of teacher-student interaction are the keys to working with a large class. The authors identify key teacher concerns in these areas and discuss the fundamentals of planning to achieve productive classes. They also provide a close analysis of one classroom activity which illustrates these fundamentals.

INTRODUCTION

To any teacher who has been trained to teach small classes of 10 - 15 students, a new job at an Asian university can be a traumatic experience. Suddenly having to deal with classes of 30 or more students on a regular basis introduces a whole host of problems in record-keeping, planning, and classroom management that the teacher may have never faced before, and magnifies the scale of old, familiar problems as well.

At the outset of our research on teaching large classes, we surveyed teachers at Ewha Womans University to find out what their common concerns related to large classes might be. The survey began with open-ended questions about ideal class size and what teachers considered to be a "large" class, and asked them what problems they encountered with their large classes. They were also given a checklist of problems from which they were asked to choose the most important. The results of this survey appear below.

FOCUS OF TEACHERS' CONCERN

Although our respondents consistently reported class sizes between 10 and 20 as ideal and classes over 30 as large, we question the significance of these statistics. If our results are compared to results of a similar study published in Japan (LoCastro, 1988), it seems that teachers have a different idea of what "large" is depending on their previous teaching experience.

Responses to the question about the type of problems encountered were much more enlightening. What we discovered was that an overwhelming majority of the teachers were concerned with teacher-oriented issues: classroom management issues, ways of communicating with their students, and ways of training their students to work and communicate better on their own. It

Table 1
Teacher Opinion: Ideal Class Size and Large Class Size*

	< 20	20 to 30	> 30
Ideal Class Size	22	0	0
"Large" Class Size	2	10	10

*(N = 22)

seemed that teachers' biggest area of uncertainty was how they, themselves, should behave in the classroom in order to maximize the productivity of their classes.

Survey responses also indicated that some teachers were concerned with developing appropriate material for use in large classes, and this is also a valid issue to address. However, the focus of our article is with the concern identified by the majority: teacher-oriented issues. Specific questions that were commonly raised in our survey results included:

1. How can the teacher monitor and interact with students individually, including learning names and giving the personal attention that students crave?
2. How can the teacher get the student to speak loudly and clearly, and make comments or ask questions in front of the whole class during large group discussions?
3. How can the teacher train students to work on their own when s/he is not monitoring them directly?
4. How can the teacher be sure the students are listening to him/her at crucial times, such as giving directions or assigning homework?

There are no simple answers. However, we believe that by combining the principles of good classroom management with a selection of techniques designed to train students to do independent work, these issues can be resolved. Most importantly, we believe that teachers who have confidence in their own in-class behavior will be well on their way to making their large classes more productive.

KEY ISSUES IN PLANNING

Experienced teachers note that the keys to success in teaching large classes are organization and planning (Mackinnon, 1997; Nolasco & Arthur, 1986). But what do those terms entail? For the purposes of discussion, the key issues in planning for large classes are broken down into three categories and these categories into more specific points.

1. Classroom Management & Instructions:

- Control your space to control your class.

In large classes, students tend to congregate near the back of classrooms. Students feel safe there. The further they are from the teacher, the less they feel that they will be called on to speak. But this also means the teacher will have to shout instructions and the students won't hear what is being said. As a rule of thumb, the closer the students are to the front of the class, the better. From day one, tell the students to sit only in pairs (to facilitate pair work) and in the first few rows of class. To facilitate this, manipulate the positions of desks and chairs so students have to sit at the front before the lesson begins, because it is difficult to move students around once they have sat down.

- Wait until movement is finished to give directions.

Get all your students' attention before you address the class. Use a non-verbal cue to get them

Table 2
Area of Problems*

Teacher-Oriented Issues	13
Student-Oriented Issues	2
Both	5
Uncertain/No Response	2

*(N = 22)

quiet, e.g. go quiet with your hand in the air, tap on the desk and turn the lights on and off once, take center stage; i.e. move from the side of the class to the center. Don't verbally call for quiet in large classes, because the students will just talk through you, and students can make more noise than one solitary teacher. When everyone is quiet and looking at you, give your instructions. Try this process for a week and most classes will see when they should be quiet and listen.

- Make directions clear before independent activity begins.

Do anything you can to facilitate the students' comprehension of what they have to do in an activity; e.g. write the instructions on the board and make the students read them chorally to you. "Concept check" instructions by asking the students simple yes/no questions; e.g. "Are you working in pairs; yes or no?" "Are you writing or speaking?". Look at the students' faces as you give the instructions. Do they look confused? Are they turning to their neighbours and asking questions? If so, then get a student you feel sure has understood the instructions to turn to face the class and explain in Korean what they have to do. Before class, script your instructions, and read them to yourself. If they don't make sense to you on paper, then they won't make sense to your students orally.

When you're sure everyone knows what is expected of them, let the students start the task. If students start doing a task incorrectly it will require a lot of fixing and backtracking.

- Model if necessary.

Model the activity to the class with a (good) student so the students can visualize what they have to do. Alternatively, get two (good) students to demonstrate the activity or part of the activity prior to the rest of the class tackling it.

- Move from reception to production.

This applies particularly to lower level or younger students. When you are doing a discussion or an activity which calls upon students to use their own ideas or opinions, don't just ask them to produce language immediately. For example, here is a typical response from a student from this kind of question at the start of class:

Teacher: What did you do on the weekend?

Student: Sleep (embarrassed laughter)

Students in large classes are particularly self-conscious about speaking in front of the class and scared about making mistakes in front of so many of their peers. Consequently, their answers tend to be limited. Provide plenty of time for the students' ideas to develop, allow also some time for practice and repetition, so the quality and quantity of the response may be improved. As a rule of thumb, begin with teacher-centered activities and move to independent activities. Get the students to ask you about your weekend first, so they can see the kind of response a native speaker provides. Get the students to then practice the same question in pairs before you call upon individuals in front of the class.

2. Learner Training:

- Train students to speak and listen to each other and to you.

This particularly applies to lower level students or very young learners in large classes. Our students' previous learning experience at school has probably been in large classes, and the lessons they had were possibly what we would call a lecture. The rules of interaction would probably be fairly fixed. The teacher would talk and the students might listen. Students were not expected to speak to each other, and all classroom interaction would be expected to go through the teacher. Students will be fairly unused to the communicative method of many ESL/EFL classes. They might

find speaking in a foreign language in pairs and groups strange, and think speaking only to the teacher (who is after all the 'real' English speaker) is appropriate.

Students may have to be trained to operate in a communicative classroom to maximize their oral practice time and, hopefully, their linguistic fluency. One way to start is to explain in Korean (or get a native speaker to explain or write it for you) what you will be doing in class, and what you'd like the students to do, and why. Next, train the students to work in pairs and to communicate with each other in the foreign language. Use open pairs to introduce pair work to the students and give students some fairly basic questions to start with; e.g. "Where do you live?", "What does your father/mother do?".

Allow them to write their answers to give them time to think of their answers. Then choose a student at random and ask her to ask any question from the list to another student you choose. Repeat this with students at opposite ends of the room (thus forcing them to speak loudly) and encourage them to listen and respond to each other and ask for feedback if they don't understand. (Teach them to say: "Sorry?" or "I don't know.") When you have done this several times, ask the students to ask and answer the same questions with their neighbour, in pairs. Repeat this open pair to closed pair format until the students are used to speaking in English in pairs.

- Train students to be more autonomous.

Through pair work and group work students will become used to working independently of the teacher, and not rely solely on the teacher for everything. If students are encouraged to bring and use dictionaries then they will be able to look up words they would normally ask you for, thus cutting down some of the running around a teacher will have to do in a large class.

Always provide extra tasks for quick finishers so students learn that they should keep busy in class and not just stop working, start speaking in their L1, and interrupt other learners when they finish early. Train students to speak loudly and clearly (using open pairs and shouting dictation) so other students can hear them.

3. Individual Contact and Student Monitoring:

- Learn your students' names.

Students seem to respect a teacher who makes the effort to learn the students' names. Knowing students' names also makes it easier for teachers to call on individual students quickly: in short it makes the crowd of faces less anonymous and makes the students feel they are known (positive teacher attention makes them feel appreciated.) The question is how you can remember all your students. One way is to make individual ID cards with recent photos of your students, their numbers and personal information. Carry these cards to class and use them as a way of identifying your students. Five minutes before class, sit down and flip through the cards trying to put a name to the face. You can also call roster everyday, so at least everyone's name is called once a lesson. If your roster is long then get the students working on a heads down quiet task while you call the roster so they don't get bored.

One colleague uses a pin/badge system, where each student puts a pin on their shirt with their name on at the beginning of every lesson (name cards placed on desks either fall off or are lost). Once the teacher can remember the name of a particular student then the student no longer has to wear the name pin.

- Monitor students and make individual contacts during group or pair activities.

When students are working in pairs or groups, go round and monitor them to help them, and make sure they are on task. Talk to the students while they are working in groups, so they get the chance to speak to a native speaker without having to speak in front of the whole class (which is potentially more humiliating for them). Often when teachers approach students, they clam up and

get embarrassed. If this happens ask them to talk about what they had just been talking about (a question or point they have just discussed) and talk with them individually. Initially students might seem disturbed by the teacher intrusion, but gradually they get used to it and will enjoy the chance to speak individually to a native speaker.

THE SHOUTING DICTATION

Overview

Looking at one activity, and how it relates to each of the points mentioned above, can provide a better understanding of how these issues work in the classroom. We call this activity “The Shouting Dictation.” (See Davis and Rinvoluceri, 1988 for another version of this activity.)

The aim of this activity is to train students to speak loudly and clearly to each other and the teacher, and to get them to ask each other for clarification and repetition when communication is not effective. The basic procedure is simple: students are paired off, and one student in each pair is given a text to dictate while the partner writes. The dictation does not happen at close quarters, however. Rather, the students are physically separated by several meters, forcing them to speak loudly.

In a large class, where several pairs are dictating simultaneously, the background becomes quite noisy, and students are literally forced to shout to their partners. Likewise, the recording partner often has difficulty hearing and is forced to ask for repetition or clarification. In addition to learner training, this technique can be used to get students to focus on a desired text or practice pronunciation, grammar, or target vocabulary. Finally, one benefit of this, or any, dictation is that all students in the class (whether it’s a class of 10 or a class of 200) are actively focused on either speaking or writing.

Outline of Procedure:

1. Get the students’ attention.
2. Explain the reason for the activity-you can’t hear them, and they can’t hear each other.
3. Get the students to pair up.
4. Divide each pair into an A partner and a B partner.
5. Provide A partners with a text for dictation, and have B partners prepare a blank sheet of paper and a pencil or pen.
5. Model the activity in front of class, using one pair.
6. Get students to move to positions appropriate for the activity.
8. A partners dictate while B partners write. (4 - 5 minutes)
9. Get students to switch roles (and, possibly, positions).
10. B partners dictate for 4 - 5 minutes.
11. Check performance (volume and clarity of reading) by asking individual students to read in front of the class.
12. Make a transition to another activity where students will practice their clear-speaking skills.

Discussion

The core activity is simple enough, but breaking it down into steps reveals some of the complexity involved. Moreover, when performing this activity with large classes, even some of the individual steps become quite complex, and require careful forethought.

First, in terms of classroom management, the primary issue with this activity will be managing

classroom space. Some issues that may affect teachers with large classes are, first, where to get the students to move while doing the dictation, and, secondly, how to make the directions clear to the students.

Ideally, in a classroom with movable chairs and plenty of space, the teacher can organize the space during step 3, at the same time the students are pairing up. Students can simply move their desks to face their partners' desks, then, after the activity is modeled in step 5, move their desks apart. But what if desks are fixed to the floor, or, worse yet, what if there is no free space at all in the classroom? Deciding where the students will go will be one of the key issues in the teacher's preparation. One solution we have found workable in crowded classes is to have the A students stand near the classroom walls as they dictate, while the B students move to desks near the center of the room.

Communicating these directions to students is also a point of concern, and one of the reasons why we generally model this activity before asking the students to perform independently. In addition to providing reinforcement of the directions for the activity itself, modeling with one pair also gives the teacher an opportunity to show other students where they should go in the classroom.

Learner training is also an issue when performing the shouting dictation. Although the shouting dictation can certainly be used as an alternative way to present a text to students, it will be more effective as learner training if it is followed (preferably in the same class period) by another activity that requires students to speak loudly and clearly, and subsequently reinforced as well. Asking students individually to read part of the dictation text to the class (step 11 above) would be a minimum reinforcement. Better would be some sort of group work followed by a presentation to the class, or a question/answer session with the teacher. Designing appropriate followup, and subsequently reinforcing use of the same skills, will eventually train students to speak clearly and make class presentations and discussions more productive. (As a further reference, Nolasco & Arthur (1986) give a good example of a progressive syllabus linking learner training activities.)

Finally, when performing the shouting dictation, the teacher of a large class should be thinking about how to best use the students' active time to make individual contact or to individually monitor student progress. In a structured activity like a dictation, unlike a creative discussion, it's not possible to make much personal contact. Many teachers may thus be tempted, once the activity is launched, to simply circulate around the room and make sure that all students are actively pursuing the task. However, teachers should not overlook the possibility of spending a minute or more with just one pair to get a better understanding of the process the students go through and the difficulties they encounter as they complete the activity.

Over the course of a ten-minute activity, observing 4 or 5 pairs in this way can provide the teacher a random sample of how the class is doing as a whole, and may also provide new insight into the material itself or the strengths and weaknesses of certain individual students. In our classes, we have found this method very useful in determining which vocabulary words in a reading passage are difficult for students. As one student reads, it's not uncommon for her to reach a word which her partner simply cannot understand, no matter how clearly it's pronounced, because of a cognitive or contextual block. Students usually overcome this difficulty by asking their partners to spell the word to them. By listening carefully, the teacher can also identify difficult words or passages in the reading, and these words may later become the target of a review activity, or an explanation to the class.

CONCLUSION

When we tell teachers of smaller classes how many students we teach in each lesson, they look shocked or horrified. The implication is that teaching big classes is just not 'real' teaching. Large numbers of students are frequently seen as threatening, potentially dangerous, and ultimately

unsatisfactory for the teacher and ineffective for the learner. If you mentioned such objections to an experienced teacher of large classes they would probably be dumbstruck. Such teachers have apparently solved the “problem” of teaching large classes. In reality, however, there is no such solution. Above all else, experience is key, but attending conferences, advice from colleagues, consulting relevant books on the subject and an adherence to some of the principles we have dealt with in this paper may help the teacher develop a degree of operational comfort in the large classroom.

We would especially like to recommend Rob Nolasco and Lois Arthur’s (1988) book *Large Classes* as a more in-depth study of the issues covered briefly in this paper. We encourage new teachers and experienced teachers alike to study these issues further.

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THE AUTHORS

Andrew Jackson has taught French in the United Kingdom and EFL in Quebec, Italy, Spain, and Korea. He is currently an instructor at Ewha Womans University and an instructor in the Cambridge/RSA Diploma program at Yonsei University.

Peter Kipp taught composition and language arts in the United States before coming to Korea. He has been an EFL instructor in Korea since 1993, and currently teaches at Ewha Womans University.

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APPENDIX A
Survey on Large Group Instruction

Dear Teachers,

We are planning for a presentation at the KOTESOL conference on teaching large groups. Can you help us with any ideas or tips? Please don't feel confined to the questions on the survey, and we'd also appreciate feedback on the design of the survey itself.

Thanks!
Peter & Andy

.....

What would you consider the ideal class size?

What would you consider a large class?

What kind of problems have you encountered teaching large classes?

What solutions or techniques have you come up with to deal with these problems?

In your opinion, what is the most difficult area of large-classroom management?

- Getting students to listen to you.
- Grading and record keeping.
- Developing individual relationships with students.
- Monitoring classroom activities.
- Giving directions.
- Moving and organizing students in the classroom.
- Getting students to volunteer in front of class.
- Getting students to interact with each other.
- Getting students to participate in English.
- Correcting tests and homework.
- Assembling materials in large quantities.
- Developing or finding suitable large-group activities.
- Other (please specify) _____

Cross-cultural teaching cases: Vehicles for teacher development

JANE JACKSON

The Chinese University of Hong Kong

How can teacher education programs in Asia prepare teachers for the challenges that await them in the real world of EFL practice? This paper highlights the value of using reality-based decision cases to help teachers become reflective, culturally sensitive professionals in classrooms that are ethnically and culturally diverse. Cases are candid, often dramatic accounts of teaching events. In our field, they can depict the real experiences of EFL teachers grappling with problems in English language classrooms in a variety of settings. These snapshots of on-the-job dilemmas can serve as powerful discussion catalysts in teacher education programs. As such, they can provide opportunities for novice teachers to examine their own perceptions and attitudes and reflect on different ways of teaching that might better engage their particular students.

Inadequate resources, poorly motivated students, large classes... these are just a few of the challenging teaching situations that routinely confront EFL teachers in many parts of the world, including Asia. How can teacher educators help ready student teachers for the diverse situations that they will face in the real world of EFL teaching practice in Asia? This paper explores the benefits and challenges of using reality-based decision cases to help novice teachers develop the skills and confidence necessary to become competent, reflective EFL teachers.

ESSENTIAL SKILLS OF TEFL GRADUATES

While the specific features of EFL teaching positions may vary considerably, there is one aspect that remains constant; the teachers who will be most at ease in their new positions will be those who are adept at analyzing and sensitively handling the wide range of problems that confront them on a day-to-day basis. To succeed, they will need to be resourceful, creative, self-assured, independent, and, yet, able to seek out assistance when necessary. Well-developed cross-cultural communication skills as well as effective interpersonal skills will also be assets.

Since it is not possible to arrange for student teachers to gain experience in supervised practice in all teaching situations that they might encounter, how can teacher educators best prepare them for what awaits them in an EFL classroom in Singapore, Taipei, Hanoi, or wherever they decide to venture? One approach that can help bridge the gap between theoretical concepts and the problem-oriented world of TEFL practice and also assist students to develop the requisite skills and attributes of successful EFL teachers is the use of well crafted decision cases.

Reality-based decision cases provide rich, detailed descriptions of the dilemmas teachers and students actually face in an EFL context. Cases of this type, which have their roots in the Harvard School of Business, are usually open-ended to stimulate debate and student involvement (Merseth, 1991; Wassermann, 1994). These cases are specially designed to encourage teacher reflection, analysis, problem-solving, and decision-making—essential skills for successful EFL teachers.

