The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly

Professional Teaching Articles Collection 2005

Editors: Robertson, P. & Jung, J.

Index.

Article Title

From EFL to Content-Based Instruction: what English teachers take with them into the sociolinguistics lecture.

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Abstract

This paper describes the teaching of sociolinguistics to Japanese and Chinese 2nd grade students in a college in Japan by a teacher trained in English as Foreign Language (EFL).   It shows how the native speaker EFL teacher employs a methodological combination of teacher transmission and student collaboration as an effective means to teach this particular content-based subject to non-native English speakers using primarily English as the instructional language.   This methodological hybrid is argued as being influenced by the teacher's EFL background towards student input in the lesson, resulting in a syllabus which integrates student beliefs and experiences about the use of language in society and employs multilingual collaboration among students in the lecture itself.   This version of traditional lecturing and student interaction, termed here as "collaborative dialogue" (Swain, 2000, p. 97), has succeeded in, firstly, raising the general class level of comprehension and, significantly, lowering anxiety about interaction in class. Additionally, it has resulted in pooling student input about language use to create a rich, contrastive perspective on basic sociolinguistic topics.

1. Introduction

This paper describes the content-based teaching of sociolinguistics to Japanese and Chinese students at a 2-year college in Japan. Firstly, it briefly outlines the syllabus in terms of its aims, means of evaluation and the rationale for its topic choice. Then it describes the main focus of the paper, that of the methodology chosen to teach the syllabus, a combination of transmission and collaboration. A discussion and some conclusions concerning the concept of collaboration among students in this teaching context then follows.

2. Syllabus

2.1 Aim of the course and evaluation

This course intended to help students understand some of the basic aspects of how language is used in society.   Students were evaluated on a mid-term test (20%), an end of term test (20%), participation in class and homework (40%), and attendance (20%).

2.2 Syllabus and rationale

The syllabus focused on 12 themes in two parts (lessons 1 to 6 and lessons 8 to 13), taught over 15 weeks, as illustrated below in table 1:

Table 1. The sociolinguistics syllabus

1. Introduction to Sociolinguistics,
2. Gender,
3. Age,
4. Ethnicity,
5. Social class,
6. Regions,
7. Mid-term test of lessons 1 to 6,
8. Language and culture,
9. Forms of address and Politeness,
10. Image and association,
11. Speech acts,
12. Discourse,
13. Nonverbal language,
14. End of term test of lessons 8 to 13,
15. Course review and student feedback

The teacher's objective in compiling this syllabus was to encourage student input in the form of their own beliefs and experiences for each topic area. This was intended as a necessary Japanese and Chinese contrast to the teacher-led input which often took the form of mostly anglo-centric examples.   Providing time each lesson for student-centered perspectives was seen as a means to redress this imbalance and make the lesson input more relevant for the student population.

    In terms of the specific break-down of the syllabus, the first part of the 15-week syllabus (lessons 1 to 6) was so devised as to give students a background knowledge into the basic areas of sociolinguistics. This was with particularly reference to the use of English, Japanese and Chinese languages in societies in which they are used. i.e. their use in the world as first, foreign and second languages.   The way men and women speak, and finally, the effect of social class systems and region on language were also addressed as essential components in this first part.

The second part of the syllabus (lessons 8 to 13) shifted the focus on to giving students a broader perspective on how to investigate the concept of "culture" (using cultural models and analogies), how politeness and terms of address are expressed and used in social relations, how images carry different associations across cultures, how language can be analyzed through its various speech acts (introducing pragmatic and discourse awareness), and finally, how non-verbal language (gestures) differs across cultures.

In summary, the syllabus contents were arranged in order to give students insights into the way they use language in society and how it can be perceived by others (perlocution) within the same region or country and in other countries. The course also attempted to enable students to become mini-researchers into language through the practical use of speech acts and interactional coding in discourse analysis, supporting that analysis by means of interpretative frameworks (cultural models like Geertz, 1973; Hall, 1977 and Holliday, 1994).   Research into the course content was taken from two sources, in English by Holmes (1992), *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics,* and also in Japanese by Tanaka and Tanaka (1996), *An Invitation to Sociolinguistics.* This reference to both English-language and Japanese resources gave the teacher access to some information which was less anglo-centric in nature, providing the teacher with examples of sociolinguistic use of language in the Asian context.

3. Methodology: Transmission and collaboration

The course was taught in simple English with some Japanese. Students were encouraged to use their preferred language in group and pair activities and discussions, meaning that Japanese and Chinese were not regarded as forbidden languages in the classroom. The language of lecturing, although primarily English, frequently switched between Japanese, English and Chinese for subsequent group and pair work among students and Japanese or English for interaction with the teacher. The purpose of this multilingual approach, often manifesting itself in code-switching between languages, was to lower the anxiety of communication with the teacher in a foreign language. Although the objective of the course was to increase awareness of sociolinguistics, the by-product of this process could be argued as one which had the potential to improve student to student English communication skills.

Following this content-based, rather than linguistic, objective, much emphasis was placed on student collaboration. This is fundamentally what I, the teacher, perceived as having carried over from EFL training and practice. It was a transfer of beliefs about instruction (or perhaps better expressed, the construction of knowledge) from EFL into content-based teaching which focuses on the students not simply as   recipients of knowledge, but as co-constructors. This is

taken from my experiences in multi-level EFL classes where student elicitation of lexis and grammar and the exchange and student collaboration to negotiate meaning are standard practice. These EFL-influences manifested themselves in the following ways:

1. After teacher content-matter transmission: The lesson was staged so there were regular pauses for recapping (about every 10-15 minutes), firstly by the teacher and then by students in the language of their choice. The initial teacher-led recapping entailed a highlighting of key concepts and lexical items. The following student to student summarizing was essentially a repeat of the teacher recap session in which students compared notes and summarized the last 10-15 minutes of instruction to each other in pairs or threes. Such recap sessions were perhaps, though to be fair not exclusively, seen to part of the sensitivity of EFL teachers towards the linguistic uptake of the class.

2. During student to student collaboration: After teacher transmission and the subsequent recapping sessions, practice on various mini tasks to reinforce, and even introduce, new themes was conducted in pairs or groups. This involved comparing kanji which integrates the character for woman, watching clips of Japanese dramas to identify gender-related language, and even creating cockney-rhyming slang sentences etc. After this, results of collaboration were shared between groups and, as was frequent in this class, written on the board so that all students could learn from each other. An example of a typical exercise requiring analytical thought and collaboration to reinforce a theme introduced by teacher transmission was in lesson 3 on ethnicity where "creoles" were the focus of study. Students firstly briefly studied the following information on Tok Pisin, the language of Papua New Guinea, and filled in the missing lexis. In the first case, this entailed guessing the linguistic construction of Tok Pisin verbs (adapted from Holmes, 1992).