Teaching cases can be powerful vehicles to transport chunks of reality into the professional

classroom to be worked over by prospective teachers as in a case that I prepared for a TEFL methodology course (See Appendix A for the “Silence of the Lambs” case and guiding questions). As this case unfolds, we discover that Susan, an experienced ESL teacher, is teaching outside the United States for the first time. It is also her first experience working with Korean students and she is perplexed by their reticence to participate in class discussions. In fact, she is so disturbed that she is thinking of dropping her conversation course next semester. Why were her students so quiet? What went wrong? What could Susan do to get her discussion class back on track? What strategies might she use to involve her Korean students in discussions?

THE MERITS OF TEFL CASES

Why should teacher educators consider using cases in TEFL methodology courses? By analyzing decision cases like the “Silence of the Lambs,” novice teachers can sharpen their overall communication skills, including their ability to listen critically and with empathy, to read with a purpose, to synthesize information, to make inferences, to discuss serious issues with colleagues, and to speak more clearly and persuasively. By working together to analyze dilemmas like Susan’s, student teachers can also refine their interpersonal and cooperative learning skills. In the process, they can learn how to handle their emotions and conflict more easily and build positively on the ideas of others.

Through the analysis of teaching cases, student teachers can also become more attuned to their culture-bound beliefs and values and acquire a more in-depth understanding and acceptance of ideas that differ from their own. Further, TEFL cases can introduce prospective teachers to the challenges of working with students, colleagues, and parents from diverse cultures in situations that are very demanding and confusing as is the case in much of EFL practice.

In the process of analyzing cases, student teachers are encouraged to become involved in the cases and to identify with the characters at the center of each dilemma. By slipping into Susan’s shoes or into those of another EFL teacher in the mist of a dilemma, novice teachers can gradually become socialized to the real world of EFL teachers.

Moreover, in this active-learning approach it is recognized that adult students come to class with relevant practical experience and conceptual knowledge which they are encouraged to utilize when they work through a case; it is through this process that case analysis becomes meaningful and relevant (Jackson 1997; Merseth 1991; Shulman & Colbert, 1988; Welty & Silverman, 1995). Grappling with the issues in cases, then, can narrow the gap between theory and practice and help student teachers cope more easily with the unpredictable, messy nature of teaching. In fact, cases can easily be designed to fit in with the objectives of a curriculum so that they serve as a practical extension of the theoretical information presented in the assigned readings and lectures.

Finally, cases can expose students to a wide variety of teaching situations which can help them become more aware of the diverse demands that may be placed on them. Moreover, by working through cases in groups as well as with the whole class, students can develop the problem-solving and decision-making skills they will need to cope with confusion and ambiguity which typify EFL teaching situations. In the process, they can begin to think like EFL practitioners.

TEFL CASES

The following are some other possible topics for engaging TEFL cases which could place a teacher squarely in the midst of a dilemma:

- preparing listening materials for an EFL class with a wide range of interests and proficiency levels;

- reflecting on an EFL reading lesson that was boring and uninspiring;
- preparing a role play for a group of adult male students in Pusan who are skeptical about the benefits of language games;
- facing an incident of intercultural miscommunication in the classroom;
- designing a culturally sensitive curriculum for a class of female Indonesian medical students;
- trying peer review with an unconvinced group of EFL writing students in Kuala Lumpur;
- attempting to use pair work in a class of 40 multi-level adult students in rural Malaysia;
- teaching a conversation class composed entirely of Korean students who are very reluctant to speak in English in class;
- teaching in a poorly equipped classroom in an unfamiliar sociocultural environment;
- working for local administrators who regard EFL teachers as 9-5 office workers rather than as professionals.

SOURCES OF TEFL CASES

Unfortunately, there are now only a few texts available that contain problem-based cases that are specifically developed for use in TEFL methodology courses. Plaister (1993) has presented fifty-three brief cases that have been used in the Master of Arts English teaching practicum at the University of Hawaii. These cases or “vignettes,” which vary from only a paragraph to a page in length, are organized into pedagogical/curricular and administrative/personnel concerns; many of the cases describe problems in EFL teaching practice. A casebook was introduced by TESOL this year (Richards, 1998). It contains 76 reality-based case study accounts of how ESOL teachers resolved problems in various teaching situations in different parts of the world. In contrast to the situations presented in Plaister’s text, these cases will end with a resolution and comments by experts in our field.

In the fields of general teacher education and educational administration, there is a much greater selection of casebooks available (See Appendix B); luckily, many present issues of relevance to TEFL teacher educators and provide excellent examples of compelling decision cases that could be adapted to EFL situations in Asia or, at minimum, they provide models for the development of cases in our area of specialization.

Case clearinghouses can also be a source of cases in TEFL as well as in cross-cultural education. While most of the material they house and distribute is intended for general teacher education programs, they can provide teacher educators in our field with many valuable ideas about how to develop and creatively adapt their own cases. (See Appendix C for a selected list of case clearinghouses.)

TEFL CASES IN THE CLASSROOM

There is no single approach to case-based teaching in teacher education programs. Rather, individual teacher educators need to determine what works best in their particular teaching situation. Whatever approach is followed, it is essential to clearly explain the rationale for the use of cases as well as expectations for students in this nontraditional mode of learning.

The following section outlines one approach that I have found to be successful in my TEFL methodology courses. If the cases are brief they can usually be introduced and analyzed during the same class session. With each case, I usually include a few questions to help the students focus their deliberations. Sometimes the questions have been prepared by the case writer; if not, I develop my own. The questions usually become progressively more challenging, as in the following list:

1. Why is this case a dilemma?
2. Who are the key players?
3. What are the main issues/problems they face?
4. What might be the direct/indirect causes of the problems?
5. What, if anything, should X do to resolve the dilemma?
6. What are the benefits and limitations of each solution?
7. What would you do if you were in X's shoes? Why?
8. What did you learn about yourself as a teacher through the analysis of this case?

After they have read through the case on their own, if time permits, I ask the students to form groups of 4 - 5 to discuss the case and determine possible solutions to the dilemma. If there is insufficient time available for this during class, students can form study groups and analyze the case outside before the next full-class meeting.

Whether in or out of class, group work is important since it gives students a chance to explore their ideas in a safe context and prepare for the more challenging debate that will involve the rest of the class. During the group meeting, one member of each group takes on the responsibility of recording ideas on chart paper. At the end of the group session, the students rank-order their solutions and prepare to present their ideas to the other groups.

Next, all of the students in the class come together and form a semi-circle or another seating arrangement that allows them to see each other easily when we debrief the case. After the recorders have presented the ideas of their groups, I encourage students to challenge the various arguments and delve more deeply into the issues. For this to happen, there must be a climate of trust and respect; students must feel secure enough to express ideas that differ from those of their colleagues and explore new ways of thinking about an issue.

Finally, to conclude the full-group meeting, in the role of facilitator, I summarize the key points made during the debriefing and encourage students to reflect on the learning experience itself. This can take the form of a discussion or individual journal writing. At this stage, students may also be motivated to write their own cases to exchange with other students for discussion and analysis.

THE DRAWBACKS OF USING CASES

Thus far, I have focused on the benefits of cases. Case-based teaching is not without limitations, however. Before implementing case-based learning sessions in teacher education programs, teacher educators need to be aware that the case method is a challenging instructional strategy to use. As case leader, your ability to use discussion teaching to help students more fully understand the intricacies in a case may determine whether the instructional process works well or fails (Barnes, Christensen & Hansen, 1994) and, therefore, considerable preparation, practice, and patience are likely needed before you are skillful and confident as a case leader.

The roles of facilitator, discussion leader and catalyst may be disquieting at first and not easily accepted by some of your students who may feel that as the "expert," you should be giving them the "right" answers or solutions as in the more traditional lecture mode. This may result in strained teacher-student relations. Another concern is that it takes more time to cover course content with cases than it does with such traditional teaching methods as lectures. Moreover, few cases in EFL contexts are readily available; you will need to be resourceful in adapting or writing your own cases, a challenging task requiring well developed writing skills.

THE PROMISE OF DECISION CASES IN TEFL TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Notwithstanding these disadvantages, I believe that the case method has the potential to

revitalize TEFL teacher education programs by injecting realism into the classroom. For case-based learning to reach its potential in our field, however, we urgently need more good quality TEFL cases (in written or videotaped form) and teaching notes prepared by experienced EFL teachers/teacher educators/graduate students. In this way, we can document the practice of EFL teachers in a variety of cultural and academic settings and make it available for others. These cases, which should, ideally, have enough texture and substance to promote multiple levels of discussion, analysis, and possible solutions, would then need to be made available in the form of casebooks or as individual cases massed in a clearinghouse for teacher educators.

In the fall of 1998, I began a case development project with two colleagues at The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Professor Eva Lai, the Director of the Independent Learning Centre, and Cecilia Shek, a professor in the Faculty of Education. With the support of a Language Fund grant, we will be documenting the realities of English language teaching in secondary schools in Hong Kong. The goal of our project is the development of locally-based, relevant teaching cases for use in teacher education programs in Hong Kong.

The establishment of an international clearinghouse to collect and distribute TEFL cases or the submission of cases to general teacher education clearinghouses would also greatly facilitate the sharing of TEFL case material and case-based learning/teaching experiences. For there to be a dramatic increase in the number of quality TEFL cases available, however, more institutions of higher education will need to recognize case development as a scholarly endeavor, with appropriate rewards in their advancement schemes. Without this, only a few EFL teachers and teacher educators are apt to continue to explore the benefits and challenges of writing cases. The exchange of ideas about case-based teaching/learning in the form of articles in TEFL journals, presentations at conferences, and on-line discussions in the TESL-L network or other newsgroups can further stimulate the growth of this pedagogy. The benefits could be realized by teacher educators and student teachers throughout Asia.

SUMMARY

Decision-making will always be one of the most important dimensions of an EFL teacher's work. Teachers must be able to analyze a classroom problem, determine what options are possible, and select the most appropriate plan of action. Cases can provide a vehicle for student teachers to reflect on realistic classroom dilemmas and apply the theories and research findings that they are studying in their TEFL program.

While case-based learning should not replace the first-hand experience of a practicum, it can supplement it, and allow students to vicariously experience a far greater range of teaching situations and dilemmas. In the process, cases can breathe life into TEFL teacher education programs in Asia and engage students as active participants in the learning process. Cases are well worth the effort.

THE AUTHOR

Jane Jackson, Ph.D., is Associate Professor in the Department of English at the Chinese University of Hong Kong. Her current publications and research centre on case-based learning in English for Specific Purposes and teacher education. She has experience in TESOL in the Middle East, Canada, the United States, and China. Email: <jjackson@cuhk.edu.hk>.

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APPENDIX A SILENCE OF THE LAMBS

Susan Sparks took a good, hard look at her students, row by row. She had only been teaching in Seoul for a month and she was already exasperated. When she was in Los Angeles, she loved teaching adult conversation classes; her Arab and Hispanic students usually lost themselves in some very animated discussions. Teaching was a treat then. In fact, it was so much fun that it never seemed to take much effort. As long as she was armed with interesting material and a list of thought-provoking questions, the lessons always went smoothly. What was wrong now? This was supposed to be a conversation class!! The silence was deafening and she felt out of her depth. She hadn't been this nervous in front of a class since her teaching practicum at New York University almost six years ago!

This was her first EFL assignment, and only a few short months ago she had been full of excitement and anticipation about coming to Korea. She hadn't expected it to be like this! Why were her Korean undergraduates looking at her like she was from Mars? Why was Soonyi not saying anything? She had talked to Susan after class last week and seemed to have lots to say then. What about Icy, Serena, and Kim? Only yesterday, they were chatting with her in her office and seemed eager to practice their English. They wouldn't even look at her now.

She drew a deep breath and plunged on. "Do you think the student in the article should report that she is being sexually harassed? What do you think she should do?" Silence... "What would you do if you were in the same situation?" More silence... "Does this university have a sexual harassment policy?" Nothing!... For the next twenty minutes, she struggled to get the students to respond to her questions. Half of the students seemed to have their eyes on the floor and the rest were glancing anxiously at the clock. She couldn't figure out what was wrong. She thought the reading and her questions were terrific. This topic generated a lot of discussion in her classes in Los Angeles but the students here didn't show even a flicker of interest. Her anxious eyes rapidly scanned the passive, expressionless faces and her heart sank. She couldn't get a response from anyone. No one volunteered a single comment. Out of frustration, she ended the class early and headed to her office for a Tylenol. She sank into her chair and began to think seriously about

transferring to an academic writing class in the next semester. Maybe, it would be easier to get students to express their ideas on paper!

Case analysis

As the case unfolds, we discover that Susan Sparks, an experienced ESL teacher, is teaching outside the United States for the first time. It is also her first experience working with Korean students and she is perplexed by their reticence in class discussions. Some of the students have been eager to talk to her in small groups or individually outside of class but in class, they wouldn't say anything. She is so frustrated about her teaching situation that she is now thinking about dropping this course next semester. Why were her students so quiet? What went wrong? What might Susan do to get her "discussion" class on track? What strategies might she use to involve her Korean students in discussions? What would you do if you were in her shoes? Why?

Questions for thought and discussion:

1. Why is this case a dilemma?
2. What are the main issues or problems?
3. What might Susan Sparks do to resolve the dilemma?
4. What are the consequences of each solution?
5. What might Susan Sparks have done to prevent this situation from happening?
6. What would you do if you were in her shoes? Why?
7. What did you learn from this case that you could apply to your own teaching situation?

APPENDIX B

A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF TEACHING CASE MATERIAL

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APPENDIX C
CASE CLEARINGHOUSES*

The Roderick MacDougall Center for Case Development and Teaching
Harvard University
339 Gutman Library
Cambridge, MA
United States
Fax: 617-496-8051

Center for Case Studies in Education
Pace University
White Plains, New York
United States
Fax: 914-773-3878

Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development
1855 Folsom St.
San Francisco, CA 94103
United States

Case Writing Group
Washington Center for Improving the Quality of Undergraduate Education
L 2211, The Evergreen State College
Olympia, WA 98505,
United States

International Case Clearinghouse
37 Ebury Crescent
London, Ont.
Canada, N6C 3E1
Fax: 519-686-7332

Case Clearinghouse
Faculty of Education
Simon Fraser University
Burnaby, B.C.
Canada, V5A 1S6

*(centers that house and distribute case material)

Learning to C.O.P.E: Classroom Management Tips and Tricks

DOUGLAS PAUL MARGOLIS

KOTESOL Teacher Training / Konkuk University

Among the many roles that teachers occupy, manager of the classroom and its personnel may be one of the most important and yet difficult. In Korea, as elsewhere, teachers face the problems of absenteeism, tardiness, lack of motivation, multi-level classrooms, impossible class sizes, too much noise, not enough noise, disrespect, and students who do not finish their homework, to name only a few. This paper is an expanded transcript of a presentation developed for the KOTESOL Teacher Trainers' roving workshops and presents a method for analyzing classroom management problems, by examining, as an example, the homework problem and its component parts. The final part of this paper presents a philosophical perspective for approaching all aspects of classroom management from a mixed teacher-centered and student-centered approach. A three page information handout with references and specific solutions for particular problems follows the paper.

How many people want this presentation to be a waste of time? How many people want to be bored to tears for 50 minutes? How many people want only an entertaining presentation, without learning a thing? None of us, or few of us. That is the same for our students. So the first thing to remember about classroom management is that the students are on our side. They want us to succeed.

Nevertheless, all of us who have been teaching for any length of time are well familiar with the various demands that require our classroom management skills. Some of the following problems, for example, frequently arise in teacher conversations: an impossibly too numerous class size, absenteeism, tardiness, non-participation, talking in Korean, multi-level classrooms, lack of motivation, or students not doing homework, to name only a few. Let us examine one of these problems in more detail.

THE HOMEWOK PROBLEM

Take the problem of students who do not do homework. To solve it, we must begin by taking it apart. This homework problem, for example, could be a teacher problem, a time problem, a process problem, a motivation problem, or a habit problem. When we divide it so, we can more easily find solutions to the "problem."

The Teacher Problem

First, let us consider how we as teachers might possibly be contributing to the problem. Perhaps our instructions are not clear and understandable. Perhaps the assignment is too challenging or too easy and therefore pointless. As a student who studied Korean, I can say with certainty that a great number of our students do not comprehend our expectations immediately. They must check with other students or guess and estimate the teacher's expectation. Some will believe they understand the assignment but really misunderstand it. In all of these cases, we can not blame the students for the

problem. These are the results of language barriers. The teacher, therefore, must bear the brunt of responsibility.

We can accept this responsibility and help to solve the homework problem by making sure that our instructions are as simply stated and clear as possible. Further, writing our instructions and giving them to each student could be of great benefit. When they can read the instructions on paper, they can confirm their understanding and more clearly perceive the expectations. Instructions also give them a guide by which to proceed. Moreover, we should communicate the objectives of our assignment. What is its purpose? What will students gain by doing it? Conveying the objectives of the assignment to students will help them better understand the purpose of their work and so orient them to it. Finally, we can give more appropriate work if we constantly remain mindful of student level. If we teach a multi-level class, assigning work that is able to be done by low levels but also able to be expanded by higher level students will more readily inspire all students.

The Time Problem

Another aspect of the homework problem is the time problem. We are all familiar with time impingement on our lives. From time to time, we too need extension of deadlines and better time management skills. Do we give Ss time for their homework? Do we give them time for their other class work? Are we aware that all teachers are competing with each other for the Ss' time and attention? Do we account for this competition in our lesson planning? Also, do we permit time for family obligations, holidays, and festivals? If our expectations are unrealistic, we may be constantly frustrated by students who do not do their homework.

To avoid the time element of the homework problem, we should try to become aware of the demands on our Ss' time. Make sure that we give time for other classes, plan for festivals and holidays in our schedules, and make allowances for family obligations. More importantly, we can help Ss budget their time by giving them calendars and timelines. Finally, if we make sure that our assignments directly contribute to test performance, our Ss will not feel that they are wasting their time when they do homework.

The Process Problem

If the homework problem is in part a process problem, then perhaps our Ss are attempting the assignment, but getting stuck on various parts. Maybe they are not sure how to proceed or do not understand the appropriate format of the expected product. Possibly, they simply are emphasizing the wrong parts. Let us not forget how difficult assignments were when we were a student. If we provide examples of the methods to be used, break the assignment into small parts, and give time frames for each part, we might eliminate another potential culprit. In addition, after assignments, ask Ss to describe and evaluate their methods. Show interest, not only in their products, but also their processes.

The Motivation Problem

Yet another even more burly culprit is the motivation problem. Perhaps our Ss don't like English, don't like homework, or don't like us. We must face this problem head on to solve it. If they were required to take our course, we can not expect them to be self-motivated, but we can help them identify reasons to become interested. We can help students identify motivation through discussions and consciousness-raising class work. We can help them by using diverse teaching techniques that reach all learning styles. We can also search for ways to make homework relevant and meaningful to Ss needs. The most effective method that I have found, however, is to take an active and genuine interest in my Ss' lives.

The Habit Problem

Finally, we come to the problem of habit. Perhaps not doing homework has become a bad habit. Or our Ss are genuinely lazy. This interpretation is the one that I most hear teachers surmise when they discuss the problem. In my experience with students, however, I usually do not find that they are lazy or adverse to doing homework. Often they are busy with other more important assignments or unclear about expectations. However, if laziness and a bad habit must be changed, there are techniques that can help us. First, we should not try to break a habit all at once. Break habits slowly and in increments. If possible, try to get the student to do 10 minutes of homework a night. Then up it to 30 minutes. Finally, push for an hour, then more. Further, provide positive reinforcement. Psychological research has shown that negative reinforcement rarely produces desired results in education. Therefore, rather than punish, always encourage and praise the desired behavior. On the other hand, do not give meaningless praise. If you give it only when Ss earn it, they will value your praise.

Another tactic for changing this bad habit is to discover the student's particular interest or hobby. Then spark their progress with a relevant assignment. Sometimes holding a contest will invoke a competitive spirit that inspires students to do homework. Yet another tactic is to do group projects to enlist the power of peer pressure. A last tactic that sometimes helps is to negotiate learning contracts with the student that provides for a positive outcome after meeting certain objectives. This tactic is more learner-centered than others mentioned above, and it involves the student in decision-making regarding his or her education.

These various suggestions may not be the exact answer for your particular situation, but this process of breaking the homework problem into its various components is a good method for helping us to think about and find solutions for the problems that we face. The main principle of this method is that we must stop assuming that every Ss is the same. We can not afford to assume that every similar result has a similar cause. We must instead look for the nature of the real problem in each particular case.

LEARNING TO C.O.P.E.

Now that you have an example of a method for analyzing problems, I will present to you the principles of learning to C.O.P.E. C is for choices, O is for opportunities, P is for politics or power, and E is for Energy. These are the four fundamental elements of classroom management.

Choices

As a teacher we always have choices. Sometimes we do not recognize them, or we do not consciously make them, but they exist. We must learn to recognize choices. We must make them consciously. We must create choices, reflect on our choices, and consider the consequences of our choices. If we maximize choices for our students we will be a better teacher.

Opportunities

Throughout life opportunities appear and disappear. The more we recognize and seize opportunities in teaching, the more interesting, relevant and natural our teaching will be. Look for teachable moments, where circumstances create a need in students. Seize opportunities. Give opportunities. Trust opportunities to arise. Moreover, see Ss as opportunities. They often have experience and perspectives that can advance teaching goals in surprisingly useful ways. Further, do not forget that Ss need opportunities. They need opportunities to shine, opportunities to feel good, and opportunities to be confused and challenged.

Politics or Power

Politics is the distribution of resources and values. It is how we award some people or some behavior, but ignore others. Politics and power play an important role in teaching. Through the appropriate awareness and use of these tools, we gain Ss respect and trust. The unwise abuse of politics and power leads to loss of respect and trust, which will make teaching impossible. The following political principles may help in teaching. Do not make enemies; create allies. Give power and you increase it; grasp and cling to power and it diminishes. Push and people push back. Abuse of power causes loss of power. Fights generally end in loss for both parties.

Our political capital is spent like money. Some choices cost us a lot of political capital, whereas others might increase our political capital. Before making choices we should assess the price and ask ourselves which option is the most cost-effective. Sometimes ignoring a student is more powerful than engaging in a costly battle. Generally, cautious saving of our political capital ensures its strength when we really need it.

Energy

Energy is always changing and flowing. A good teacher must learn to flow with the energy. We should not fight the energy but learn to adapt to it. Above all we must be aware of Ss and room energy. We also should be aware of our own energy. If so, we can learn to lead the flow and be a channel, rather than swept away by the flood.

With attention given to our classroom management practices, we can avoid being swept away by the flood of problems that inevitably arises. Learning to C.O.P.E. can help us find the appropriate ways to advance our students toward their goals. We should never forget that our Ss want good classes. They want fair teachers. They want to test their skills and see their progress. Usually, they also do not like disruptions and problems. But our Ss need respect. They do not like to waste their time. They do not like being ignored. They do not like being too confused and frustrated. All in all, they are a lot like us.

THE AUTHOR

Douglas Paul Margolis currently teaches at Konkuk University in Seoul. He has taught at Kookmin University, The University of Hawaii, Peninsula College, and Seattle Central Community College. He developed this presentation for KTT (KOTESOL Teacher Training) and presents it at KTT workshops.

Motivating Language Students Using Cultural Comparisons

PETER NELSON

Chung-Ang University

The study of cultures is both fascinating and a powerful teaching tool for the ESL/EFL classroom. Culture may be studied as a product, focusing on institutions, behaviors or artifacts. It may also be incorporated as a process, in which aspects of one's own or another culture become mechanisms for target structures in L2. Although there are many ways to introduce comparative culture, the teacher must ensure the presentation is appropriately designed for the learners, maintains student interest, and avoids common pitfalls.

WHY STUDY CULTURE WHEN TEACHING ENGLISH?

It is important to recognize that the study of language automatically incorporates aspects of the culture from which the language originated or within which it is spoken. Hence language and culture do not evolve along separate paths but are entwined, each partly shaping the other. As teachers, we must convey this notion to our students and, when possible, provide illustrations to show relationships. In doing so we not only sensitize our students to cultural implications of both L1 and L2, but also make the study of L2 more enjoyable.

An example from Australian English shows these relationships. Australians have a phrase—"She'll be right, mate"—which is used in a variety of social situations. The surface meaning is not to worry unduly as events will take their own course and work themselves out, often for the better. Thus, if I am ill with the flu a friend might say, "Not to worry, she'll be right, mate," indicating both my friend's acknowledgment of my health condition and his advice.

There is a more complex side when using this phrase, however, one that reflects the rougher aspects of Australian origins. "She'll be right, mate" inherently contains an element of fatalism, implying that I cannot change forces of nature, laws of the universe, or whatever applies in a given situation, so I might just as well put up with my burden. To an American immigrant in Australia the phrase is essentially alien, as we have opposite notions of "Conquering the wilderness," "Manifest Destiny" and so on. Thus the Australians' phrase possibly originated from the unyielding harshness of the land or perhaps the country's penal beginnings, whereas the Americans' contrary phrases reflect a bountiful frontier environment, a sense of greatness and a can-do philosophy. In this instance the language is the same, English, yet the local statements mirror unique cultural evolution patterns.

A second reason for studying culture in the L2 classroom reflects the rise of communicative teaching approaches and textbooks. The newer techniques and materials are more context-based than their predecessors, and also are more "student friendly" by acknowledging the different needs, backgrounds and expectations of students. They are sensitive to cultural differences, especially in those English-speaking nations that encourage immigration from a variety of countries. In many cases, teachers in ESL classrooms who adapt well to the diverse backgrounds of their students purposively select instructional materials emphasizing cultural variety.

Third, the rapid spread of English as a world language is impacting other cultures. We know that the term globalization refers to more than goods and services traded internationally, and includes aspects of telecommunications and media influence as well. English vocabulary and linguistic forms are penetrating other societies at an increasing rate, and students today learn linguistic structures and vernacular phrases in English through the Internet, movies, television and so on. Clearly, ESL and EFL teachers should address these sweeping social changes as well as consider their collective impact upon students.

Two final points are closely related. One is that cultural studies provide comparison markers for ESL and EFL learners. Both types of students have “grounded” reference points either when discussing their own culture or comparing it to others. These comparative discussions about culture provide foundations for further conversations on vocabulary, linguistic forms and discourse, all of which relate to L2 development.

Last, cultural studies provide interest and motivation in the classroom. Learning by studying other societies can be fun. Comparisons enable student initiative and keep conversation active, while cultural studies show the meanings of words/phrases within a societal context.

HOW CAN CULTURE BE INTRODUCED IN THE CLASSROOM?

Whereas there are a number of reasons why culture should be introduced, the ways to do so may be limited only by the teacher’s (or students’) imagination. The traditional method is to view culture as societal institutions. Here the focus is on governments, private organizations, educational systems and the like. Using this approach an educator may, for example, compare the British Parliament to the American Congress or the Russian Duma. Student interest is directed primarily to the institutions themselves, and generally L2 structures are means rather than ends. One advantage of this teaching method is the plentiful supply of materials, but the downside is potential boredom, as students may have no interest in the target country’s institutions. They may also have difficulty understanding the purpose for the comparisons when they are studying language, not history or government.

A newer approach is to view culture as an output, concentrating not on institutions but on social values and beliefs. The teacher may introduce aspects of art, literature, music or religion, using carefully selected L2 expressions to compare societies. In this regard photographs, print media, popular music and videos may all be employed to encourage students to compare their own country to another. Studying culture in this manner is more likely to generate class interest than studying institutions, and consequently is better suited for communicative-based language instruction and elicitation.

The latest approach is to view culture as behavior, or what people actually do. This method incorporates findings from studies in psychology, sociology and communication, and analyzes customs, greetings, body language, gestures and other behaviors. Students get to role play and interact, often using their own initiative in different social situations. For example, a section entitled “What do you say when...?” may challenge students to generate appropriate language forms for greetings, apologies, leave taking, embarrassment, anger and so on. Although it may be more difficult for the teacher to get sufficient material to discuss a foreign culture, the benefits from highly motivated students using language in real situations can easily outweigh drawbacks.

PROBLEMS AND PITFALLS

Although cultural comparisons may encourage learning, they may unintentionally create problems in the classroom. For example, time pressures in a low-level classroom may induce teachers to over-generalize about a target society, and in doing so greatly simplify the complexity

of its institutions, values and behaviors. Rather than explain the meaning of phrases, realia or pictures in context, the instructor may hurriedly discuss them in cultural stereotypes and symbols. Thus France is reduced to the Eiffel Tower and croissants; the British are stodgy; Mexicans sleep under a cactus and so on. This process of reductionism is somewhat unavoidable, in part because the class is studying primarily a language, not society. It also occurs because the materials we use to illustrate aspects of the target culture are chosen because they fulfill our own stereotypes of that particular culture. Avoiding this vicious circle is difficult, and as teachers we must not only be aware of our reductionist tendencies but also deliberately minimize them whenever possible.

Another pitfall is the undue emphasis placed on Western culture in general, and on English speaking countries in particular. The reasons for this restricted focus are obvious: most of the published materials come from North America and Europe; students want to learn about Western culture; and our target language is English. Nevertheless, as teachers we should consider exposing our students to the world, not just the West. Accordingly, our materials and lessons should consider non-Western countries where English is spoken as a first or important second language (e.g., India, Ghana), or where it is studied as a foreign language (e.g., China, Korea).

By limiting ourselves to studies of the West we inadvertently introduce another problem: implied cultural superiority. This problem is extensive in an EFL setting, where the native English speaker, invariably from North America, the UK, Australia, New Zealand or South Africa, either deliberately or unconsciously glorifies his own society when comparing it to the host country or to another being studied by the class. While our comparative language forms may be unintended, the message conveyed is often subtle yet unmistakable: my country's way of life is superior. A better approach is not to speak either of one's own or target culture in positive or negative terms, but where possible to speak neutrally of each.

Closely related to aspects of social superiority is the tendency to rely on the study of culture as the description of institutions, thereby ignoring output or behavior. As noted, this is the traditional approach, and sufficient teaching materials are readily available. Yet this ignores the splendid wealth of literature, folklore, ceremonies, beliefs and superstitions that are found in all nations, much of which can provide hours of fascinating conversation and opportunities for students to learn English. Getting access to these materials may be more difficult, and perhaps require mental digging, but the rewards can be substantially greater.

A final pitfall identified here is over-use of mass media exponents: television, movies, videos and books. These are of course vital to the teacher's armory and have their place in the classroom, especially well designed textbooks. The drawback, however, is their tendency to treat students as passive absorbers of information rather than generators of it. Consequently, students are often provided an insufficient challenge to develop their own ideas, which in turn reduces their initiative to explore both the target culture and appropriate uses of English. A far more stimulating version is to get them to bring in realia such as photographs, clothing, pop music and so on, then ask them to discuss it. This latter approach understandably generates interest, classroom interaction and learning.

The study of culture, then, definitely has a place in ESL/EFL teaching. It is worthy as a product, in which the instructor has the class study one or more societies using English as the medium of communication. Traditional teaching methods that analyze institutions typify this approach. It is also valuable, however, as a process, whereby culture is a means to an end by providing a stimulus for students to converse in English. As noted above, newer methods such as the study of cultural outputs (religious beliefs, arts, myths) or culturally induced behaviors (gestures, greetings, customs) exemplify the latter approaches.

Teaching cultural awareness is also suitable for all ages, objectives and teaching styles. But it is our responsibility as teachers to ensure we select materials appropriate to the level and learning capabilities of our classes. While cultural studies can be integrated within all teaching methods, we

must choose carefully, and justify fully, which of the four learning skills will incorporate cultural studies, and how we will introduce them. When testing, we must ensure we adapt the test to the materials and not the reverse. Finally, we must be aware of, and hopefully avoid, the pitfalls discussed earlier. By carefully introducing and monitoring cultural studies, we enrich the lives of our students by making their world larger, and facilitate their acquisition of and improvement in English.

WHAT MATERIALS SHOULD THE TEACHER USE WHEN MAKING CULTURAL COMPARISONS?

While the selection of teaching materials may be limited only by imagination, they can be classified broadly into two groups. The first category, authentic, is possibly more interesting but perhaps more difficult to obtain. Authentic materials include items from mass media, especially newspapers, books, films, television programs, movies and Internet downloads, provided they come from the culture(s) studied. These realia can also include items such as postcards, souvenirs, imports, picture books and photos, or unusual items like native costumes, cooking utensils, handicrafts and even specialized tools. Their common thread is the ability of students to discuss the object(s) brought to the classroom, and the unique relationship of the material to the society studied. As may be expected, bringing native materials may be easier in ESL classes, where students come from a variety of countries, than in EFL classes, where students are more likely to be from a predominant culture and therefore less likely to obtain native examples from other societies.

The second group consists of artificial materials, especially those targeted to ESL and EFL learners. These include, for example, the wide variety of graded textbooks available in most bookstores, particularly those emphasizing communicative activities. It also includes the growing number of specialized audiovisual teaching tools such as video programs or tapes of television series like *Crossroads Cafe* or BBC English Language Programs. Finally, the teacher may select her own items for inducing cultural awareness, using artificial materials as proxies or stimuli for conversation, teaching and elicitation. What these materials lack in cultural uniqueness they generally make up in specificity, thereby assisting the teacher to maximize learning within a controlled setting.

A final consideration is that of the teacher versus students in obtaining cultural materials. Having all the initiative coming from the teacher places a heavy burden and also restricts student involvement, creativity and initiative. Teacher selection is of course important for textbook selection, choice of tasks and setting the pace for cultural comparison. Yet teacher-guided activities should not dominate, as there is also room for student-generated or student-controlled activities. These can include a selection of realia pertinent to lessons: clothing, handicrafts or even native foods. It may include role play and simulations from television, movies, etc. And, it can incorporate patterned behavioral forms such as greetings, storytelling, drama and so on. The overall point is to encourage students to do some of the necessary work in order to make cultural comparisons both fun and meaningful.

In conclusion, each of us is shaped by our family, community, country, culture and language. As teachers of English, it is our responsibility to assist our students, bringing them to the point where an understanding of culture becomes an aid to language learning and not a hindrance. To do this well we need a perspective of how language and culture affect each other, a knowledge of and sensitivity to cultural differences, and an understanding of how to use these insights effectively in the classroom and in student-teacher relationships (Valdes, 1986).

GUIDING PRINCIPLES

(Adapted from Tomalin and Stempleski, 1993)

Goals of cultural instruction

1. Foster understanding that all people have culturally conditioned behavior
2. Foster understanding that social variables (e.g., class, income) influence behavior
3. Foster understanding of behavior in target culture(s) to study a foreign language
4. Foster understanding of connotations of words and phrases in target language
5. Help evaluate generalizations about target culture, in terms of evidence
6. Stimulate curiosity about target culture, and develop empathy for its people

Practical teaching principles

1. Access the culture through the language being taught
2. Make the study of cultural behaviors an integral part of each lesson
3. Aim for students to achieve the socio-economic competence they feel they need
4. Aim for all levels to achieve cross-cultural understanding -awareness of their own culture-as well as that of the target language
5. Recognize that teaching about culture includes behavior change plus awareness and tolerance of cultural influences affecting one's own/others' behavior

THE AUTHOR

Peter Nelson first began the teaching of English in 1995. Currently he is in the Department of English Education at Chung Ang University in Seoul. He received an RSA/University of Cambridge Certificate in the UK in January 1997, and has completed course work for the RSA/UCLES Diploma Program offered at Yonsei University. He is active in KOTESOL as a public speaker, writer and teacher trainer. His email is <peternel@cau.ac.kr>

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APPENDIX A

SYLLABUS OF CULTURAL BEHAVIOR

Courtesy to women
Compliments
Degrees of politeness
Dress
Eating habits
Eye contact
Gestures
Greetings
Home visits
Introductions

Kissing, hand-shaking
Leave-taking
Loudness or quietness of the voice
Parties
Presents
Punctuality
Seating arrangements in meetings/receptions
Small talk
Sniffing/coughing/sneezing/nose blowing, etc.
Ways of extending invitations
Ways of giving instructions/orders
Ways of indicating agreement/disagreement
Ways of opening/closing meetings
Ways of beckoning/pointing
Ways of standing/sitting, proxemics (space)

(Information compiled by James Forrest, Head of Teacher Training, Yonsei Language Center.)