Tok Pisin	English	Tok Pisin	English
Bik	big	bikim	make large
Daun	low	?	make lower
Nogut	bad	?	make bad/spoil

Then they were required to translate Tok Pisin into English:

Tok pisin	English
Gras	Grass

Mausgras	Moustache
Grasbilong fes	Beard
Gras bilong hed	?
Gras antop long ai	?
Pisin	Bird
Gras bilong pisin	?

In lesson 8 on language and culture, in contrast, student collaboration entailed filling in Geertz's (1973) ice-berg.   This was actually in place of the normal teacher-led introduction of a theme on cultural models in which the following instructions were given:

Geertz said that what we see is above the water-line. What we cannot see is below the water. What do we see and what don't we see when we meet people from different cultures? Write them in the following ice-berg:

Clothes

Festivals   **Houses**   **Food**

Faces/body   **Skin**

Language

Ways of thinking:

Marriage   **Family**   **Education**   **Religion**

Negotiation
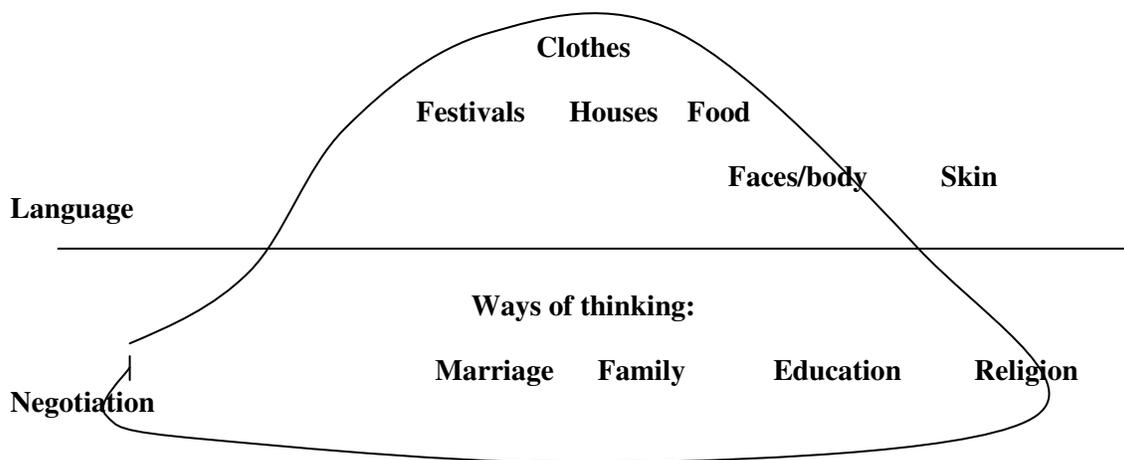
In lesson 10 on image and association student collaboration was focused on finding colour-based associations in their own culture and comparing them with the given associations from the UK and those of other students in the class, forming a UK – Japan – China contrast, as below:

Colour	UK	Japan	China
Black	Depression **Humour** **In credit**	Depression *Noble*	*Evil* Bad luck
Red	Angry Embarrassed Danger *In debt*	Angry **In debt (akaji)**	**Good luck** **Beauty** **Loyalty**

3. *Homework collaboration*: The last 15 to 20 minutes of every lesson was taken up by a recap of the same lesson in the form of a homework sheet. This was basically a varied repetition of the main hand-out in which students formed different pairs or groups and worked through the homework questions. They consulted each other while I (the teacher) could monitor. This was a relaxed part to the lesson which was used to assess the students' comprehension and uptake of the lesson in a non-formal atmosphere. The homework was encouraged as a collaborative effort, although each lesson the groups were changed for variety of student input. If not finished by the end of the lesson, this homework was to be continued either individually, or in the same group at home.

At first, students seemed surprised to be allowed to consult each other and even copy work. They were made aware, though, that they were to be assessed on not just the correctness of answers, but also their effort to collaborate positively with each other, i.e. to discuss the answers together and not simply to plagiarize. Active students were evaluated more highly than passive ones in this stage, even though their answers were not necessarily perfect. Examples of the homework set show standard comprehension-style questions as in lesson 4 (Appendix 1), yet in others, for example in lesson 1 (Appendix 2), students were encouraged to use the knowledge and apply it actively by watching and analyzing a TV programme of their choice.

4. Discussion

This mixture of teacher transmission and student collaboration has drawn several observations. Firstly, taking a sociolinguistics course in English with a native-speaker lecturer has brought students into a new "academic discourse community" (Gaffield-Vile, 1996, p. 112) where the language is more specific than that learned in General English classes taken with native speaker teachers of English at the same institution. This lexical challenge necessitated regular recap

sessions after teacher transmission in which concepts and their related lexis were clearly summarized and outlined on the board.   This is a direct influence from the linguistic sensitivity acquired as a result of being an EFL teacher. It may not be exclusive to EFL teachers, but is nevertheless a useful tool for content-based lecturers to possess in English-medium instruction.

In this course, there was a requirement to adopt a more autonomous mode of learning. Students needed to think critically about various sociolinguistic themes and were informed that they were to be evaluated on their active participation in class.   This was outlined to the students at the start of the course as being important since student input in terms of experience and beliefs could be shared with others, providing a valuable contrastive and student-centred element to teacher-led input. This moved the lesson content from what Biggs (1993, p.104) terms as "surface to deep learning", in that it became more relevant to the students' own, local context. Miller (2002) argues that such a local contextualization of lesson content is essential in aiding comprehension in second language lectures.

On a note of caution, though, passing responsibility over to students to provide their own lesson input in a lecture, as well as assisting other students in comprehension, may be perceived as imposing a western approach of "learner autonomy" on to Japanese and Chinese learners (Sinclair, 1997). Perhaps, for some students, attending a sociolinguistics class is assumed as carrying the responsibility of listening individually to a transmission of knowledge, taking notes (or not), and being assessed on one end of term test or essay. This expectation was quickly challenged, and even slightly resisted at first, when collaboration was required.