APPENDIX B

TASKS FOR EXPLORING INTER- AND INTRA-CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

Who does what in the house? (cleaning, shopping, cooking, etc.)
Dating customs (your country vs. other countries you know about: same or different?)
Shopping habits (your country vs. other countries you know about: same or different?)
"Is it true that in ____ they. . . ?" (true/false comparison questions between countries)
Situational social behavior: would you do X?
Social behavior (your country vs. others you know about: same or different?)

APPENDIX C

MEDIA AND TEXT-TYPES FOR EXPLORING LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

video newspapers	songs cartoons drama
radio magazines	poetry literature advertisements

Set Their Sites High: Best of the Web for EFL/ESL Students

NEVITT REAGAN

Kansai Gaidai University

The Internet is becoming a prime resource for English language learning, especially for independent study. Unfortunately, the large number and variety of web sites may overwhelm students. This article will discuss selected web sites which can be valuable for EFL/ESL students in the following areas: (a) learning about the Internet; (b) learning and improving specific language skills (grammar, reading, writing, vocabulary, listening, and pronunciation); (c) exploring popular culture (music and films); (d) learning about content (news and indexed mega-sites); (e) and finding information on studying abroad (language programs, universities, and proficiency tests).

The Internet is fast becoming a valuable resource for students of English as a foreign/second language. It is probably the most wide-ranging and most quickly accessible collection of English language materials in the world. It is available 24 hours a day and seven days a week and, for those who have access to Internet-connected systems at school or work, it is completely free.

Increasingly, web sites geared specifically to English language students are being developed. A few sites are devoted to teaching students how to use the Internet itself. Other sites attempt to teach or review language skills, such as reading, writing, and listening. Still others deal with content areas (such as news, music, and movies) which are likely to be of interest to young adults anywhere. Finally, there are several sites for students who wish to study in English-speaking countries (program information and test preparation).

However, EFL/ESL students may require some guidance when first setting out to explore the Internet. Many students in Asian countries may have never used a computer before, much less accessed the World Wide Web. Also, the sheer number of web sites (some of the larger search engines, such as Alta Vista, list over 30 million web documents, with an annual growth rate over 28%) and the astounding variety of material available both pose considerable challenges to the computer novice.

This article will list and describe good web sites with which to introduce students to the World Wide Web, help them develop specific language skills, and allow them to learn content materials in English. The focus is limited to World Wide Web sites alone, excluding other components of the Internet, such as FTP, telnet, and e-mail. Additionally, the article will not deal with web-based student activities (e.g. e-mail keypals or student-produced web projects), unless those activities form a core part of a web site. Teachers who are interested in exploring Internet activities for language students may wish to read publications specific to this field (e.g. Warschauer, 1995; Sperling, forthcoming). In addition, for a much larger list of web sites than the one presented here, see Sperling (1997).

For each of the categories in this web site review, two sites are described in some detail and several other possibilities for student exploration are listed in Appendix A.

Learning About The Internet

The sites below offer opportunities for EFL/ESL students to learn how to use web browsers and to make use of the main functions of the Internet.

Internet for International Communication

<http://www2.gol.com/users/billp/course/contents.html>

This site, designed by a Japan-based university teacher, introduces students to the basics of using the Internet. A clearly-written series of activities, it assumes that students have little or no prior experience with the Internet or computers.

Chapter One, "Basics of Navigating," deals with clicking ("This is a mouse."), scrolling, using links, and using the browser toolbar. Chapter 2 shows students what URLs are and how to delete specific parts of an address in order to move up to a higher directory. Chapter 3 introduces e-mail. Chapter 4 contains more information on web site links. Chapter 5 teaches students how to save web site images for future use. The site also has "Notes for Teachers", "Class Handouts", and a link to student-produced web pages.

The Internet Mini-Course

<http://www.public.iastate.edu/~hschmidt/minicourse.html>

The Internet Mini-Course was created for university ESL students (i.e. studying in an intensive program) in the United States. Thus, it presents somewhat more challenging material than the web site described above. The course contains twelve units dealing with a wide range of topics, including e-mail, using search engines (with boolean operators), and conducting library research on the Internet. There is also a glossary, several vocabulary exercises, and a series of self-tests.

General Links Pages

These web sites offer large menus of readings, games, exercises, and other activities. The two selected below are among the best-organized and easiest for EFL/ESL students who are new to the Internet

Dave's ESL Cafe

<http://www.eslcafe.com/>

The premier EFL/ESL web site on the web, Dave's ESL Cafe gives students a variety of easy ways to interact with each other (and with native speakers) and to learn English on the web. It contains 24 different sections, with something of interest for almost any student. Each section is presented in clear, easy-to-read fashion, employing large fonts and a variety of colors for both backgrounds and text. In addition, the material is accessible to most browsers; that is, no additional plug-ins (e.g., JavaScript, QuickTime, Shockwave) are required.

The major components of the site are the following:

1. The ESL Graffiti Wall allows anyone to post a message of any kind (a question, a poem, or a greeting);
2. The Discussion Center is divided into sections for students (Food, Music, Holidays, etc.) and teachers (Teaching Tips, Materials, Activities and Games, etc.) in which to begin a discussion or to comment on previous postings;
3. The ESL Help Center, where students may ask questions about English, which are then fielded and answered by teachers around the world;
4. The ESL Quiz Center contains short multiple-choice quizzes on several topics (Grammar, Vocabulary, Slang, Science, etc.);

5. The ESL Idiom Page defines selected idioms and gives example sentences;
6. The Web Guide contains hundreds of links to web sites in many categories.

Other popular sections include the Job Center (for schools seeking teachers and vice-versa), the Slang Page, the Phrasal Verb Page, e-mail connection pages for students and teachers, and the Quote Page.

Selected Links for ESL Students

<http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/ESL.html>

This is one of several excellent EFL/ESL sites maintained by Larry and Charles Kelly at Aichi University of Technology in Japan. The web site links presented here have been culled from the Kellys' "Many Links for ESL Students" page and are categorized as follows: Daily English Study; Games, Puzzles & Quizzes; Vocabulary; News; Sites with Sound; Songs; Where to Ask Questions; Dictionaries; Reading; Grammar; Communicating with Others; Interactive Quizzes (Macromedia Shockwave plug-in required); and a search function for the massive collection of "TESL/TEFL/ TESOL/EFL/ESL/ESOL Links."

Grammar

These sites allow students to learn and practice elements of English grammar as well as test their current knowledge.

Grammar Quizzes

<http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/quizzes/grammar.html>

Grammar Quizzes is a large collection of short self-study tests written by many teachers from around the world. The quizzes are roughly divided into easy, medium, and difficult categories which provides students with a guide for learning new material and reviewing. Quiz categories include the following: Articles, Cloze, Conjunctions, Dialogs, Plurals, Prepositions, Pronouns, Sentence Structure, Tag Questions, Verbs, Word Order, Word Choice, and Other Quizzes. (Note: teachers are encouraged to submit new quizzes.)

Grammar for English Language Learners

http://www.tcom.ohiou.edu/OU_Language/english/grammar.html

This page lists approximately 40 links to many of the best English grammar sites on the Web. Included are On-line Grammar Exercises & Activities, Grammar Reference sites, Special Problems in Grammar, Grammar Help Services, and Other Grammar Resources.

Reading

Here are several sites with reading material and activities for EFL/ESL learners.

Reading Resources for English Language Learners

http://www.tcom.ohiou.edu/OU_Language/english/reading.html

This set of links from Ohio University provides students with many opportunities to read texts written at varying levels of difficulty and in many different genres. In addition, some of the sites listed here contain student-produced stories and short essays. Categories include the following: Reading Resources for Everyone; Reading Resources for English Language Learners; Activities and Quizzes; Stories; Songs; Poems; Interactive Fiction; and Et Cetera.

Learn2.com

<http://learn2.com/>

Learn2.com is a wonderful collection of information which *Yahoo! Internet Life* magazine has labeled “The #1 Most Incredibly Useful Site on the Web.” The basic components of the site are brief, simply-written, illustrated tutorials on an array of daily life skills, ranging from Cooking to Communication to Childcare. The immediate outcome of learning a real-life skill provides the motivation to read, while the clearly organized writing and illustrations provide the support needed by EFL/ESL students.

The most-accessed tutorials, as of Oct. 1998, were: 10) Check Out a Used Car 9) Juggle (3 Balls) 8) Play Poker 7) Clean Your Bathroom 6) Get a Clean, Close, Comfortable (Facial) Shave 5) Make Paper Airplanes 4) Make Basic Origami 3) Block Out Sounds in a Room 2) Repair a Scratched CD 1) Tie a Necktie.

Writing

For students who need help in developing writing skills, there are a number of valuable web sites.

Online Writing Lab

<http://owl.English.purdue.edu/>

The Online Writing Lab is one of the most comprehensive sites for both learning and teaching composition. Not strictly limited to ESL writing, it features a variety of resources, including the following: Writing Lab; information on Other Writing Labs; Resources for Writers (with 130+ instructional handouts, help with ESL, and links to other sites); and Resources for Teachers (materials and suggestions for language arts and English).

Writing Resources for English Language Learners

http://www.tcom.ohiou.edu/OU_Language/english/writing.html

Another fine set of links from Ohio University, this site is divided into several categories: Online Writing Resources; Tips for Writers; Organization and Style; Mechanics; The Writing Process; Topics for Writing; Research and Writing; and Writing for Special Purposes.

Vocabulary

These web sites motivate students to engage in self-study of English vocabulary.

Vocabulary Quizzes

<http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/quizzes/vocabulary.html>

This is perhaps the largest collection (220+ and growing) of self-study vocabulary quizzes on the web. It has been divided into general levels of difficulty: easy, easy to medium, medium, and difficult. Within each level, students may choose from a wide range of topics. The tests are multiple choice, with answers obtained immediately by simply clicking on the “Answer” button.

ESL Idiom Page

<http://www.eslcafe.com/idioms/>

Part of Dave’s ESL Cafe, this clearly-organized site allows students to view the following components: a list of all idioms in the collection, an alphabetical list of idiom meanings and examples, and a random idiom from the list.

Listening

Listening web sites allow learners to engage in self-controlled listening practice, take self-tests, listen to dialects of English, and find Internet talk radio stations that suit their interests. Most of these sites require multimedia computer capability (sound card and speakers); some also require plug-ins, such as RealAudio.

Randall's ESL Cyber Listening Lab (.wav files or RealAudio)

<http://www.esl-lab.com/>

In a very short time, the ESL Cyber Listening Lab (developed and maintained by Randall Davis in Japan) has become the one of the best EFL/ESL web sites for controlled listening practice. It is divided into three sections: short listening exercises (35 quizzes: easy, medium, difficult; mostly using .wav files); long conversations with RealAudio (34 quizzes: easy, medium, difficult, very difficult); long conversations with RealVideo (5 quizzes: medium, difficult).

BBC English: Radio Programmes with Internet Pages (RealAudio)

http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/BBC_English/progs.htm

This site provides links to a wide variety of Internet radio resources for EFL/ESL students, many of which require the RealAudio Player. The links are rated according to level of English ability: elementary, intermediate, and advanced. Themes include About the English Language, Magazine Series, Science, British Studies, Development, Business English, Sport, and For Teachers.

Pronunciation

There are relatively few web sites dealing with pronunciation. All those listed below require multimedia computer capability; some need plug-ins, such as Macromedia Shockwave or QuickTime.

Pronunciation (.wav files)

<http://sorak.kaist.ac.kr/~aizen/pron.html>

A clearly-designed site with a very simple opening page, this resource was created specifically for Korean EFL students. However, many of the lessons will be valuable to learners from other language backgrounds as well. It is divided into two main sections: segmentals and suprasegmentals. The segmentals section includes lessons on consonants, vowels, clusters, -s endings, -ed endings, and the /siy/ sound. The suprasegmental lessons cover stress, intonation, blending, rhythm, thought groups, and can and can't.

English Pronunciation (QuickTime and Shockwave)

<http://www.faceweb.okanagan.bc.ca/pron/>

This site, which has six units so far, focuses on some of the most common segmental (specific sound) pronunciation problems common among EFL/ESL learners, especially those from Asian language backgrounds. A typical unit (soft th, e.g., "think") includes a QuickTime movie which shows how the sound is produced, a minimal pairs listening exercise, a tongue twisters speaking exercise, and a dictation. These advanced multimedia activities require a high-speed computer processor, plenty of RAM, as well as two plug-ins.

Movies

Films are tremendously popular among students. The resources listed below will provide a wealth of background information on movies and television.

The Internet Movie Database

<http://us.imdb.com/>

This is the largest collection of movie/TV/video data available on the Internet, with information on over 175,000 titles, including movies released in theaters, made for TV movies, and TV series. The site features are too numerous to list, but some of the more useful ones are a search function (by title or person's name), short plot summaries, biographical information, links to reviews, and links to related movie web sites.

All-Movie Guide

<http://www.allmovie.com/index.html>

Another movie mega-site, the All-Movie Guide has a simpler interface than the site above. The opening screen index is divided into the following sections: movie news, film finder, people finder, plot finder, interviews, quick browse (by genre, country, or time period), movie maps, and a glossary. The search function allows for searches by movie, person, keyword, or plotline.

Music

The International Lyrics Server Search Page

<http://www.lyrics.ch/search.html>

If students want to know the exact words to a particular song, this is the place to send them. The site contains the lyrics of over 104,000 songs, all searchable by title, singer, or album name.

All-Music Guide

<http://www.allmusic.com/index.html>

This site is clearly designed and very useful for obtaining information about musical artists and styles. Over 1,400 musical styles are discussed. The search function works by artist, album, song, style, or label.

News

None of the major news sites on the web are designed specifically for EFL/ESL students. See Appendix A for some that students might wish to try.

Mega-Sites

Yahoo!

<http://www.yahoo.com/>

Yahoo! is definitely the best-organized index of web sites. Every new site is checked carefully by a staff member before it is categorized and included in the index. The opening page is clearly divided into major topics with a list of subtopics. There is also a search engine and current news section. Yahoo! is available in several languages, including Japanese and Korean.

Encyclopaedia Britannica's Internet Guide

<http://www.ebig.com/>

The most useful feature of this guide is an alphabetical list of topics for which the Britannica

editors have rated and reviewed web sites. Other sections include a listing of web events, Best of the Web (selected sites), and a link to Britannica Online's 72,000 encyclopedia articles.

Study Abroad

English Programs Around the World

http://www.globalstudy.com/esl_programs.html

This is probably the most comprehensive directory of ESL programs available. It contains links to web sites of schools and language institutes in the United States, New Zealand, Canada, Australia, Ireland, and Great Britain.

The American Association of Intensive English Programs

<http://www.aaiep.org/>

Aiming to help students choose appropriate intensive English study programs in the United States, this site provides links to more than 260 institutions, mostly on university campuses, which have met the AAIEP's ethical and professional standards.

Tests

The TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language)

<http://www1.kaplan.com/view/article/0,1275,1107,00.html>

Kaplan Educational Centers, a large chain of standardized test preparation schools, provides a clear overview of the TOEFL. The site has information on test dates, registration, and score interpretation. Perhaps closer to students' interests, however, are pages which provide sample questions for each section of the test. There are also links to information on other tests (TOEIC, TWE, and TSE).

TOEIC Preparation (Shockwave)

<http://www.faceweb.okanagan.bc.ca/toEIC/>

This site contains "an interactive multimedia WWW online preparation program" for the Test of English for International Communication. Using the program requires the Macromedia Shockwave 5.0 plug-in. There are also links to other TOEIC sites.

THE AUTHOR

Nevitt Reagan is an associate professor at Kansai Gaidai University in Osaka, Japan. He has also taught English and EFL/ESL at universities in San Francisco, Seoul, Chonju, Kwangju, and Honolulu.

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APPENDIX A
A bibliography of ESL/EFL web sites

Learning About The Internet

- A Guide To Web Surfing
<http://www.miyazaki-mic.ac.jp/faculty/jreinhar/surf.html>
- Web Basics for Beginners
<http://deil.lang.uiuc.edu/web/pages/basics.html>
- World Wide Web FAQ
<http://www.boutell.com/faq/oldfaq/index.html>

General Links Pages

- Activities for ESL Students
<http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/s/>
- English as a Second Language Home Page
<http://www.lang.uiuc.edu/r-li5/esl/>
- ESL Study Hall
<http://gwis2.circ.gwu.edu/~gwvcusas/>
- Frizzy University Network FUN
<http://thecity.sfsu.edu/~funweb/>
- Games, Puzzles, Quizzes, Tests
<http://eleaston.home.mindspring.com/html/quizzes.html>
- Interesting Things for ESL Students
<http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~itesls/>
- Internet Resources for Teachers and Students of English as a Foreign Language
<http://www.geocities.com/Athens/Parthenon/4614/>
- Linguistic Funland: Exercises and Activities for Students
<http://www.linguistic-funland.com/teslact.html>
- Many EFL/ESL/ESOL Links for Students
<http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/ESL2.html>
- Resources for English Language and Culture
http://www.tcom.ohiou.edu/OU_Language/english/index.html

Grammar

- CNN Newsroom & Worldview for ESL
http://lc.byuh.edu/cnn_n/cnn-n_page.html
- An Elementary Grammar
<http://vweb1.hiway.co.uk/ei/intro.html>
- Grammar Help Pages
<http://www.hut.fi/~rvilmi/LangHelp/Grammar/>
- Guide to Grammar and Writing
<http://webster.comnet.edu/HP/pages/darling/grammar.htm>
- The LinguaCenter Grammar Safari
<http://deil.lang.uiuc.edu/web/pages/grammarsafari.html>
- An On-Line English Grammar
<http://www.edunet.com/english/grammar/toc.cfm>

Reading

- English Outlook
<http://www.edusainc.com/ezone/ezone.html>
- Exchange
<http://deil.lang.uiuc.edu/exchange/>

Resources for Learners: English: Reading
<http://lc.ust.hk/~learn/erskills.html#general>

SOON Online Magazine
<http://www.soon.org.uk/>

Topics: An Online Magazine for EFL/ESL Learners
<http://www.rice.edu/projects/topics/Electronic/Magazine.html>

Writing

Online Writing Course
<http://web.uvic.ca/hrd/OLCourse/>

Resources for Learners: English; Writing
http://lc.ust.hk/~learn/e_write.html

Writer's Web
<http://www.urich.edu/~writing/wweb.html>

Writing Help
<http://www.hut.fi/~rvilmi/LangHelp/Writing/>

Vocabulary

American Slanguages
<http://www.slanguage.com/index.html>

BritSpeak: English as a Second Language for Americans
<http://pages.prodigy.com/NY/NYC/britspk/main.html>

ESL Slang Page
<http://www.eslcafe.com/slang/>

Foreign Languages for Travelers
<http://www.travlang.com/languages/>

Idioms, Phrasal Verbs & Slang Quizzes
<http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/quizzes/idioms.html>

Phrasal Verb Page
<http://www.eslcafe.com/pv/pv-mng.html>

World Wide Words
<http://clever.net/quinion/words/index.htm>

Listening

alt.usage.English Audio Archive (.wav or .au files)
<http://comserv.urz.uni-magdeburg.de/~merfert/engpron/engpron.html>

broadcast.com (RealAudio)
<http://www.audionet.com/>

Interactive Listening Comprehension Practice (RealAudio and JavaScript)
<http://deil.lang.uiuc.edu/lcra/>

The On-Line Listening Resource Page
<http://www.clet.ait.ac.th/sall.htm>

PBS Online (RealAudio)
<http://www.pbs.org/>

Yahoo!: Radio Programs
http://www.yahoo.com/News_and_Media/Radio/Programs/

Pronunciation

Distinctive Vowel Sounds of British and American English (.au files)
<http://weber.u.washington.edu/~dillon/newstart.html>

English Pronunciation
<http://www.engl.polyu.edu.hk/MATERIALS/Pronunciation/1a-index.htm>

Sounds of English (.au files)
<http://mason.gmu.edu/~swidmayer/sounds.htm>

Webfolio: Teaching Pronunciation (RealAudio)
<http://falcon.cc.ukans.edu/~allenq/pronunciation/webfolio.html>

Movies

Drew's Scripts-O-Rama
<http://www.script-o-rama.com/table.shtml>

Film.com
<http://www.film.com/>

Movie Review Query Engine
<http://www.mrqe.com/>

Music

Billboard Online
<http://www.billboard.com/>

Grendel's Lyric Archive
<http://homepage.seas.upenn.edu/~avernon/lyrics.html>

The Ultimate Band List
<http://www.ubl.com/>

News (For radio news, RealAudio is required.)