In response to the potential criticism of imposing a western mode of learning on to the class, however, collaboration in what Senior (1997, p.3) calls "bonded" groups and Miller (2002, p. 149) as "communities of learners" can be seen as an effective way to check and enhance comprehension. This is like a new study skill which encourages cognitive flexibility (Mohammed, 1997), a change from the expected mode of learning in lectures. The process of working in pairs and groups in a lecture was quite new for most students, although for those who had experienced EFL classes with foreign instructors, the shock may have been lessened. Perhaps the encouragement of the strategy of "social mediation" (O'Malley et al, 1985; Oxford, 1990) to achieve comprehension and relevant student-centred input was associated more with the lecturer than the lecture itself.

In terms of the perception of pressure on students who normally dislike speaking directly to the teacher, as also observed by Flowerdew (1998) in research in Hong Kong, there has been a marked trend among most students to more readily express themselves in group work with classmates. This form of interaction was clearly helpful in lowering anxiety in a content-based

class with a foreign lecturer. Of some note here was the contribution of the mixture of Japanese, Chinese and English used in class which has taken the emphasis away from the forbidding 'English only' focus as in EFL lessons or 'Japanese only' in other content-based lectures. In this sense, multi-lingual collaboration represents an "affective strategy" in learning (Oxford, 1990), one which admittedly was not intended as a new strategy, but as a practical means to enable students to converse with each other. In retrospect, this leads to the course being seen as "sheltered content-based" (Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 1989), one which has accommodated linguistic weaknesses among the students, yet has simultaneously yielded greater student input than a class limited to one language of communication.

Finally, for most students, according to the end of course questionnaire feedback, this specific sociolinguistics focus has been more motivating in comparison with general EFL courses at the college and has embraced more student input into the lesson than other content-based courses. It can argued that the collaborative approach has encouraged stronger students to provide "cognitive-related assistance" to weaker students (Mohamed, 1997, p.166), and has helped all towards a verbalization of knowledge in "collaborative dialogue" (Swain, 2000, p.97). This has led to a sustained high level of comprehension among most students for the duration of the course.

5. Conclusions

This paper has illustrated how multi-lingual collaboration in a sociolinguistics course has created an active atmosphere where the discussion and negotiation of content-based meaning, or "collaborative dialogue" (Swain, 2000, p.97) in "communities of learners" (Miller, 2002, p.149), have been evaluated as being motivating to the students. It is argued here that such interaction is necessary in the teaching of sociolinguistics, firstly, as the subject-matter in the syllabus is best enhanced by student experiences and perspectives, and secondly, since it raises and sustains the general level of comprehension for potentially challenging themes. The evaluative framework has also contributed to this motivation, since it is based on active participation in this process rather than accuracy alone. This methodologically hybrid approach to teaching and learning is argued, in this case, as being a direct influence from the language-sensitivity and group-work orientation in the EFL training and experiences of the instructor. Future courses must, however, take into consideration the academic culture shock of the demands on students of the interactive lecture which requires students to adopt a student-centred, collaborative learning mode.

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7. Appendices

Appendix 1   Lesson 4: Social Class and Regional Differences

Today we have studied about social class and regional differences in the world. Think about the following questions:

1. What is a prestigious way of speaking in the UK?
2. What is the regional dialect in Liverpool?
3. Give an example of a regional dialect in Japan?
4. What type of English do 15% of English people speak?
5. What is diglossia?
6. How does change happen in language?
7. When we change our way of speaking in another region, it is =
8. What countries are the "Inner Circle" of English?
9. What circle is Japan?
10. What are some "loan words" from English into Japanese? How about Portuguese?

Appendix 2   Lesson 1: Gender homework

In the lesson today we studied about gender differences, sexism and PC language. For today's homework, I want you to watch T.V.. While you are watching T.V., make a note of any program in which there is sexist language or a gender difference in language between men and women. Note the following:

Program name/type (drama, comedy etc)	
Channel, time/day	
What language was used which shows gender differences or sexism?	
Who was speaking (their age, job, dialect etc)?	

Article Title

Two Examples of CALL Use In The Classroom

Author

Paul Breen

Abstract:

This paper is intended to serve as a guideline for teachers in the use of CALL in the English Language classroom and was written in Dublin, when the author was teaching TOEFL exam classes to a group of predominantly Asian students and decided that the material needed to be more motivational and more closely related to students' own interests. The fol lowing outlines how I designed two pieces of courseware, used them in the classroom and evaluated their overall effectiveness.

Introduction

Garrett (2000), in a quote taken from the Joint Policy Statements of CALICO, EUROCALL and IALLT (1999), defines Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) as "a relatively new and rapidly evolving academic field that explores the role of information and communication technologies in language learning and teaching."

This straightforward definition serves as an introduction for her assertion that CALL has evolved into something that is "both inherently multidisciplinary and academically substantive" and has become intrinsically linked with the area of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and has influenced research in various other fields including cognitive science and psychology.

These views on the evolution of CALL and its close relationship to SLA have also been explored in the works of Warschauer (1996), Gonzalez (2003) and most notably Chapelle (1998).

Therefore, the main priority of this paper is to demonstrate that it is possible to achieve what Gonzalez described as "developing effective language teaching materials based on second language acquisition principles" (2003:86), by adopting the integrative CALL approach described by Warschauer (1996) and Moras (2003), with the ultimate aim of using these materials as a platform for research into the pedagogical benefits of CALL in the SLA environment.

In order to reach that stage of research and evaluation, I had to go through a process of

studying relevant CALL literature and using the acquired knowledge to create materials that were innovative, capable of realizing "the full potential of recent technological developments" (Murray:1999) and focused on the ultimate goal of analyzing the value of electronic materials in the field of Second Language Acquisition.

Two Samples Of Electronic Courseware

Before considering how to design samples of courseware for use in the classroom, I considered the assertion of Chapelle that "SLA theory and research might also be consulted to suggest CALL design and to guide research on effectiveness" (1998:22), with particular emphasis on her associated theories about the interdependence of the design process, based on relevant hypotheses about SLA, and the final evaluation of CALL learning activities, based on focused observation.

The first piece of self-designed electronic material that I designed as part of this investigation into the use of CALL was a PowerPoint presentation, intended for use in both a self access situation and a General English course, focusing specifically on the present perfect tense, with the aim of making the associated lesson as interactive and communicative as possible and thus providing "an evaluative perspective for developing tasks and evaluating performance" as referred to in Petrie (2004:9).

The next sample of material, chosen secondly as a result of initial unfamiliarity with the package and the demands of scripting objects, was developed in Asymetrix Toolbook and intended for use as a supplementary aid to TOEFL exam preparations, in order to allow learners to gain a better view of a small part of the curriculum, as supported by the theories of writers such as Phillips (1987).

Neither piece of material was intended as an example of professionalism in software design, but rather as a means of experimentation through which I could develop my skills as a teaching professional with greater consciousness and empirically backed awareness of how properly researched and considered use of CALL can substantially benefit the process of SLA. This is a point that many teachers should take on board as a confidence building measure in their attempts to integrate CALL into their lessons. Not even the most demanding students are expecting the perfection found in professional software design.

Conceptualization And Pre-design   Stage

(See also Appendix One)

The first objective of this small-scale project was to successfully integrate my growing awareness of CALL into the existing framework of my language teaching methodology so that I would have a solid foundation for subsequently evaluating the success or failure of my efforts at each stage in the process of development from the conceptualization of the project to the post-design integration of the software into classroom activities. Setting the foundations for sound pedagogical practice has been consistently referred to in SLA and CALL literature over the past three decades, for example in Hubbard (1996) and even as far back as Breen et al (1979) and Keith and Lafford (1989).

Essentially, the needs of the learners was the driving force in shaping the character of the task and creation of the electronic materials. This motivation is supported by the writings of Chapelle (1998) and Levy (1997:68-69) who explains how, over the course of a decade, there was a shift in focus "towards recognizing the real needs and perceptual abilities of computer users, and designing applications with those characteristics foremost in mind." These views are further echoed in an article by Moras (2001) who explains the difference in communicative CALL which uses the computer as stimulus for other activities and integrative CALL which places a greater emphasis on multimedia. Gonzalez (2003:86), in quoting from the earlier literature of Shanks & Cleary (1994) also refers to the shift in pedagogical methods from a traditional "teacher-centered" approach to a new method that is more versatile and "student-centered". Integrative CALL makes more demands on the student and, in my opinion, creates a more relaxed, diversified and motivational environment, in which to stimulate the twin processes of interaction and second language acquisition.

The Students

The students whose learning needs shaped the design of the two pieces of electronic courseware were adults, from a diverse range of nationalities and language backgrounds, particularly Brazilian, Chinese, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Polish, Slovakian, Spanish, Turkish and Yugoslavian. They were studying a combination of General English and exam classes, with a higher percentage of Asian students pursuing the latter option for reasons of needing a recognized qualification or evidence of second language capability sufficient for university entrance, hence the school's provision of TOEFL preparation courses.

Material   Shaped Around Learner Needs

Keeping in mind the assertions of Chapelle (1998) it was important to design activities around the needs of learners and particularly with TOEFL courses, due to the proficiency level required to take the exam, it was vital to combine stand alone materials with topics that would motivate

students. Initially I considered incorporating the theme of travel into "drill and revision exercises" suitable for computer-based instruction as referred to in the earlier literature of Ahmad et al (1985:5). Therefore I opted to use Asymetrix Toolbook which is based on a simple 'book' metaphor and allows both author and reader to work through a series of interlinked pages. This package is already widely used in the design of educational software but, in my case, it was entirely new and offered a fresher challenge than the creation of web based materials. Aside from this, the challenge of learning the programming language afforded me opportunities to explore new avenues of creative possibility and provided me with the added psychological benefit of being placed in a position very similar to that of the L2 students that I was teaching in Dublin.

In my opinion and that of students, when questioned about it in my primary research, TOEFL materials tend to be quite dull and the exercises are laborious, in the same way as getting familiarized with Toolbook, for example, might be deemed to be laborious for the first-time user who has not gained sufficient experience or summoned the courage to experiment with the diverse possibilities of the package and unleashed the potential to incorporate sophistication and interactivity into their design. Thus, I chose to expand on the travel theme and develop material that was rich in images, in the form and content of the written word, and photographic imagery on screen, with plenty of scope for communicative interaction, striving to create a layout that had characteristics more commonly associated with (in my opinion) the visually aesthetic nature of First Certificate Speaking Test materials than in the often generic and formulaic TOEFL textbooks.

In the case of the material for the General English course, I wanted to develop something that could be used equally well in either the classroom or in a self-access situation.

However, I am in complete agreement with Levy (1997:231) when he makes the point that; "even if CALL materials are designed to be stand alone, students are more likely to use them when encouraged by their teacher", a conviction further supported by empirical knowledge of striving to develop Computer and Video materials for Self-Access use.

Therefore, the lesson that I conceptualized for the General English course was best translated into the medium of PowerPoint because this is a powerful package that offers a solid professional appearance and is capable of utilizing a diverse range of media to enhance communicative interaction.

Giving Shape To My Theoretical Paradigms

In starting out on the design process with clear aims, namely to focus primarily on the needs of learners, to make the materials as interactive as possible and to assimilate a solid rationale into

everything that I did, it was important to remain true to the guiding principle of design with evaluation in mind, as referred to in Chapelle (1998) and Gonzalez (2003).

Earlier critics such as Phillips (1983), Last (1990) and Legenhausen and Wolff (1987) have doubted the wisdom and the credentials of teachers acting as computer programmers, particularly the latter who suggest that this can "inhibit the development of professional software" (170). However, I believe that by using an effective authoring system, a highly beneficial type of software can be developed by language teachers who have a clear focus in mind and have considered the needs of learners and, in the words of Chapelle, developed a framework for "empirical research intended to discover how successful the materials are for learners" (1998:22). This was why, in the design of an effective Toolbook and a PowerPoint presentation that would facilitate communication and interaction, my first considerations were the needs of the target audience. Most writers on the subject of interactive design; such as Howlett (1996:33), Evans (1997:240), Kristof and Satran (1996:16) and Adamson (2001) support the drive towards getting to know the target user at an early stage in the planning, so as to predict the audience and possible learning outcomes. (See Appendix 2.)

This is backed up by other writers such as Nunan (1988:42) and Graves (1996:12) who both highlight the importance of identifying the target learner's needs in order to design an appropriate course, although Adamson (2001) is a strong critic of the former and recommends instead that teachers do not focus dogmatically on the established ideas about needs analysis and instead gather information "from a wide variety of sources" and then use it "to determine specific goals for the class."

Therefore, in designing the material, I opted not just to take ideas from a student needs' analysis form, but also from contemporary (non-textbook) TOEFL materials, found on the Internet and sample CD ROMS, and other teaching professionals with experience of providing TOEFL or exam-based courses, with prolonged discussion about my view that SLA and motivation is mainly affected by what the student sees on the screen or in the textbook in front of them.