ABC News (RealAudio)
<http://www.abcnews.com/>

CNN Interactive
<http://www.cnn.com/>

NPR Online (RealAudio)
<http://www.npr.org/>

The Online NewsHour (RealAudio)
<http://www.pbs.org/newshour/>

Online Newspapers
<http://www.webwombat.com.au/intercom/newsprs/index.htm>

Radio/TV Stations (RealAudio)
<http://www.timecast.com/stations/news.html>

Time Magazine
<http://cgi.pathfinder.com/time>

The Ultimate Collection of News Links
<http://pppp.net/links/news/>

U.S. News & World Report Online
<http://www.usnews.com/usnews/home.htm>

Voice of America Internet Audio (RealAudio)
<http://www.voa.gov/programs/audio/realaudio/>

Welcome to NPR (RealAudio)
<http://www.realaudio.com/contentp/npr.html>

World Radio Network (RealAudio)
<http://www.wrn.org/audio.html>

Mega-Sites

DejaNews
<http://www.dejanews.com/>

Encyclopedia Central
<http://www.homeworkheaven.com/indexec.html>

Liszt: The Mailing List Directory
<http://www.liszt.com/>

The Mining Co.
<http://home.miningco.com/>

My Virtual Reference Desk
<http://www.refdesk.com/index.html>

The Rail
<http://www.therail.com/>

Schoolwork Ugh!
<http://www.schoolwork.org/>

WebRing
<http://www.webring.com/#ringworld/>

World Lecture Hall
<http://www.utexas.edu/world/lecture/index.html>

Study Abroad

American Universities
<http://www.clas.ufl.edu/CLAS/american-universities.html>

College and University Homepages
<http://www.mit.edu:8001/people/cdemello/univ.html>

Community College Web
<http://www.mcli.dist.maricopa.edu/cc/>

studyabroad.com
<http://www.studyabroad.com/>

Study in the USA
<http://www.studyusa.com/>

University and College Intensive English Programs in the USA
<http://www.go-ed.com/uciep/index.cfm>

Tests

Introduction to the TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication)
<http://www1.kaplan.com/view/article/0,1275,1251,00.html>

Professor TOEFL's Fun Page
<http://www.slip.net/~caa/>

TestDEN: TOEFL Trainer (\$69 fee for two months)
<http://www.toefl-den.com/>

TOEFL Online
<http://www.toefl.org/abttoefl.html#testsect>

TOEFL Prep (Shockwave)
http://www.arts.okanagan.bc.ca/ContEd/toefl/toefl_prep.html

The TSE (Test of Spoken English)
<http://www1.kaplan.com/view/article/0,1275,1136,00.html>

The TWE (Test of Written English)
<http://www1.kaplan.com/view/article/0,1275,1132,00.html>

Using Current News Articles Effectively in Korean University English Classes

RODNEY E. TYSON & BAEK SEUNG-BONG

Daejin University

One suggestion that is often made for increasing topic relevance and student interest in foreign language classrooms is the frequent introduction of various types of realia, including current articles from newspapers or magazines. This paper discusses the following aspects of using current news articles in Korean university English classes: (a) how to choose appropriate and motivating articles; (b) how to make use of the articles for more than the traditional reading practice, that is, how to use the articles as background material for lively discussions and motivating writing assignments; and (c) how to prepare effective classroom materials based on the readings with a minimum investment of time and effort on the part of the instructor. Several examples of the authors' use of authentic news articles in their classes are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Most of us would certainly agree with Ur (1996) when she states that “ultimately we want our learners to be able to cope with the same kinds of reading that are encountered by native speakers of the target language” (p. 150). Johnson (1998), however, reminds us of the following reality: “In most cases, after years of study, translating, and reading (decoding) English, most college [EFL] students have never read an English newspaper nor encountered a study environment that encourages it” (p. 29). Brown (1994) discusses the importance of introducing students of all levels to unsimplified, authentic material;

Simplifying [an existing text] is... not only unnecessary but also a disservice to students who are thereby deprived of original material with its natural redundancy, humor, wit, and other captivating features... Sometimes simplified texts remove so much natural redundancy that they actually become difficult. (p. 299)

In this paper, we will discuss our experience using authentic materials from newspapers and magazines in university English classes in Korea. Many Korean students, as well as language teachers, tend to have limited expectations about how reading materials can be used in a language class. Often, a reading passage is thought of as something to be “decoded” (Johnson, 1998 p. 29), that is, translated one word and one sentence at a time, either directly by a Korean-speaking teacher or by the student alone who stops to look up every unfamiliar word in an English-Korean dictionary. Once this translation process has been completed, it is time to move on to the next reading or to be tested on the content of the passage. We argue that well-chosen reading materials can be used successfully at all levels in Korean university English classes for much more than that. We have found that current news articles can also be used effectively in conversation and composition classes.

WHY USE CURRENT NEWS ARTICLES?

There are many excellent commercial textbooks available for ESL/EFL students of all levels that include either actual (e.g., Tiersky & Chernoff, 1993; Tiersky & Hughes, 1996) or simplified (e.g.,

Heyer, 1996) news articles. A major advantage of these texts for busy instructors, of course, is that the articles have been carefully selected to be accessible and of high interest to students of a particular level, and the texts provide a number of useful vocabulary and grammar exercises, comprehension and discussion questions, etc. So why use current news articles in your classes at all?

First of all, as their instructor, you know the level of ability as well as the unique needs and interests of your students better than any textbook author. Current articles can be chosen that are not only at an appropriate level for your students, but are also more interesting, relevant and timely than those that appear in textbooks. After all, by the time most textbooks are written, published, and distributed, the articles in them may already be several years old. By using current articles, your students can read, talk, and write about the same kinds of events that they are reading about and discussing in Korean. In addition, in composition classes, authentic articles can often serve as real-life models for various genres of student writing assignments (e.g., writing letters, reporting facts, describing a process, and stating an opinion).

Second, reading, understanding, and discussing authentic English articles may increase students' confidence and motivate them to read more outside of class (Dubin & Bycina, 1991; Johnson, 1998). Furthermore, introducing such articles into your classes may help to provide students with the necessary skills not only for reading the articles, but also for selecting appropriate articles from "local" sources to read on their own. Although most Korean university students are aware that there are two national English-language newspapers published in Korea, for example, many are simply overwhelmed by the idea of deciding where to begin reading. The result is that they avoid them altogether.

Finally, Jameson (1998) points out that learning to deal with authentic materials will be an important job-related skill for many of our students after graduation. The sometimes overly simplified reading passages that appear in many of the popular conversation books most often used in English classes in Korea provide little meaningful practice in this respect. Material can be chosen from current newspapers and magazines that is both authentic and appropriate for your students' majors.

CHOOSING APPROPRIATE AND MOTIVATING ARTICLES

The best way to choose articles that are appropriate and motivating for a particular group of students is simply to know your students well. Of course, you need to consider their proficiency level, but also consider their majors and personal interests as well as what topics are being discussed in general among people in their age group. Also, don't overlook your own interests. Students will often be more motivated to contribute to a discussion if it is clear that the teacher is genuinely interested in the topic. We have also found it effective to allow (or require if necessary) individual students or groups of students to choose some of the articles. A successful example of this is discussed in the next section.

Consider using a wide variety of types of published materials (e.g., newspaper and magazine articles, advertisements, charts and graphs, cartoons, advice columns, letters to the editor, etc.). Also, look for articles in a variety of sources. Sokolik (1998) suggests that teachers who want to use authentic materials in their classes "develop new reading habits" (p. 15) and occasionally pick up copies of publications they do not normally read to look for articles their students might enjoy. We have recently used articles from *Time*, *Newsweek*, *The Korea Herald*, and *The Korea Times*, for example, but we have also used materials from such sources as *Parade Magazine*, *ACTFL Newsletter* (from the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages), *Complete Woman*, and *Potentiality '98* (a journal published by the students in our department).

Don't overlook student publications such as the last item just mentioned above, student

newspapers and newsletters, the winning entries in composition or speech contests, etc. The level and topics of these publications are usually highly appropriate, and we have found that students are especially motivated when they read the published work of other students they know. Also, these readings make excellent models for student writing in composition classes as well as topics for conversation.¹

Think ahead, and keep a file of articles you might use in the future. Cut out or copy articles as you are reading that you find personally interesting or you think might be appropriate for your students in the future and simply place them in a folder. Soon you will have a resource file of articles on a variety of topics that are appropriate for various levels of students. This can also be useful for your students in choosing topics for presentations or writing assignments.

In addition, be sure to consider the “readability” of the articles you are considering for use. You can find many techniques for calculating the readability of a piece of text in various books on the teaching of reading,² but the most important thing, again, is just to know your students. Don’t choose articles that are too long or too difficult for your students to handle. Avoid articles with vocabulary that is too advanced for your students or with too many unfamiliar idioms or slang expressions. At the same time, however, keep the purpose of the reading in mind. Sokolik (1998) points out that “students can handle more difficult language in small doses” (p. 15). You might choose a very short article that contains a number of idioms if your main teaching objective is to teach those idioms, but in general, the articles you choose should follow the same rules as for other types of language input: the articles should be challenging but comprehensible to your students.

Finally, there are two rules of thumb that we have developed from our experience with using authentic current news articles in Korean university English classes: (a) articles written by Koreans (e.g., newspaper reporters and columnists) or foreign residents of Korea are generally more successful than those written by and primarily for native speakers of English; and (b) avoid using articles that are larger than one A4 page in size. In fact, perhaps for a number of reasons, we have found this much more important than the actual number of words in the article.

USING AUTHENTIC ARTICLES EFFECTIVELY

One major reservation many teachers have about using authentic articles in their classes is that developing materials and exercises to be used with them can be time consuming. We have found, however, that with just a little creativity, such materials can be prepared with very little work on the part of the instructor, and in many cases none at all, other than making the article available to the students. Certain types of articles themselves, for example, suggest how they might be used in the classroom.

Advice columns such as “Dear Abby” or “Ann Landers”³ are almost ready-made writing assignments when your students are learning to write letters. Articles with tables of numbers or information can often be used just as they are for information-gap activities. The short “psychology” quizzes found in many magazines can be used to set up competitions in which groups of students discuss the questions and then compare their answers. Editorials and other articles from the opinion pages of newspapers that discuss current social issues can be given as reading assignments to advanced students to provide background knowledge for class discussions or debates. Actual discussion questions or topics can often be written by the students themselves. Furthermore, even when the instructor does feel a need to prepare written materials to aid students

1. The first author has a growing collection of his students’ publications available on his personal web site. (Available: http://road.daejin.ac.kr/~rtyson/students/student_comps/)
2. Vacca and Vacca (1989, pp. 54-58) provide a very useful “Readability Checklist” for teachers to use in estimating the appropriateness of a given piece of text for a particular group of students
3. “Dear Abby” appears in *The Korea Times*. (Available: <http://www.koreatimes.co.kr>) “Ann Landers” is published in *The Korea Herald*. (Available: <http://www.koreaherald.co.kr>)

with comprehension or to facilitate discussion, those materials can be saved and used over and over again in the future.

Below are a few examples of how we have used authentic articles from newspapers and magazines in our classes.⁴

A Freshman Composition Assignment Based on a “Dear Abby” Letter

I recently used part of a “Dear Abby” column in my freshman composition classes as part of a unit on writing personal letters. The letter I chose was written by a woman who was seeking advice for dealing with a friend who telephoned her too often and talked for too long. The letter ended with the following question: “How can I put an end to this annoying waste of time without hurting her feelings?”

First, I gave pairs of students a copy of the letter along with a very short vocabulary matching exercise to help them understand some of the language that I anticipated would be difficult for them. To prepare the exercise, I simply underlined the expressions in the reading and listed each of them in order below the reading (numbered 1 - 9) along with their definitions listed in random order (lettered a - i). I allowed about ten minutes for the pairs to read the short letter and complete the matching exercise. Then, after checking the exercise and discussing the content of the letter briefly with the entire class, students were divided into small groups to write an answer to the letter. Finally, near the end of the class, representatives from each of the groups read their letters to the class, which resulted in more class discussion. After class, I made some of the groups’ letters along with the published response available to students on my web site.

A Class Discussion Based on a Magazine Quiz

This is an activity I have used successfully a number of times with university juniors and seniors. I give pairs or small groups of students a copy of the eight true-false statements included in a magazine quiz entitled “What do you know about human nature?” (Didato, 1987 p. 58) which they discuss and answer. When all pairs or groups are finished, I read the answers and explanations one at a time explaining difficult vocabulary as necessary. The groups enjoy keeping score to find out who are the best amateur “psychologists,” and incorrect answers always lead to a great deal of class discussion. Finally, I hand out copies of the answers for students to read after class.

An Entire Course Based on Current Newspaper Articles

For the past two years, I have used mainly current newspaper articles instead of a textbook in a course for senior English majors at Daejin University. Here is a brief outline of last semester’s course.

During the first half of the semester, I chose topics and articles and prepared other materials for 2-3 week units on current topics in local English-language newspapers (e.g., sexual discrimination, the economic situation, educational reform). During the second half of the semester, pairs or groups of students chose the topics and prepared materials and were also responsible for “teaching” a two-hour class. Throughout the semester, class activities consisted mainly of group and class discussions, debates, and other communicative activities. Most of the reading was done outside of class, and there was little discussion of the actual content of the articles. Instead, the reading assignments were used to increase the students’ interest and background knowledge of the topics. Besides selecting the articles, my only preparation often included writing a few discussion questions or a list of maybe half a dozen or so agree-disagree

4. Although each of the activities described in this section may have actually been used by either or both of the authors, in the interest of readability, the pronoun “I” is used in all of the descriptions.

statements.

As part of the three-week unit on sexual discrimination, for example, students were asked to read two articles that had recently appeared in *The Korea Herald*,⁵ one in the “Campus Vantage Point” column (Kim, 1998, January 9) and one by a staff reporter of the paper (Byun, 1998). In a two-hour class period, students were first asked to read seven statements related to the topic and indicate whether they “agreed” or “disagreed” with each of them. Then the class was divided into two groups—one all female and the other all male. Their task was to compare and discuss their individual responses and also try to predict how members of the other group would respond. Finally, there was a class discussion of the topic centered on the students’ responses to the statements. These are the statements I prepared based on ideas brought up in the articles:

1. Korean culture is generally prejudiced against women.
2. It is probably true that 90 percent of Korean female workers have been sexually harassed at work.
3. It is reasonable for a company to require applicants to put their photographs on job applications.
4. Korean companies are probably less likely to hire an unattractive (ugly) woman than an unattractive man.
5. Usually, a married woman cannot do her job as well as a single woman because of her responsibility at home.
6. If a company is forced to downsize, it is better for them to lay off (or fire) single women than married men.
7. The bank manager (boss) made a good decision when he decided to fire the 25-year-old bank clerk instead of her husband (“Hard economic times,” top of the second column).

In addition to the reading assignments and class discussions, there were a number of written assignments. For example, each student was required to write an English resume and cover letter, a newspaper article, and a speech, as well as a weekly one-paragraph response to one of the reading assignments. All of these assignments were submitted along with cassette tapes of their speeches as portfolios at the end of the semester. Finally, each student was also required to develop an individual Internet home page on which most of these assignments were published (Available: <http://road.daejin.ac.kr/~rtyson/students/>).

Besides having the opportunity to read, discuss, and write about a variety of highly relevant topics, by the end of the course, all of the students had their resumes and other samples of their written work published on the Internet, available to potential employers, to other students, and to me to use as sample materials in future classes. In addition, three of the students in the class actually had their newspaper articles accepted for publication in *The Korea Herald* (Kim, 1998, June 22; Kim, 1998, June 11; Na, 1998), and several others will soon be presenting their speeches in an annual speech contest held at our university.