Having completed my research and considered the needs of the students, the next step was the type of information design described by Kristof and Satran (1997:7) as "clarifying your communication goals and arranging your ideas into a design that serves those goals." In the same work, they go on to suggest that the design of interactive materials involves considering informational content, interaction design and presentation design and point out how important navigation is through a piece of material that comprises various sections, such as in the example of the TOEFL Toolbook. Continuing on from this, they talk about the importance of "creating

interfaces that help people understand where they are, where they can go and how to get there." (1995:42) This quote is highly relevant in the context of the travel theme at the heart of my Toolbook and this emphasis on clear layout and design is reiterated by Oliver and Herrington (1995) who talk about the use of unnecessary elements in screen design, putting particular emphasis on the overuse of multiple colours and fonts.

In terms of SLA, it is generally accepted that students learn faster when they are motivated, as consistently referred to in the literature, and, in the words of Doughty and Long (2003) quoted in Petrie (2004), when the designer of material has taken into consideration sound principles of task-based learning, "which are based on cognitive and interactionist SLA theory."

Therefore, in choosing the content of the Toolbook and the PowerPoint, I opted for as wide a range of tasks as possible, with particular emphasis on form and meaning and strong visual stimulus. However, most of this visual stimulus was provided by the use of digital images, taken with my own digital camera so as to avoid any copyright issues and to ensure that the pictures actually fitted the needs of the courseware and were not added for purely aesthetic purposes.

I should add that it was a combination of constraints in time and resources rather than a lack of subject knowledge that influenced my decision not to utilize complex sound or video elements in either package even though it would have enhanced the interactivity of the project.

Progress Of The Actual Design Process

To start with, the design process was slow. PowerPoint was relatively easy to manage but in the beginning I used Toolbook "in a controlled and limited environment" as discussed by Motteram and Slaouti (2003:6) However, as I researched further information on the use of Toolbook, mainly via the Internet, I gained an enhanced understanding of how it worked, my confidence grew and creativity was added to my work, as predicted in (2003:6).

Essentially, my primary concentration was on learning about the language and the means of scripting objects, rather than producing something overly dynamic purely for the sake of it. I wanted to gain the maximum benefit from a limited set of tools at my disposal and produce something meaningful and geared towards the needs of my students rather than something that was impressive purely for the sake of impression.

The Testing And Analysis Stage.

Having finished the design process, with a far greater proportion of time spent on Toolbook, the real test of the material came at the stage of using it in the classroom for the first time, as part of

the regular curriculum, an idea supported in the literature of Vaughan (1994:441) who suggests that "aggressive critics" are the best judges of the quality of the material and strongly recommends having the material tested by target users. On a similar note, Chapelle (1998) refers to Breen (1997) who talks of the impact that learners themselves make in shaping the character of the task and, as such, the finished product has to be referred back to those same learners in order to analyze the strengths and weaknesses in the design process. I choose not to use the term successes and failures because, in my opinion, supported by the experience of other teaching professionals, there is something positive to be gained in the evaluation process which follows every attempt to create and use a piece of learning material.

Therefore, the designer's self-evaluation and the experience gained from observing learners as they complete the task is just as important as the ability of the material to actively engage students in the learning process. Chapelle (1998) details a list of research questions for "Empirical Evaluation of Multimedia CALL" and these include "learner's introspective accounts" of what they thought they had learned, a post-test constructed ahead of time, and by considering the learner's requests for modification. Taking one example of the latter suggestion, I decided to modify the means of providing answers to the PowerPoint For and Since exercise after students pointed out the weaknesses in my original design which relied too heavily on students switching back and forwards between pages.

In line with the theories of Chapelle, I finally decided that the best means of "outcome assessment" was to carefully observe the students as they were completing the tasks and then have a feedback session at the end of each lesson, although, by its very nature, it is easier to ask students what they have learned about the present perfect than to measure the correction of common errors made in the TOEFL exam. Yet, the criticism was interesting and, in line with Vaughan (1994), highly aggressive in terms of expectations. Amongst the most common criticisms were the fact that I had not included a tallying mechanism for the Toolbook grammar exercises, which is something that TOEFL students consider to be vital for purposes of self-assessment of their own abilities and the belief that in a General English class there can be such a difference of level that some people 'click' onto the form and meaning of the grammar almost immediately whilst others struggle and therefore slow the class down. In order for this type of lesson to work effectively, the teacher needs to control the pace of the lesson very carefully and have good class management skills.

In the main reaction was favourable although, on a professional design level there were structural errors, particularly in what Slaouti (2001:43-44) refers to as "housekeeping. In line with theories espoused in the work of authors such as Kristof and Satran (1995), Levy (1997) and

Laurillard (1993), I identified the main problems in my design and tried to adapt the material to become more user friendly, thus ending up with a package that looks more professional and is more motivational for the students, but which still needed some minor work on housekeeping.

Conclusion

To conclude I shall state that from my research, I can now make the empirically-supported assertion that CALL is indeed beneficial in the area of SLA and that proper application of Chapelle's (1998) theories about the interdependency of design and evaluation can contribute substantially to the ultimate success of CALL materials in the classroom and indeed, in the broader sense, any second-language teaching material.

Murray (1999) speaks about the need for experimentation with innovative learning structures and writers such as Levy (1997) and Chapelle (1997, 1998) have argued for a theory driven approach to the creation of electronic learning materials and these assertions have been backed up by my own experience of developing teaching materials in electronic form. Furthermore, in studying the literature, I have developed a greater awareness of the interdisciplinary nature of CALL, and have developed a stronger interest in the study and psychology of SLA.

On a practical level, having already completed a module that looked in depth at the use of the Internet as a marketing tool in the EFL industry, I have now worked at length with each of the three main sources of designing electronic learning materials and, although small errors were made along the way, especially in Toolbook, I feel that I am a more competent and informed professional as a result of the amalgamation of theory and practice in this project.

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APPENDIX ONE.

Evaluating Strengths and Weaknesses in Pre-Design Stage.

POWERPOINT.
Strengths. Presents text, pictures and sound in a clear manner. Easy to use. Cheap to produce materials. Works on the school's available hardware. Visually attractive. Can be used in conjunction with other paper based materials designed in Word. No specialist programming.
Weaknesses. Students might feel that PowerPoint is hardly at the cutting edge of CALL technology, though such notions are commonly refuted in the literature. Challenging enough for this level of study? Shelf life? Is it going to be beneficial to the school, the designer and the students in the long term?