CONCLUSION

The opinions of the experts would seem to agree with the intuition and experience of many EFL instructors that the use of carefully chosen authentic readings from newspapers and magazines can increase topic relevance, interest, and motivation in foreign language classrooms, as well as help students to develop skills in coping with real-world materials and tasks. Many appropriate materials are easily available in Korea both in print form and via the Internet, and with a minimal amount of creativity and effort, instructors can easily adapt these materials for use in Korean university English

5. An additional advantage of choosing articles from *The Korea Herald* is that their past articles are archived for several months on their web site (see URL in note 3 above)

classes. In addition, these authentic and current materials can be used effectively not only for “reading” practice, but also for a variety of speaking and writing activities and assignments.

THE AUTHORS

Rodney E. Tyson is an assistant professor and English program coordinator at Daejin University. He teaches in the Department of English Language and Literature and the Graduate Program in English Education. He has an M.A. in ESL and a Ph.D. in Second Language Acquisition and Teaching from the University of Arizona and has taught at universities in the United States and Korea for a total of thirteen years.

Baek Seung-Bong has been a full-time instructor in the Department of English Language and Literature at Daejin University since 1993. He has an M.A. and is currently a Ph.D. candidate in English Literature at Hong Ik University in Seoul. He has also studied at Rice University in the United States.

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An Investigation Into L2 Writing Teachers' Philosophical Values

YOSHIKO USUI & CHITOSE ASAOKA

International Christian University

The Native Speaking Teachers of English (NESTs) versus Non Native Speaking Teachers (non-NESTs) of English dichotomy has received attention for some time now. Some researchers claim that there is no such division (Paikeday, 1985; Rampton, 1990 cited in Medgyes, 1994). However, Medgyes' survey results, along with other researchers' findings (e.g., Chaudron, 1988), reflect their conviction that NESTs and non-NESTs have distinct teaching styles. This study attempts to convey to what extent this latter view holds in the teaching of second language writing, especially among those with similar educational backgrounds, teaching in the same program.

Studies in the past two decades have presented us with a mixed picture concerning how NESTs and non-NESTs approach ESL or EFL students' writing. Sheorey's (1986) study has shown that NESTs were more tolerant of grammatical errors made by ESL students than the non-NESTs. Schmitt's (1993) study has also indicated that Japanese EFL teachers (non-NESTs) put greater emphasis on formal accuracy than the Assistant English Teachers (NESTs). On the contrary, Kobayashi's (1992) study has revealed that NESTs have stricter criteria for naturalness in their own language than do non-NESTs. There have also been reports indicating no significant differences between NESTs and non-NESTs in terms of grading essays (Machi, 1988; cited in Kobayashi). In most of these studies, the participants were presented with erroneous sentences or a passage containing errors and were specifically instructed to correct the errors they saw. These studies have mainly focused on how accurately a teacher corrects errors and what kind of errors (mainly grammar) a teacher tends to correct. In addition to what kind of errors (grammar, organization, spelling, etc.) NESTs and non-NESTs correct, this study aims at examining the differences and the similarities of how the respective teachers approach students' writing with regard to feedback procedure and types of feedback.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Participants

Four non-NESTs (all Japanese) and four NESTs (two Americans, one British, one Australian) participated in this study. They were all college-level English instructors teaching in the same EFL program in Tokyo. The primary goal of this EFL program is English for academic purposes and the process approach is adopted in writing courses with the emphasis placed on multiple drafting. In most cases, NESTs teach a writing course with tutorials, whereas non-NESTs teach a writing course which does not require tutorials. Table 1 shows the average teaching experience of English writing and the average teaching experience in this particular EFL program. All the non-NESTs have at least a master's degree in TESL from either an American or British university (see Figure 1).

Method

The participants in this research study were first asked to read an essay which was written as a midterm paper in a college upper-level content class. The guidelines that the student received prior to writing the paper were also given to the participants. They then evaluated the paper and gave feedback as they would normally do as an EFL writing teacher. Each participant was then interviewed by the researchers. In the interviews, the participants freely commented on their experience evaluating and giving feedback. For example, they described the criteria that they had used to evaluate the paper or they explained the policy adopted to give feedback to students. The interviews were taped and transcribed. When the data was analyzed, we looked for recurring patterns and variations across the written comments and interviews.

Research Questions

- 1) Do NESTs and non-NESTs focus on different or similar types of problems when evaluating or giving feedback on students' writing?
- 2) Do NESTs and non-NESTs give different or similar types of feedback?
- 3) Do NESTs and non-NESTs take a different or similar procedure when giving feedback on students' writing?

RESULTS

The results of this study show few differences between NESTs and non-NESTs in the way the respective group approaches students' writing. All teachers seem to hold similar philosophical values concerning what is important in teaching writing; process approach, independent learning, and affective aspects. Nevertheless, there were individual differences in respect to feedback; types of problems, types of feedback and feedback procedure.

TABLE 1
Participants

		NESTs (n = 4)	Non-NESTs (n = 4)
Number of Years Teaching English Writing	Up to 5 years	1	1
	5 years & over	3	3
	Average	12.25 years	7 years
Number of Years Teaching in the Program	Up to 5 years	3	2
	5 years & over	1	2
	Average	3.5 years	3.75 years

FIGURE 1
Educational Background of Non-NESTs

J1	2 years in USA (BA) MA in TESL in Japan from an American university
J2	6 years in UK (MA/pre-Ph.D./Ph.D. in TESL)
J3	6 years in USA (high school and BA) MA in TESL in Japan from an American university
J4	2.5 years in USA (MA in TESL)

Process Approach

Over the last two decades, process-oriented pedagogy in second language writing has drawn the interest of many researchers and teachers alike. A typical process-oriented writing class includes the following elements: “multiple drafting, peer work, content-related feedback, teacher feedback other than for grading, and substantial interaction between teacher and students” (Pennington, Brock, & Yue, 1996). In this academic EFL program, a program in which the process approach is adopted, all of these features were emphasized by both NESTs and non-NESTs. As for “content-related feedback” and “substantial interaction between teacher and students (e.g., conferencing)”, see the sections on “Types of Problems” and “Types of Feedback” respectively.

Multiple Drafting and Teacher Feedback Other Than for Grading

The participating teachers claimed that writing is an ongoing process. Their underlying assumptions were that feedback, process, and revision should be the focus of writing instruction and that teachers of L2 writers are to help students acquire skills to review their own paper (Arndt, 1993). Many teachers, both NESTs and non-NESTs, insisted that revising was an essential part of good writing; that it is something that all proficient writers do (Arndt). Seeing a piece of writing as a process rather than a product, they said that a student would benefit more if given the opportunity to revise than if given a final grade, which in this case would be a barely pass or failing grade. For example, J1 explained:

This paper shows his effort but there's much room for improvement. It doesn't manifest the fact that there're lots he still doesn't understand. I believe this is a good opportunity for his writing to improve. It's a pity to give this paper back to him simply with a D grade. I would like him to revise it.

Moreover, these teachers seemed to maintain a common belief that the process of rewriting was essential in improving one's writing. E4's comment illustrates this point well; “...it's one thing to get a grade, but another thing to improve your writing skills ... if their goal was to improve their writing, then a rewrite would be beneficial for the student”

Cooperative Learning

The importance of cooperative learning in L2 writing instruction has been stressed by many L2 writing researchers. For example, Janda (1990; cited in Arndt, 1993) asserts that “thinking and writing skills should be cultivated in interactive, collaborative situations.” Brender (1998) also supports this approach by insisting that group dynamics sometimes help students speak up and discuss their writing problems. Furthermore, Mendonca and Johnson (1994) agree with this view that L2 students should be provided with ample opportunities to talk about their essays with their peers, as peer work seems to allow students to explore and negotiate their ideas as well as to develop a sense of audience.

Some of the participants in this study, both NESTs and non-NESTs, seemed to prefer to have students work in groups. This preference seems to stem from their belief in cooperative learning. Moreover, the participants said that they use group work at different stages of drafts for different purposes. E2, for instance, used group work in order to locate somebody else's errors from their drafts. E2 also used group work in order to avoid intimidation since visiting a teacher's office could cause very traumatic feelings especially in freshmen. J2 also claims that he prefers in-class activities in which students work on their drafts in small groups so that students can share ideas.

Independent Learning

Both NESTs and non-NESTs emphasized the importance of students' autonomy; students who

are eager to take on the responsibility for their learning (Wenden, 1991). It was made clear that it is the students who are responsible for their work and not the teachers. If students become independent learners, they would then be able to take advantage of the resources around them for their own learning purposes (Willing, 1987; cited in Wenden, 1991). Looking back at his own experience studying a second language, E2 noted,

...teachers should not always give the answers to students that sometimes teachers can withhold the answers and to give the learner the opportunity to find the answers himself and I think in the long run, that provides one more way that students can take responsibility for their learning.

Consequently, feedback was given in a way that fostered and developed powers of “reviewing and conversing” (Arndt, 1993). For instance, E4 returns papers with written comments in class before the tutorial, by which the students need to be ready to ask questions about her comments. She expected that the students would take control of the conference. Meanwhile, J3 leaves ambiguity in her written comments to prompt the students to come and ask her questions. She said, “I don’t want to be the one telling them what to use or what to say. The paper belongs to the student, so I don’t want to intervene too much.”

Another strategy used to train students to become independent learners was to give feedback leading to “problem-solving” (Arndt, 1993). Instead of the teachers correcting mistakes or rewriting ambiguous parts, they gave clues, questions, or guidance, which were geared to activate what the students have hopefully learned in their previous classes. First, clues were given in the form of underlining and coding; for example, J1 underlined an incorrectly formed word and coded “gr (wf)”, which stands for grammar and word form respectively. Second, questionable parts were underlined with the question next to it. E1 underlined the part that was not relevant to the paragraph, and wrote “Does it reflect the paragraph?” next to it. Last, but not the least, reference to certain parts of the writing textbooks, already covered in class, was typical among both groups of teachers as a means to give guidance. For instance, E4 wrote “see SGW [an in-house writing textbook] for transition words” right above the part where the student failed to mark clear transition. The participants considered this process would help students to revise their drafts on their own. In other words, independent learning was achieved by raising students’ awareness of what they already know and what they are capable of doing.

Affective Aspects

Some participants, both NESTs and non-NESTs, showed concerns about affective aspects when they give feedback: giving positive feedback, giving credit for sincere efforts and not giving too much feedback at one time.

Arndt (1993) asserts that teachers should be honest and always find something positive to say in order to save students’ face. Some NESTs commented that they perceived giving positive feedback as an essential part of feedback. For example, E4 stated:

... often when I look at paper, I go back and look at the feedback, I think wow it’s negative, it is, you know, nothing positive, then I usually give it a second read and I try to find something positive, a few things that I can say, “oh, this is good”, ‘this is a nice example’.

E4 actually gave some positive written feedback on the student’s draft. In addition, there are some non-NESTs who also gave some positive written comments on the student’s draft. Interestingly, some of their written comments start off with positive comments but end with negative comments such as asking for improvement or correction.

Some participants, both NESTs and non-NESTs, also commented that they would place value on efforts or at least give credit for sincere efforts. For example, E1 stated;

It would be balance with the efforts a student has put in. How bad was his grammar three months ago, how much effort did he make to correct these things? If the mistakes are stupid and careless, then that should affect their grade. If he's corrected all the typos, he's still got grammatical errors, but you know that it's just his level, I would try to not let that affect the grade too much. I mean that's a sort of thing that you tell an individual student or the class that you are looking for improvement, you are looking for effort.

Another affective aspect that some participants, both NESTs and non-NESTs, emphasized during the interviews was that to bombard students with too much information at one time was a burden on the learners and thus ineffective. J1 stated that she did not want the student to get discouraged by all the mistakes and errors underlined by the instructor. E4 also expressed a concern about giving too much feedback at one time, especially on the earlier drafts;

If it was at the beginning stage, then you wouldn't see nearly as much ink, just the basic things...so...a student who got this early on would not freak out and feel really discouraged.

Feedback

Feedback helps the writer "assess how effectively the written words are mediating the intended message and meaning" (Arndt, 1993, p.91) and also helps the students to revise their paper. This section draws attention to what were the target of feedback, types of feedback, and feedback procedure.

Types of Problems

Several things were considered to be targets of feedback: following the prompt, use of rhetorical questions, language, content, and academic style. The teachers insisted that they would address different problems at appropriate points in the drafting and re-drafting cycles (Arndt, 1993); thus, allowing the students to attack their problems one at a time (see section on affective aspects for details).

First of all, the importance of following the prompt recurred in many of the interviews. Following the prompt means to respond to what one has been asked to write. E3 included this element as one of the three major things he would look at, and contended that he saw no point in giving feedback on language when the student had not done "what he's been asked to do." He would first remind the student to "always read the prompt carefully and answer the prompt." In explaining what she would do during the conference, J4 remarked, "I would first ask him to compare his outline to the prompt and ask him if he had incorporated everything he had been asked to in the prompt." Similarly, J1 commented that she would

first point out the fact that the student hadn't followed the prompt, then make sure he understands the purpose of the paper and what he needs to write in the paper. From there, I would move on to discuss the overall organization.

Following the prompt, in other words, is to show clear understanding of the objectives of the paper.

Secondly, the usage of rhetorical questions in academic papers was questioned by a number of teachers, once again, both NESTs and non-NESTs. The student's use of rhetorical questions was unquestionably inappropriate and excessive for an academic paper. E3 sighed that "the student has webbed the introduction with what it seems to be a series of thinking aloud questions which clearly are not part of any academic genre that I know of..." Showing similar concerns, J1 said, "Questions like this may be too casual for the beginning for an academic paper." As could be seen on Table 2, it has been suggested that the student use other types of attention getter.

The third target of feedback was organization (see Table 2): thesis statement, topic sentences,

TABLE2
Feedback (Organization)

	NESTs				Non-NESTs			
	E1	E2	E3	E4	J1	J2	J3	J4
Thesis statement	X	X	X	X		X		
Topic sentence	X	X		X	X	X	X	X
Paragraph unity	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Support with valid evidence	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Outline	X	X	X		X			X
Transition		X	X	X		X		X
Conclusion	X	X						
Concluding sentence	X			X				
Attention getter	X	X		X				
Audience		X						X

TABLE3
Feedback (Content)

	NESTs				Non-NESTs			
	E1	E2	E3	E4	J1	J2	J3	J4
Meaning	X			X	X	X	X	X
Evidence				X	X	X		
Contradiction				X			X	
Evaluator's opinion	X					X		
Political Satire			X					

TABLE4
Feedback (Language)

	NESTs				Non-NESTs			
	E1	E2	E3	E4	J1	J2	J3	J4
Citation	X	X	X		X		X	
Quotation marks	X	X	X	X	X			X
Word choice	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Grammar		X		X	X	X	X	
Bibliography		X						X

FIGURE2
Types of Written Feedback

Underlining errors
Writing down question marks where it is not clear
Writing down leading questions
Commenting
Labeling or numbering errors
Writing down on the draft next to the points in question
Writing down comments on an attached but separate sheet

paragraph unity, outline (plan, formula, framework), supporting details, transition, conclusion, and concluding sentences, all of which are the foci of the program's curriculum. To begin with, clear thesis statements and topic sentences seem to be regarded as the keys to well organized papers, as is represented in E4's comment: "if your thesis is not good, your whole essay would be disorganized." The importance of supporting one's point with adequate valid evidence was equally emphasized. J2 in his written comment to the student said, "Also, this point includes lots of your assumptions, which are not fully supported by evidence." Furthermore, a good and solid outline is important as J4 put it, "because if the outline is well written, the paper itself would be logically written."

Another point was content-related feedback (see Table 3). As for content, whether the writer has explicitly stated his ideas or has supported his ideas was the central issue. E4 questioned the student in her written feedback and wrote, "Do you mean that intelligence means personal ability?". J3 directed the student's attention to a contradiction in the student's content and wrote, "Contradicting the point you made in the first paragraph". Other examples included a NEST and non-NEST sharing their opinions with the student or E3 questioning the student's understanding of the book's theme, 'political satire'.

The last was language-related feedback (see Table 4). With few exceptions, both NESTs and non-NESTs stated that they would not make comments on language-related issues. However, all of the participating teachers though not in depth, referred to incorrect use of language, particularly its appropriateness in academic writing. First, citation techniques, word choice, word form, and grammar were taken up most frequently. Appropriate citation embraced both the quality and quantity of citation and use of suitable quotation marks, which were perceived as one of the basic requirements to fulfill an academic writing assignment. Second, while some word choice feedback related with grammatical correctness, others dealt with the appropriateness in academic writing. To give an example, E4 underlined the phrase "make me sick" and labeled the expression as too casual. J3, during the interview, noted that the student has used certain words too subjectively (e.g., sick of, confusing, so hard to read). E3, in his written feedback, specifically reminded the student that "the language you have used, particularly in the case of transitions, is inappropriate for an academic essay of this kind". J2 also remarked that the student needs to "soften the tones by using words such as seem to, would, or could". The relatively low emphasis on grammar could be interpreted as direct influence of the program's curriculum. The grammar component is not completely dismissed; however, there is much greater emphasis on organization and content.

Types of Feedback

Keh (1990; cited in Arndt, 1993) holds that there are three kinds of feedback commonly used in process-based classes; peer feedback, conferencing and written comments. In this study, most of the participants also used a combination of peer feedback, oral feedback and written feedback. In this section, two kinds of feedback, oral and written, will be described. Table 5 shows the techniques that each participant claims that he or she usually uses.

Most of the participants commented that they would give some kind of written feedback. Our analysis of the data involves seven techniques of written feedback (see Figure 2).

The amount of written feedback varied depending on instructors. Some gave quite detailed written comments, whereas others did not. One NEST commented that no written feedback would be given on students' drafts before or after tutorials. After the tutorials, however, a list of reminders would be given to each student so that they can remember what they discussed during the tutorials.

Most of the participants, both NESTs and non-NESTs, said that they would give some kind of oral feedback as well as written feedback. The five techniques used in giving oral feedback are shown in Figure 3.

Oral feedback is mostly given in traditional conferencing, which usually lasts about fifteen to

twenty minutes. Brender (1998) defines traditional conferencing as a short meeting for ten to fifteen minutes between the student and the teacher. In this study, forms of conferencing that the participants used involved not only one-on-one (student-teacher) but also small group conferencing. Small group conferencing is defined as the meeting between the teacher and students in groups of three to ten, often divided according to writing weaknesses (Brender, 1998). Some non-NESTs who said that they did not give tutorials mentioned that they may have question sessions for students who need to ask questions about the written comments.