TOOLBOOK.
Strengths. Toolbook has benefits in all the key areas of COST; FAMILIARITY/FACE VALIDITY; SHELF LIFE AND SUPPORT and FITNESS FOR PURPOSE. It's easy to programme once you get the basic grasp of Openscript language and this language allows the designer to become more sophisticated as they learn more about the language. Fits in with student needs and the broader curriculum and marketing concerns. Large network of web-based support.
Weaknesses. Even though it's more affordable than software such as WIDA, perhaps Toolbook doesn't have the same image as an easily authored network-suited programme.

> Language teachers cannot do the same job as computer
> programmers and you need a programmer to get the maximum
> benefit from a programme like Toolbook.
> Difficult to put Toolbook on the Internet and, in EFL
> management, there is currently greater emphasis on making
> materials available on the web.

APPENDIX TWO.

NEEDS ANALYSIS AND PROFILE OF LEARNERS.
(TOEFL COURSE)

Class Structure: Ten to fifteen students of mixed nationality but predominantly Asian, most of whom are high level and seeking to undertake university courses in a native speaking country.

Lesson Structure: Three hour lessons, with one half for TOEFL practice and the other half for communicative activities.

Student Needs: To practice TOEFL exercises to improve grammar but also to build cognition skills through communication.

Teacher Needs: Materials that can be incorporated into a set of communicative activities and containing exercises that can be adapted and re-authored on a regular basis.

(GENERAL ENGLISH COURSE.)

Class Structure: Changes on a regular basis, mostly adults from Europe, Asia and South America.

Lesson Structure: Three hours, with fifty per cent concentration on the assigned textbook and the rest left up to the teacher's discretion, according to student needs and demands.

Student Needs: Material that can be used as a communicative aid in class but can also be studied in a Self Access context.

Teacher Needs: Material that will facilitate communication.

Article Title

Taking the First Step - CLT Teacher Training in Gifu, Japan.

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Abstract

Despite widespread negativity regarding the appropriacy and applicability of the communicative approach to Asian classrooms, educational bodies in this region appear resolutely intent on pushing through with its introduction. As such, the majority of local language practitioners handed the task of implementing this directive are going to require training if they are to expand their teaching repertoire to incorporate this approach. This paper reports on a regional teacher training programme for Japanese teachers of English developed and delivered by the British Council in partnership with a local Board of Education designed to facilitate the integration of Communicative Language Teaching into high school classrooms. Context specific issues are highlighted, programme development in light of these constraints is outlined, participant feedback is presented and discussed, and preferred options for similar programmes are offered.

Introduction

In 2002, as part of the Japanese government's attempts to help prepare the nation for the rapid advances of globalisation, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) presented a strategic 5-year plan aimed at cultivating "Japanese with English Abilities" (MEXT, 2002). In harmony with this plan, a Course of Study for Foreign Languages (MEXT, 2003) has been developed which provides broad curriculum guidelines espousing the following key objective for junior high schools - "to develop students' basic practical communication abilities such as listening and speaking, deepening the understanding of language and culture, and fostering a positive attitude toward communication through foreign languages." Similarly, the major objective for senior high schools is "to develop students' practical communication abilities

such as understanding information and the speaker's or writer's intentions, and expressing their own ideas, deepening the understanding of language and culture, and fostering a positive attitude toward communication through foreign languages."

Responsibility for the planning and implementation of these MEXT programs in accordance with stated guidelines is left in the hands of prefectural Boards of Education (Kobayashi, 1993). Consequently, the Gifu Prefectural Board of Education (Gifu PBofE) was proactive in approaching the British Council to request the development and delivery of a short teacher training programme for Japanese teachers of English (JTE's) to assist the integration of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) into high schools in Gifu Prefecture.

CLT in context

The past 20 years have seen the communicative approach to language teaching become the dominant paradigm and established practice in classrooms in Western cultures. In broad terms, CLT focuses primarily on teaching the meaning, functionality and use of language in a learner-centred manner utilising 'real-life' tasks, situations and roles in order to develop learners' communicative proficiency in English, and this instructional system is becoming more and more universally conceptualised, by teachers and institutions alike, as equating to effective language teaching (Yoon, 2004).

Nevertheless, the communicative approach is not without its detractors. Swan (1985a) refers to it as a 'dogma' which over-generalises its application, exaggerates its effectiveness, misrepresents other approaches and methods, and lacks terminological clarity. In addition, he states that communicative syllabuses are typically simplistic, the overriding concern for authenticity is unwarranted, and he condemns the absence of mother-tongue use as an aid to learning (Swan, 1985b). Furthermore, the suitability of the communicative approach, a largely Western language teaching approach (Reed, 2002), to other cultures and its attempted introduction with little thoughtful concern for the particular teaching environment into which it is being applied has been strongly questioned (Ellis, 1996; Hu, 2005).

Irrespective of these criticisms, the progression towards CLT is certainly evident in Japan where educational institutions are looking to impose a communicative approach to language teaching on the current high school system in which learners typically leave school after studying English for 6 years with no communicative capability in the language (Ellis, 1997). However, the adoption of this teaching approach in Japan raises context specific concerns in relation to three key areas - teachers, learners, and administrators.

Teachers

JTE's are accustomed to a strong tradition of teaching and learning English where language is introduced in a teacher-fronted manner with little input from learners, analysed and explained in depth in Japanese through sentence-by-sentence grammar translation (Norris-Holt, 2002), and practiced orally utilising an audiolingual approach (Sakui, 2004). Therefore, they find it difficult to comprehend what CLT entails and how best to implement it in their classroom (Sakui, ibid.), and common misconceptions prevail such as CLT engenders difficulties with regard to classroom management and discipline in large classes (Gorsuch, 2001), it means not teaching grammar, and it is only related to teaching speaking and doing role-plays (Thompson, 1996).

Furthermore, JTE's often express consternation regarding the imposition of a communicative approach as they perceive it is not appropriate to their teaching environment (Holliday, 1994) - such as with the concept of the teacher-as-facilitator being the model for student/teacher relationships (Ellis, 1996); feel guilty about not being "up-to-date" and teaching in a communicative manner (Swan, 1985b); are comfortable with teaching English in accordance with the way they themselves were taught; and lack confidence in their English and/or practical teaching ability to introduce and persevere with a communicative approach in the classroom.