All the NESTs said that they would give tutorials but only some non-NESTs said so perhaps because in this EFL program the NESTs teach writing courses which require conferencing, while non-NESTs teach writing courses in which conferencing is not required.

Procedure of Feedback

Stages when the participants give written feedback seemed to vary. For example, E4 gives written feedback before tutorials. Most of the participants, however, do not give written feedback beforehand. During the tutorials or group conferencing, some participants give either oral or written, whereas the others give both oral and written feedback. J2 and J3 return their written

TABLE 5
Types of Feedback

	NESTs				Non-NESTs			
	E1	E2	E3	E4	J1	J2	J3	J4
Written feedback	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Underlining errors				X	X		X	
Question marks				X			X	
Leading questions	X	X		X	X	X	X	
Commenting	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Labeling or numbering		X				X		
Writing on the draft		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Writing on a separate sheet	X	X				X		
Oral feedback	X	X	X	X	X			X
One-on-one conferencing		X	X	X	X			X
Small-group conferencing								
Question session					X	(X)	(X)	
Answering students' questions				X		(X)	(X)	
Negotiating meaning	X							
Academic discussion	X							
Commenting	X		X					X
Leading questions	X	X	X					X

FIGURE 3
Types of Oral Feedback

Answering students' questions
Negotiating meaning
Academic discussion
Teacher-initiated comments
Teacher-initiated questions

feedback in class. In all the cases, however, after receiving feedback, students are usually asked to revise their drafts and submit them.

CONCLUSION

Our research findings show that the differences in philosophy, perception of problems, feedback types and procedure among teachers cannot simply be explained by the differences in their native languages. Rather, as Shi and Cumming (1995) explain, “such differences are more closely related with the teachers’ past experiences, their beliefs, the program’s or students’ needs or goals, or previous research findings.” Our analysis also suggests that factors such as time, the focus of assignment, relationship between the teacher and the student, where in the program the student is (e.g., first term, second term), and what draft the writing is (e.g., first draft, final draft) have influence on how the teachers give feedback and what types of feedback they give. Furthermore, educational background and teaching and learning experiences appear to attribute to these personal differences. For instance, all the participants seemed to share similar philosophical values, probably resulting from the fact that all the non-NESTs had some experience of learning in the Western educational settings. Moreover, the fact that all the participants were all fully aware of the goals of the program, where academic writing and process approach are primarily taught, may have contributed to what they said was important in evaluation and giving feedback. Another concern was time that might have influenced how the participants gave feedback. Some participants commented that limited time was a big concern and depending on how much time is available, there appears to be only certain things that teachers can deal with in class or in tutorials. It should be noted, though, that this study has examined only what teachers claimed to believe or do. We have not been able to cross-examine what teachers actually do when they give feedback to students.

Just as there are as many learning styles as the number of students (Goldstein & Conrad, 1990), there are as many teaching styles as the number of teachers. There also seems to be divergence in teachers’ and students’ perception as Arndt’s (1993) research has shown. Our responsibility as teachers is to fill this gap through understanding and appreciating different styles and reflecting the program’s or students’ needs or goals, or previous research findings.

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Ethical Considerations for Asian ELT: Formulating Standards

ROBERT J. DICKEY

Kyongju University

This workshop consisted of an open discussion on the need for and orientation of a possible code of ethics for EFL teachers in Asia. A 10-page handout of definitions and citations from publications, as well as specific codes from various professional sources, was used as a starting point for discussions.

There seemed to be a consensus in the group with the basic tenets of the handout, that some form of ethical standards are important in recognition of EFL as a bona-fide profession, and that these standards needed to be worked out by professionals themselves within this part of the world.

Some important concerns voiced by participants included the possibility that employers could use TEFL ethical standards as a disciplinary tool— particularly a fear that they might misuse the standards.

A brainstorming session produced the following ideas of contents that should or should not be included in any consideration of development of a formal code of ethics for Teachers of English in Asia:

SHOULD be included

- subject matter to be taught
- personal vs. professional ethics
- conduct in class—out of class
- relationships between colleagues and students
- measuring students' progress with testing
- relationships between teacher and administration
- copyright vs. photocopier, and the teacher's role
- teacher's conduct and behavior
- teaching methods
- gift-giving
- teacher evaluation
- the syllabus as a contract with learners
- administrative intervention in the classroom
- information to be made available to students regarding methodology, teacher's qualifications, and relevant teacher's details
- private tutoring
- teacher's work contract vs. oral agreements: enforcement & "living up to the bargain"
- relationship with student norms: our expectations vs. students' expectations of "norm"

SHOULD NOT be included in considerations of ethical codes

- private tutoring
- private lives unrelated to professional activities

- cultural differences

In discussion of what shape any ethical code should take, the following ideas were offered:

- code should be broad and minimal
- code should clarify issues and shoot for aspirational ideals

One final concern was voiced, that KOTESOL should promote advocacy for teacher concerns as well as develop an ethical code. This concern appears related to the above-noted fear of abuse by employers. One could well argue that one ethical requirement of professionals is peer support and professional advocacy in causes that affect the profession and its members, and more particularly, advocacy against policies that undermine the attempt to improve conditions for the final recipients of this profession's services—our students.

The workshop presenter suggested that whatever type of standards evolve, we might want to consider Mays' (1990) "Principles for ethics in teaching" as a starting point for detailed discussions. He closed the session by indicating that continued discussions of the issue by email would be desirable, and a number of participants provided email addresses to participate in this.

Portions of the handout follow.

HANDOUT HIGHLIGHTS

Introduction

If we hope to be recognized as a profession, we must establish and maintain professional standards. These standards can help us in our own self-assessments, and aid us in assisting our peers. We must recognize that ELT in Asia is different. How do the various professional standards which exist, both within and outside the teaching profession, relate to our special circumstances?

"[E]thical issues concern questions of right and wrong—our duties and obligations, our rights and responsibilities." Furthermore, "ethical questions cannot be settled by an appeal to facts alone" (Strike, 1988, p. 156).

I should point out that in 6 months of investigation, I was able to find few formal "Codes" of ethics for teachers in North America. There are dozens of papers discussing the need for ethics in this profession. Yet it must be recognized that codes of ethics do not necessarily create ethical professionals, nor does an absence of a code discourage ethical behavior.

This paper is merely the starting point for discussion. A few ideas are presented to begin the process as are some definitions, so that we are using a common language in this highly complex and emotion-ridden field. No statement herein should be construed as definitive; for every statement, an equally valid counter-argument can be made.

Definitions

Moral Principles, the rules determining "Right or Wrong", is a personal matter, largely developed through religious and parental teachings.

Social Values, a sense of "good and bad", are formed through impressions from friends and society-at-large (eg: tv, books, movies, public activities).

Ethics are "a system or code of conduct" (Silva, 1997 p. 359). "Ethics focuses on the voluntary nature of our behavior... Ethics involves making tough decisions—not the obvious choices between right and wrong, but the tough choices between not-so-completely rights or even choosing the lesser of two wrongs" (Black, 1995).

Professional Ethics are determinations of appropriate behavior within a given profession. Personal sets of Professional Ethics are developed, one step at a time, based on each individual's Moral Principles, Social Values, and understanding of the "rules" (whether clearly defined or not) within the profession.

“A code is a set of rules that establishes standards or norms in matters of individual or institutional conduct” (Sockett, 1990 p. 236) [italics in original].

“A code of ethics is best defined as a statement of acceptable standards of behavior...”(Nigro & Nigro, 1984 p. 377). This is to be distinguished from the classic humanities consideration of ethics, which is something like “[Gk ethika, from ethos custom, habit, character], a philosophical discipline, the science of morality” (A Dictionary of Ethics, 1990 p. 113) [italics in original].

An ethical crisis is an event which begins the judgemental processes of determining whether the event violates personal morals, social values, or professional ethics.

Unethical behavior is behavior which violates a code of ethics or the assessor’s perception of professional ethics. This assessor may have no special standing, and in fact might not be a member of the profession or group from which the ethical standards arise.

Discussion Points

“There should be rules telling each of the workers his rights and duties, not vaguely in general terms but in precise detail... A system of ethics, however, is not to be improvised” (Durkheim, 1992 p. 13).

Public school teachers in England work under the most unforgiving, yet imprecise, ethical microscope: a vague concept “Do we want somebody like this teaching our children?” (Haigh, 1992 p. 8).

“The law in many states requires that teachers be people of good moral character... Yet it is hard to imagine anything more controversial than an attempt to say what this means in detail, and, having done so, to require that teachers live up to a specific ethical code” (Strike, 1990, p. 188).

The law is a poor guide for ethics: “Legal standards tell us what we are willing to coerce. What we should hope for should be different” (Strike, 1990, p. 202).

Instead of thinking of a code of ethics, which might be highly prescriptive, setting minimal expectations, perhaps we should be setting out general guidelines, a “framework for reflecting.” As one author stated, “[a]n ethics code is a tool for professionals, not a cage” (Wood, 1996 p. 14).

Some Codes of Ethics are both prescriptive and aspirational. The system of ethics recommended by the American Bar Association for adoption by the various states includes both Ethical Considerations, which guide attorneys towards beneficence, and Disciplinary Rules, which identify minimum standards, and specify sanctions for failure to meet those standards.

Perception is critical in ethics. Many areas are fuzzy; rules and norms may not be clearly defined. In this environment, “you should avoid not only the actuality, but even the appearance of impropriety” (Whicker & Kronefeld, 1994 p. 73).

In environments where public laws may be inappropriate, standards may be set by, and perhaps enforced through, voluntary professional organizations. A preamble for such standards, such as that presented by the AICPA, may be useful to set the code of ethics in proper perspective (See AICPA, 1998, July 10).

“Remarkably little has been written about the obligations of a professor... We all know of careless doctors and dishonest lawyers, but these unscrupulous individuals have violated detailed codes of behavior, framed and ratified by their colleagues. What comparable code has been violated by an unscrupulous professor?” (Cahn, 1986 p. xi).

A code of ethics for teachers “is something to hammer out as professionalism develops... As we discover what best practice is, such a profession-wide code can indeed incorporate best practice” (Sockett, 1990 p. 243).

Sensitivity to cross-cultural ethical conflicts is imperative. A globally common issue is the giving of gifts by students to teachers. Whether or not to accept the gift is perhaps the most frequent ethical crisis in Korea. “Although gift-giving mores are rarely discussed in our teacher

education ESL methodology courses, almost every ESL instructor has, at one time or another, been placed in an awkward position involving a gift or a present” (Messerschmitt, et al., 1997 p. 11).

THE AUTHOR

Robert Dickey has been teaching English in Korea since 1994. He holds an RSA Certificate in TEFL to adults. His studies in professional ethics began while in graduate school (public administration) and were re-focused while in law school.

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ATTACHMENTS TO THE WORKSHOP HANDOUT

ATTACHMENT 1

MAY'S PRINCIPLES FOR ETHICS IN TEACHING

Principles of Personal Responsibility

- A. Demonstrate a respect for each person as an individual,
- B. Communicate honestly and truthfully,
- C. Enhance the self esteem of other persons, and
- D. Help build fair and compassionate social and cultural systems that promote the common good of all people.

Principles of Professional Interaction

- A. Assist their institution to fulfill its educational mission,
- B. Strive to enhance the personal and intellectual development of other persons,
- C. Be compassionate, thorough, and fair in assessing the performance of students and professional associates,
- D. Exercise the authority of their office in ways that respect persons and avoid the abuse of power, and
- E. Conduct their professional activities in ways that uphold or surpass the ideals of virtue and competence.

May, William.

ATTACHMENT 2. CHARTER OF TEACHING PHILOSOPHY (KOREA)*

Today's education determines individual growth, social development, and tomorrow's national fate.

We, as those entrusted with national education, are aware that we are respected teachers and trusted leaders. We renew our sense of pride and mission as teachers, and define our teaching philosophy.

WE SHALL love our students, respect their individuality, and wholeheartedly create pleasant academic traditions.

WE SHALL, by enhancing our expertise through well-cultivated minds and unceasing pursuit of our studies, become a paragon of virtue for the public.

WE SHALL, with formulation of far-reaching and thorough educational plans and sincere implementation, fulfill our responsibilities.

WE SHALL cooperate with each other and actively dedicate ourselves to self-reliance and reform in education, and to promotion of the status of educators.

WE SHALL, by strengthening the ties between education within the home and education within society, contribute to the enhancement of public well-being.

*Student Textbook for the 1st Rank Middle/High School Teachers' Refresher Course (n.d.). Taegu, South Korea: Taegu Board of Education Research and Education Center.

ATTACHMENT 3. EXCERPTS FROM NAEYC CODE OF ETHICAL CONDUCT

(National Association for the Education of Young Children, USA) Available: http://www.naeyc.org/about/about_index.htm (1998 October 11).

ATTACHMENT 4. NEA CODE OF ETHICS

(National Education Association, USA) Available: <http://www.nea.org/info/code/html> (Oct. 11 1998).

ATTACHMENT 5 STATE OF WASHINGTON CODE OF PROFESSIONAL CONDUCT

(State Law) Available: <http://www.wa.nea.org/PUBLICAT/Legal/PROFCOND.HTM> (1998 October 11).

Developing Effective Techniques for Assessing Speaking Skills

PETER E. NELSON

ChungAng University

INTRODUCTION

The growing emphasis on speaking and listening skills in second language acquisition introduces a practical question: what are appropriate ways to test students? Although machine-based methods can analyze individual speech components, these are hardly useful for large classes or for elements of connected speech. Moreover, given the growing emphasis on fluency, the teacher needs to determine whether a student's speech pattern is "natural" or unsatisfactory in some manner. Hence evaluation techniques that are both reliable and valid, as well as adaptable to large classes, are difficult to develop or implement.

Following introductory remarks to provide a common basis for interaction, the workshop is organized to enable teachers to discuss the methods they use. It is hoped that conversation-and debate-will include a frank analysis of techniques that work as well as those that don't, and why. The workshop is suitable at all teaching levels where speaking assessment is required or desirable.

ITEMS TO CONSIDER WHEN TESTING FOR PRONUNCIATION CHARACTERISTICS

1. Purpose of Exam

Knowing in advance an exam's overall purpose is paramount in determining what type of examination should be used. For example, if grade determination is the primary incentive, the tests, where possible, should be both objective and comprehensive, and of course be understood the same way by each student tested. These criteria are also valuable for ranking students, although numerical precision may not be the same as when only relative placement is required.

The type of exam given may differ if in fact the purpose is to assist students individually or in groups. For instance, a teacher may want to check a particular Korean student's progress in pronouncing the /L/ sound in English, to ensure it is not pronounced as an /R/. Similarly, if the teacher desires to isolate or reduce group errors, such as the /L/ sound, he may want to focus exclusively on words containing this sound and reduce overall test comprehensiveness.

2. Assessment type

How the test is assessed is also a factor. The most common form, teacher assessment, uses known, objectively based criteria. It is also possible, however, that students may assess themselves or each other, although this method may be preferable for subjective progress evaluations rather than objective marking and grade determination. A third technique is for a teacher to use an external assessor such as another teacher. This method is infrequent, but may apply, say, for entrance to special schools or in instances where the teacher is not a native speaker and feels uncomfortable judging students' speaking skills for testing purposes.

3. Level of pronunciation

Which pronunciation level the teacher will assess is vital to the testing process. When listening for accuracy, especially when differentiating among students, the teacher may wish to focus on “chunks” of language rather than overall conversational ability. For example, he may consider the micro-level, which includes pronunciation of phonemes and syllables. Slightly higher is the macro level, which considers broader characteristics such as rhythm and intonation of words and short phrases. A third possibility is discourse consideration, in which whole sentences are analyzed from the standpoint of pronunciation, rhythm, intonation and so on.

A teacher may wish to consider two higher levels beyond the sentence. A summative consideration may include overall communicative competence, in essence questioning whether the student in fact communicated well, and accurately, what (s)he intended to communicate. There is also an impressionistic consideration, which considers the message from a “naturalness” perspective, asking whether the utterance would be similar to that uttered by a native speaker. In this regard it is important to note that professional evaluators (e.g. Cambridge FCE) have developed marking scales to evaluate overall naturalness.

A warning is also necessary. The author undertook his own study (Nelson, 1998) which showed (to him) that accuracy substantially decreases the lower the level the teacher is attempting to mark. In essence it is far more difficult to discriminate well between students when individual phonemes or syllables are spoken, than when the teacher is listening to communicative competence or naturalness. This finding would imply that micro-assessment techniques are better used as methods to assist students, whereas summative and impressionistic techniques are better used for assigning numerical or ranked grades.

4. Elicitation category

How the exam is structured to obtain information can affect not only the quality of response but also its comprehensiveness in determining what the student has learned. There are many elicitation categories; their inclusion for testing purposes may be based on external factors such as overall class size or time available, or internal ones based on students’ training, comfort levels, discourse models and so on. The suggestions below show many possibilities.

- A. Interview
- B. Pre-arranged information gap
- C. (Imaginary) Telephone Conversation
- D. Mechanical (e.g. tape recorder) response
- E. Discussion / conversation of 2 persons
- F. Discussion / conversation of 3+ persons
- G. Oral report
- H. Role play
- I. Fill in a form
- J. Question and answer
- K. Reading from prose or poetry
- L. Reading blank dialogue
- M. Responding to instructions
- N. Precis or story telling from an aural stimulus
- O. Translating / interpreting
- P. Sentence or utterance repetition
- Q. Sentence or utterance correction

5. Evaluator(s)

The choice of evaluators is similar to that of assessment type (#2) in that someone other than the teacher may be involved. Ideally a qualified native speaker of English should be used, yet other situations warrant exceptions. In the absence of a qualified native speaker, a qualified non-native speaker is certainly acceptable provided she is able to discriminate well among student speaking characteristics in English. In unusual situations-such as Cambridge Examiners' meetings for testing purposes-a group listening may occur. This last category, however, requires that the group standardize what it is listening for and how it will mark tests; achieving this degree of coordination and agreement is difficult and lengthy.

6. Evaluation techniques

How a teacher chooses a particular evaluation technique will affect final scores. Numerical scales (e.g. 1 - 100) have the finest discrimination but may introduce an element of arbitrariness if students are relatively close in their speaking abilities. Ordinal, or ranking scales, are useful to roughly separate students, while collapsed scales or grade categories (e.g. "A, B, C, D, F") allow association by groups. The last system may be preferred when the teacher simply wants to approximate the class distribution rather than assign individual grades.