Moreover, previous attempts to teach English utilising a greater range of 'communicative activities' have met with limited success and heightened teachers concerns as to the appropriacy and likely success of a shift towards a communicative approach in Japan. One such attempt has been the introduction over 15 years ago of team-teaching with a native-speaker Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) which, it was hoped, would "ensure better and more frequent classroom interaction and lead to an improvement in the students' communicative competence" (Tajino & Walker, 1998:113). Unfortunately, despite the professed benefits of team-teaching such as the opportunity to develop intercultural understanding, problems exist with regard to this initiative and CLT at the practical level due to a number of factors. These include teachers having little training in how to team-teach with a native-speaker (Tajino & Tajino, 2000), making it difficult to effectively plan and exploit communicative activities as a team; and untrained and inexperienced ALT's (Crooks, 2001), who can provide little or no theoretical rationale nor practical insights for making classes more communicative.

Another scheme to promote communicative proficiency started in the early 1990's with the introduction of aural/oral communication lessons based on a series of dialogues presented in textbooks. However, these lessons do not form part of an integrated syllabus, and a typical oral communication lesson actually involves reading, analysis, drilling and repetition of the given dialogues with the majority of the class still conducted in Japanese. Also, the relatively low value

teachers place on these lessons is apparent in their use of these periods for extra grammar-oriented lessons rather than for designated oral communication activities (Juppé, 2000).

Learners

High school learners in Japan exist in a non-English speaking environment with very little opportunity to use English for communication. Little intrinsic or extrinsic motivation exists to actively participate in learning which focuses on developing communicative ability in a language that few learners perceive a need for. In addition, young learners may be unable or unwilling to allocate sufficient cognitive resources to actively communicating in another language as they are already struggling to deal with the complexities of their native language. Allied to this, communicative competence does not hold the same importance in Japan, as the focus for learners is on preparing themselves to meet the challenges of the rigid requirements of high-stakes university entrance exams which concentrate on testing lexical and grammatical knowledge rather than use of English (Law, 1995; Miller, 1998).

Administrators

While educational bodies in Japan are enthusiastic about promoting a shift in focus to developing learners' communicative proficiency, they have yet to provide any documented guidance for teachers nationwide on actually how to integrate CLT into their classrooms. As such, a clear void exists between policy rhetoric and classroom execution. In addition, the range of English study textbooks chosen by MEXT and from which high school administrators must select from have changed little in their exam-focused presentation of material, and their contents fail to clearly correlate with MEXT's Course of Study for Foreign Languages. Also, these textbooks constrict possible exposure to and use of English by typically containing copious amounts of supporting text in Japanese, and focusing on topics or concepts often alien to high school-aged learners. Moreover, the imposition of rigid schedules that dictate textbook coverage for each lesson (Sakui, 2004) does little to facilitate flexibility in the approach to and amount of English teaching and learning.

Programme development

In light of the issues outlined above, it was decided to not only use the course as a medium through which to clearly acknowledge the primacy of the particular context in which Gifu PBofE JTE's are operating, but also to encourage these JTE's to adopt a more eclectic vision of teaching and draw on a broader range of techniques to create greater opportunities and motivation for

learners to engage in communication in English. Such an approach seems eminently preferable in the given context, as it respects the value of both 'old' and 'new' approaches to teaching while encompassing local knowledge and classroom realities.

In addition, it was considered important to avoid giving participants the impression that the training was prescriptive in nature; that CLT was the most effective approach with regards to language teaching and learning and had to be utilised in every lesson; and that their existing teaching practices and experiences were being undervalued. Rather, it was hoped that through demonstration, reflection, and opportunities for practice with their own textbook material, participants would begin to become more aware of the possibilities of CLT within the contextual constraints identified.

As such, mini-lessons were developed within a framework of 'pre-', 'while-' and 'post-' stages to demonstrate less teacher-centred ways in which high school textbook reading and listening exercises could be exploited, with participants becoming 'students' during the demonstrations. This approach aimed to expose participants to a weak form of CLT where examples of communicative activities related to textbook materials are: topic/text-related pre-task interaction in pairs/groups; pair/group collaborative task completion; inter-pair/group feedback; and topic/text-related post-task interaction in pairs/groups.

Following each demonstration, an opportunity was provided for participants to reflect, and give and receive feedback on what they had just experienced with regard to the how and why of the teaching procedure. Such reflective practice is beneficial for teachers for a number of reasons including furthering self-awareness and knowledge through personal experience, gaining a clearer understanding of their own actions and the reactions they provoke in themselves and in learners, and developing a disciplined approach to utilising their current and past knowledge and experiences to generate new or revise existing techniques and concepts, and evaluate and test them in their given teaching context (Brookfield, 1995; Thiel, 1999).

Having experienced the mini-lesson, and reflected on the three stages and associated teaching procedures, participants are in a much more knowledgeable and confident position from which to then work in groups to prepare their own mini-lesson (with the support of the trainer) by applying procedures previously demonstrated to their chosen textbook material. Finally, a chance for participants to explain their mini-lesson to members from different groups was included to enable participants to share ideas as well as discuss their teaching context and previous experiences with peers. Importantly, participants would have a record of practical examples of ways in which to make their textbooks more communicative that they could use for referral on return to their workplace.

To cater for broader aspects of classroom teaching in accordance with the requirements of the Gifu PBofE, sessions were included in the course schedule to introduce and practice a range of activities related to introducing grammar using a variety approaches; controlled, semi-controlled and freer speaking practice; and implementing classroom procedures (e.g. setting up tasks, drilling, and error correction).

As such, the main objectives of this programme determined in conjunction with the Gifu PBofE were to: introduce the notion of CLT; demonstrate and practice approaches to making textbook activities more communicative; demonstrate and practice classroom activities and techniques; encourage reflective teaching practice; and enable participants to share ideas and experiences with their peers.

In line with these objectives, the following 4-day schedule was devised with morning sessions lasting 2.5 hours and afternoon sessions being 3 hours in duration:

	Sessions
Day 1	
10:00 – 12:30	Introducing CLT / Lesson planning
13:30 – 16:30	Lesson Planning / Developing reading skills
Day 2	
10:00 – 12:30	Ways of focusing on language
13:30 – 16:30	Speaking, drilling, and error correction
Day 3	
10:00 – 12:30	Teaching vocabulary
13:30 – 16:30	Developing listening skills
Day 4	
10:00 – 12:30	Developing writing skills
13:30 – 16:30	Adapting textbooks

Table 1: 2004 training course schedule

Programme implementation

The programme consisted of 11 training courses held in 11 training centres throughout Gifu Prefecture over a 4-week period in July/August 2004. Due to the large number of participants and time and budget restraints, all training courses were 4 days in length, with 5 ½ hours training each day.