7. Number of evaluations per exam

For smaller groups, the teacher may be able to listen to two or even three repetitions of utterances, then perhaps average the scores obtained. Unfortunately, multiple listenings become impractical as class size grows.

8. Marking categories

What aspects of speech we are assessing is as important as the level of communication. Ideally, the teacher would listen to and evaluate the students' grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and content, perhaps assigning equal grading significance. This comprehensiveness in practice may become unwieldy, however, and require a focus on one, two or three of these characteristics but not all of them.

9. Performance criteria

A consideration of the speaker's style, context and correctness may be important as these performance criteria indicate how closely the student is approximating naturally spoken English. Several indicators are presented below and may be considered by the teacher:

- A. Size (how lengthy are the utterances produced?)
- B. Complexity (to what extent does the speaker attempt complex language?)
- C. Speed (how fast does she/he speak?)
- D. Flexibility (can the speaker adapt quickly to changes in the topic or task?)
- E. Accuracy (is it correct English?)
- F. Appropriacy (is the style or register appropriate?)
- G. Independence (can the speaker initiate speech on his own, or respond only?)
- H. Repetition (how often does the question or stimulus have to be repeated?)
- I. Hesitation (how much does the speaker hesitate before and while speaking?)

10. Weighting

Weighting refers to the percentage of the exam allocated for each of its sections. For example, a teacher may wish to measure four components (all discussed earlier) equally: structural accuracy (e.g. grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation), performance criteria, overall communicative ability and naturalness. Similarly, he may wish to place more emphasis, say 40%, on overall communicative ability or naturalness, but only 20% on the remaining indices. A third variation is to vary the percentages according to the speaker or sub-group tested, although this procedure can be seen as intentionally biased if not explained beforehand and fully to students. The overall objective is of course to know the purpose for the weighting.

11. Validity and reliability

These are technical terms, in essence, to ensure that what is intended to be tested is in fact done so.

“Content validity” considers the overall relationship of the test to what is in theory being examined, while “construct validity” evaluates actual test components as a measure of underlying theory. “Face validity” is from the perspective of the student, and measures the extent to which the test appears appropriate for its intended purpose. Finally, “reliability of the marker” (or markers) must be considered: inter-marker reliability considers whether a group of markers examining the same material is consistent, whereas intra-marker reliability assesses the reliability of one marker assessing the same material (e.g. a taped utterance) the same way on repeat listenings.

12. Resources

To an extent, a teacher’s assessment of available resources must be both accurate and contain common sense considerations. She must consider administrative feasibility factors like her time and space available for the exam(s). She must evaluate her exam relative to class size, as procedures that may work well for small groups (generally less than 15 students) may be awkward or even inappropriate for larger groups. A third consideration is whether to listen directly or have students use recordings such as cassette tapes, as the latter may be useful for repeat listenings but may also appear unnatural or unfamiliar to students.

13. Measurement of progress

This last factor considers how frequently presumed progress will be identified and measured. For example, it is possible to repeat a test at two known periods. This technique will of course measure exactly a student’s progress, say, at the beginning and end of a semester, and can be used for diagnostic purposes. The teacher may also construct graded test items over time, i.e. set increasingly higher standards as the course progresses. This is generally the acceptable method with which both students and teachers are familiar. A third variation, and essentially a hybrid of the two above, is to repeat testing of particular speech elements (e.g. stress, rhythm, articulation), thereby introducing greater testing range while focusing on critical aspects.

POST-WORKSHOP EVALUATION

The workshop was well attended with lively, valuable conversation. Teachers asked many questions pertaining to the 13 factors above and also shared their own assessment techniques with participants. It soon became clear that participants did not agree which factors were most important, nor did they have standardized measures for assessment of student speaking skills. The workshop

highlighted the need for development of practical criteria to judge students generally and for objective testing purposes.

THE AUTHOR

Peter Nelson first began the teaching of English in 1995. Currently he is in the Department of English Education at Chung Ang University in Seoul. He received an RSA/University of Cambridge Certificate in the UK in January 1997, and has completed course work for the RSA/UCLES Diploma Program offered at Yonsei University. He is active in KOTESOL as a public speaker, writer and teacher trainer. His email is <peternel@cau.ac.kr>.

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The reader is referred to Nic Underhill's, *Testing Spoken Language: A Handbook of Oral Testing Techniques* (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge 1991), from which many ideas in this discussion have been taken.

Neuro-Linguistic Programming In The Classroom

JOHN SKYE

Jeonju University

Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) gives teachers and students a tool to improve language acquisition. NLP makes learning easy and fun by changing unproductive learning habits to a strategy for achievement that is used by successful and effective learners. The key to using NLP is understanding the eye accessing cues which reveal how people process information for memory: learning and recall. A step by step learning strategy is presented. The teacher benefits through awareness of the student's internal learning strategy and learning preferences, by tailoring their lesson plans to those preferences, and with improved rapport in the classroom.

INTRODUCTION

The workshop presented Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) techniques for the ESL classroom. Four areas were explored: a visual learning strategy, rapport in communication, student learning preferences, and eye accessing cues and their applications. NLP, an area of applied psychology that codifies conscious and unconscious subjective human experience into step by step models, is a tool for the teacher and the student to enhance communication and learning. The NLP model of the most successful students can be taught as a learning strategy. The techniques refine rapport in communication and the classroom environment, and help the teacher to understand the learning preferences of their students. However, the key to using and understanding NLP is the eye accessing cues.

Eye Accessing Cues

Eye accessing cues are positions that the eye assumes when processing sensory experience and information for storage or retrieval in memory. Knowing this allows the teacher to witness and understand the internal cognitive operations underlying learning. Although there are five senses, only three-visual, auditory, and kinesthetic-are practical in the classroom.

There are seven eye positions (Grinder & Bandler, 1976). The following explanation applies to a majority of right-handed people, though there are exceptions, and the positions are usually reversed for left-handed people. Also, when a person is accessing internal memory, the eyes are unfocused at each position. The three visual access positions are as follows: for visual remembered images, the eye is up and to the left corner of the eye socket; for visual constructed images, they are up to the right; and the eyes are level and centered for visual accessing. There are also three auditory access cues which are as follows: auditory remembered sound is with eyes level to the left; auditory constructed sound is with eyes level to the right; and auditory digital (reciting or talking to oneself) is with the eyes down to the left. Finally, kinesthetic accessing is with the eyes down to the right. By observing these eye accessing cues (representational systems), we can see a representation of the internal processes of memory: learning and recall.

Predicates

Additionally, a person's language provides clues to further understanding the internal processes of memory. The predicates used indicate which memory the person is accessing. For example, the following predicates would be used: for visual-look, watch, appear; for auditory-argue, hear, call; and for kinesthetic- feel, connect, support (Grinder & Bandler, 1976). Some predicates are unspecified and can apply to any of the memory fields: believe, know, think, be aware of (Bandler & Grinder, 1979). We experience life through the five senses. In communication, this is reflected in our choice of predicates about that sense through which the experience was seen, heard, or felt.

Memory

In learning situations kinesthetic memory is most suitable for learning the piano, typing, sports, art or other "body" activities. Since recall is very slow, TPR and physical games are good classroom methods. Auditory memory is most suitable for songs, reciting, speech, or drama. This memory is an experience stored as sound in linear sequence or 1 - 2 - 3 order. Therefore, recall is slow and sequential. For example, many students have trouble when asked to say the English alphabet from a letter that is not A, try starting at F. Many students must say A through F first in order to continue from F to the end of the alphabet. Now try to sing a song or say your country's pledge from the middle. Unless you have a separate memory from that middle point, you must start at the beginning. Visual experience is stored as images in our visual memory and is most suitable for academic subjects, such as spelling, vocabulary, history, math, or languages (Dilts & Epstein, 1995). Recall is fast. Idioms, sayings, proverbs, and clichés take on new meanings. As the saying goes, a picture is worth a thousand words and seeing is believing. This gives the student a great boost in confidence because they understand that they know that they know the material being studied. Also they can recall it and see it in their mind's eye. The knowledge has always been in subconscious memory concerned with previous learning, but without NLP techniques access connections were faulty. As new information, English language structures for example, are added to memory visually, the mind reorganizes old information and connects it to the new information (Lofland, 1992). However, there may be resistance to using this new method because the student has invested much time and effort in an ineffective learning strategy that works for them.

Student Profile

Visual learning is the method of choice used by the top academic achievers. Meanwhile, struggling students use an auditory method that involves memorizing and subvocalizing when reading. In addition, because there is only sound with no way to locate the answer or connect it to an image, the students can get stuck on a question during a test that they know they studied but cannot remember. Finally, struggling students read without comprehension because the brain is just sounding out the words without connections to images for recall later. Today's students are the TV, video game, and computer generation experiencing rapid outcomes and images. They are usually bored in an auditory classroom if they are visually oriented.

Rapport

The eye accessing cues give the teacher information that can be used for rapport in communication. By listening to the predicates and watching the eyes, a teacher can learn which representational system a person is using. In order to get communication rapport, simply match the system used (Bandler & Grinder, 1979). For example, if a person says: "How do you see it?", you would be in rapport to say, "It looks good to me", while there is no rapport in saying "It sounds good to me". Many people limit their depth of communication by missing these communication cues of

eye position and word choice. Rapport also becomes an accelerative learning method when a student mirrors the teacher's eye movements, tone of voice, predicates, and breathing (Ostrander & Schroeder, 1981). These systems can also become a learning preference. A visually-oriented student would be bored by auditory activities like listening to tapes or lectures. Through awareness of the student's learning preference-visual, auditory, or kinesthetic-the teacher can tailor the lessons to better match the student's preference, but also teach the student flexibility in learning for all three areas. The teacher can also discover their own personal preference and which one represents their teaching style. Additionally, many teachers presuppose that students know how to learn when they arrive in the classroom. Teaching the students NLP techniques, like how to recall a picture from a past experience and talk about it, will build rapport and decrease overall classroom frustrations with learning.

Learning Preferences

There are other learning preferences that the teacher should consider when planning or presenting a lesson (Blackerby, 1996). Is the student motivated by the benefits of rewards (money, A+) or by the fear of punishment (summer school, no car)? Does the student readily accept and follow authority or do they rebel and question everything? Are they detail oriented and practical or generalists and philosophers that need to know a purpose for the new material? Does the student match the new material to previously learned examples or does he need many new examples and answers to fit the material into a separate memory? How much information (size) can be learned in what amount of time? And does the student prefer a class that has routine and repetition or variety and change? Furthermore, students that prefer visual learning need the material presented in images while the teacher describes the material with picture words. An auditory preference needs the material presented by tape or lecture using a sound vocabulary. Kinesthetic students need to use their body and hear feeling words (Bandler, 1985). Learning Rapport depends on how the teacher presents and communicates the information in the class and how the student perceives the information. If the material to be learned does not match the student's learning preference or if the student is not flexible to adjust for different subjects, teachers, or tasks, then no learning takes place and the student is bored, gives up, or has behavior problems.

VISUAL LEARNING STRATEGY

The visual learning strategy is a step by step learning method that fits the material in the ESL class and language learning in particular. A prerequisite to using visual learning is the ability to visualize and make an image in the mind. Any exercise that produces an image is suitable as a visualization exercise. The exercise can become a game, and the eyes can be open or closed. Below are two visual game ideas follow. The first one is air or desk writing.

The student writes a word with his finger, then looks at the word and repeats or spells it. Next he spells it backward; then he takes the word inside the mind and imagines it written on the desk, again, spelling and saying it. This is the ultimate "cheating" skill.

The second game involves detailed description and changing of scenes. The first scene is a circus described using rich detail and a visual vocabulary. The teacher tells about a scene with animals and activities. Then he asks questions like how many lions are in the picture in the student's mind. More detail is added so that the teacher's picture matches that of the students. Third, a cartoon or movie is created out of the lesson material. The students should see images of the meaning of the material, like words, sentences, or expressions. Next students visualize a computer screen with the lesson in it, and pretend to move the mouse, scroll up, change pages, read the material, and type in new sentences. After that, they pretend they are at a fast food restaurant. The

students look up at the sign for the selections, order food, pay, take the tray to their seat, and describe the location and appearance of the food on their tray. They can pick up each item and even enjoy their French Fries vicariously.

These two games practice the skills of reading, writing, spelling, listening, and speaking for the ESL classroom. Over time these exercises help to develop a photographic ability for memory, reading, and speaking. The goal is to visualize an image and hold it steady in order to copy off it. This builds trust in the images.

Next, picture the meaning of the word or material to be learned in complete detail. They make an internal picture of the material in the mind's eye. The picture can be an image, collage, movie, or symbol. For example, if the student is learning apple, he pictures the fruit in his mind. Then, he makes the picture clear and strong. Next he embeds the word A-P-P-L-E on the picture of the fruit, so that he sees the word and the fruit. While looking at the image and the word, he simultaneously speaks the word. This action links the visual memory of the apple to the sound of the word. In the future, if the student sees the fruit apple, an image and the word should appear in his memory. If the teacher speaks "apple", the student should see the image of the meaning, the fruit apple, in his mind. If the student reads apple, he should see the image in memory. If asked to spell the word, he should see the fruit with the word and just spell off the image. The final step in the visualization process, after simultaneously looking at the image and saying its name, is to see the image and describe it in detail and say or spell the word. Simultaneously, the student may speak the Korean equivalent. The material is now linked to visual and auditory memory in the Korean and English languages. In order to plant this new material into long term memory, the last step will need to be practiced ten more times over a time span. It only takes a minute per item. Finally, to build confidence, the teacher should ask questions about the subject matter to demonstrate to the students that they know the new material and can recall it.

WORKSHOP FEEDBACK

Several workshop participants returned to their schools and tried NLP in their classes. They reported that the students were excited about the teacher giving them help in learning. Secondly, a new relationship developed through rapport where the students took more responsibility for learning and the teachers experienced less stress in the classroom with the friendlier environment. The students turned their excitement into a renewed motivation to learn English.

SUMMARY

NLP is a tool that is available for the teacher to use for classroom management and lesson planning. It encourages the student to think through visualizing and communicating their life experiences. Keep in mind that children first learn using visual techniques, but after age ten the classroom becomes auditory, textbooks without pictures are used, and behavior problems manifest. The NLP classroom creates a successful learning environment with rapport, accelerated learning, and happy, motivated students.

THE AUTHOR

John Skye teaches at Jeonju University in Chonju, Korea. He has taught ESL for 22 years in the Philippines, Japan, Mexico, U.S.; and in Korea since 1995. He has a MA in Psychology and a private counseling practice in the United States His area of research is NLP in the interactive and cooperative classroom.

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APPENDIX A VISUAL LEARNING STRATEGY

The NLP model is a fun, natural method to use for teaching and learning.

Making a memory connection between the (a) sound of the word, (b) sight of the word, and (c) meaning of the word.

STEP 1. Visualization warm up exercises. It is important for the student to be able to visualize or make an image in their mind's eye. Exercises: describe family, movies, pets; an imaginary lunch. The goal is to visualize in rich detail and hold the image steady in order to copy off it. This builds trust in the pictures.

STEP 2. Picture the meaning of the word or material in complete detail. Make an internal picture in the mind's eye of the material to be remembered. The picture can be an image, collage, movie, or symbol.

STEP 3. Get a strong, clear picture. See it! Strengthen the image and embed the picture of the word to be learned in the image of the meaning of the word.

STEP 4. While looking at the image and the word, simultaneously speak the word.

STEP 5. Again, see the image and describe it in detail and say or spell the word. Repeat several times.

STEP 6. Practice 8 - 10 times over a period of time to plant the information into long-term memory. It should only take one minute per word.

Test that the students know that they know the material. Ask them: what is the subject matter about? The student should see the picture, access any part of it, describe it, and pull up the information.

Comprehensive list of presentations at the sixth annual Korea TESOL conference; Seoul South Korea October 16 - 18, 1998

The 1998 KOTESOL conference committee gratefully recognizes the following people who presented papers, conducted workshops and led discussions at the 1998 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;** *Journeys: taking the high road or taking the low road*
- Michele Claire Aucock;** *Sticks and stones may break my bones but words will certainly hurt me*
- William Balsamo;** *Hold the line-Telephone Usage and games for second language learners*
- Michael Belostovsky;** *Language Acquisition and methods*
- Gregory Bornmann;** *Teaching Speech Acts to Korean Students*
- Kip Cates;** *Global issues in the language classroom*
- Kip Cates;** *Teaching for world citizenship: multicultural theme work for EFL*
- Lynda Chapple;** *Film as content: an alternative approach*
- Sook Eun Cho;** *Let's speak up*
- Paul Choe;** *Thoughts on EFL education in Korea*
- Fiona Cook;** *Master's degree programs at the SIT*
- Gerald Couzens;** *Manipulating textbook dialogs to be more communicative*
- Miles Craven;** *Interactive activities for reading newspapers*
- Gina Crocetti;** *Authentic video in ELT*
- Gina Crocetti;** *Lesson planning for the new teacher*
- Andy Curtis;** *Going solo: Practical approaches to teacher development using the self as source*
- Andy Curtis;** *What EFL Teachers Learn from Action Research*
- Martin Dibbs;** *Pop culture and language education*
- Robert Dickey;** *Authentic English for Modestly-skilled Listeners: It's on the Radio*
- Robert Dickey;** *Ethical considerations for Asian ELT: reflecting on our work formulating standards*
- Lanny Dryden, & Michelle Morrone;** *Language Learning and self-discovery: multiple intelligence theory applied in CALL Lab*
- Michael Duffy;** *Ten things you wanted to know about learning a language but were afraid to ask*
- TJ Everest;** *Re-SOUNDing Remedies*
- Thomas Farrel;** *ESL/ESL teacher's development: top-down or bottom-up*
- Andrew Finch, & Hyun Tae-duck;** *A Task-based conversation program- Development and implementation*
- Andrew Finch;** *Reflective learning and teaching- the learning journal*
- James Finch;** *Promotional: The *Speak for Yourself* textbook series*
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Terri-Jo Everest
Pusan University of Foreign Studies
I.L.E.C.
55-1 Uamdong, Namgu
Pusan 608 738
SOUTH KOREA

Office Fax: +82-(0)51-642-9387
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Beep: 015-7905-5596
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