Participants

273 JTE's from junior high schools and senior high schools throughout Gifu Prefecture attended the training course. Of the 273 teachers, 147 were Junior High School (JHS) teachers (64 female and 83 male), whose teaching experience ranged from 2 years to 22 years. The remaining 126 were Senior High School (SHS) teachers (67 female and 59 male), with from 6 years to 24 years of teaching experience. Between 20 and 29 teachers (typically half JHS and half SHS) attended each of the 11 courses.

Each training course was conducted in English by one of five highly qualified (Cambridge/RSA DELTA and TEFL Masters degree qualification) and experienced (minimum of 5 years teaching English including teaching of Japanese JHS and SHS classes) 'native speaker' teacher trainers from the British Council.

Programme Evaluation

Feedback to determine the degree of satisfaction with the British Council programme was gathered from the 273 participants utilising a post-course questionnaire administered at the end of the 4th day of each course. The questionnaire contained questions related to each session's contents and materials, and participants provided a rating by selecting from a five-point Likert-type scale. This type of feedback was selected to enable a large number of respondent's data to be collected and processed in a time-effective manner. In addition, if a participant selected 'Poor', 'Satisfactory' or 'Good' for any session, they were asked to provide written comments as to why they had made that selection. These comments were collated to identify common areas for possible programme revision. Furthermore, participants were given the opportunity to write general comments regarding the training in order to discover any broader aspects of note.

Six months after attending the training programme participants were also required by the Gifu PBofE to submit a written report regarding its contents and how they have modified their approach to teaching accordingly, prepare and deliver an observed demonstration lesson incorporating practical teaching skills covered during the training, take a TOEIC test to assess any language improvement, and present a training plan detailing personal teaching aims for the future (the Gifu PBofE has resolved to keep these components of performance evaluation confidential and they are unavailable for inclusion in this article).

Feedback Results

Contents

	% Poor	% Satisfactory	% Good	% Very good	% Excellent
Day 1					
Introducing CLT	0.4	2.9	9.8	64.4	22.5
Lesson planning	0.4	3.7	11.9	66.7	17.3
Developing reading skills	0.4	1.7	6.5	57.0	34.4
Day 2					
Ways of focusing on language	0.0	2.4	5.8	58.3	33.5
Speaking, drilling, and error correction	0.0	0.3	10.2	46.1	42.4
Day 3					
Teaching vocabulary	0.0	0.3	8.1	50.8	39.8
Developing listening skills	0.0	0.4	6.6	48.4	44.6
Day 4					
Developing writing skills	0.0	3.6	8.4	43.6	44.4
Adapting textbooks	0.0	4.6	12.0	61.4	22.0

Table 2: Responses (in %) to Question 1-How do you rate the content of each session?

Written comments collated regarding the contents of the training indicated that a number of participants had difficulty making a link between the contents of the training sessions and their own particular teaching situation, struggled to comprehend the techniques introduced over the four days, and wanted more time to be spent on each session to consolidate understanding.

Materials

	% Poor	% Satisfactory	% Good	% Very good	% Excellent
Day 1					
Introducing CLT	0.0	1.4	6.1	68.4	24.1
Lesson planning	0.0	2.5	7.2	75.0	15.3
Developing reading skills	0.0	1.2	6.5	59.1	33.2
Day 2					
Ways of focusing on language	0.0	0.8	5.2	63.8	30.2
Speaking, drilling, and error correction	0.0	1.4	5.8	55.2	37.6
Day 3					
Teaching vocabulary	0.0	1.5	5.2	53.9	39.4
Developing listening skills	0.0	1.8	4.5	54.5	39.2
Day 4					
Developing writing skills	0.0	0.9	4.0	51.4	43.7
Adapting textbooks (no handout)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

Table 3: Responses (in %) to Question 2-How do you rate the materials for each session?

With respect to training materials utilised, written comments highlighted that some participants wanted a greater number of examples of classroom activities in the handouts, and felt that the handouts were rather basic and did not contain enough useful detail.

General written feedback

Written comments regarding broader aspects of the training reflected participants:

1. rediscovered or enhanced enthusiasm for teaching

"I was highly motivated through the 4-day course. More communicative language teaching is important and effective, I think."

"Thank you for the four days. At first I was very nervous and unwillingly joined this course. But I learned many things from the teachers and had many chances to use English, so I enjoyed it. I'm going to try to improve my lessons as hard as I can."

"I was reluctant to attend the course, but teaching areas are new and helpful to me. Most of the methods I will adopt and use."

2. motivation to experiment with new ideas and activities in their classrooms

"My English lessons are not communicative. The grammar and translation method makes my students tired and bored, so I'd like to try to make my lessons more attractive. It might be difficult, but I'd like to as much as possible."

"I've wanted to teach English to my students in all English, but I couldn't do it. After this course, I feel I will be able to. Now I think I'll try."

"This course was very impressive. I can have confidence in changing my way of rather traditional teaching. There are so many suggestions and much advice worth trying."

3. satisfaction with the training course contents and approach

"When we were university students we only studied about theory of education. We didn't have any practical training, so this training was very useful for me."

"I got a lot of hints to make my class more communicative and to make my daily classes better and more effective."

"Learning through activities was very effective and interesting for us teachers during four days of teacher training."

4. concern for improving their English ability

"This course is a very good opportunity to brush up our English."

"After the seminars I had joined before, I thought I had to study English more. But after this course, I feel I want to study English more."

"I enjoyed this course like a student. Nowadays, I have tended to lose my interest toward English. Joining this course I feel like studying English much more. Good motivation."

Furthermore, other written comments indicated participants' general desire for English language training; discrete courses for JHS or SHS teachers; and sessions focusing on classroom English, motivating learners, and team-teaching.

Discussion

Feedback gathered highlights that the response of participants to this short training programme has been positive in terms of individual session content and materials. At least 80% of participants rated the content of each session as either 'Very good' or 'Excellent'. For those who rated the course lower than this, written comments show they had difficulty grasping concepts and relating aspects of the training to their particular classrooms and learners. One reason for this may be that as some of the JHS teachers had only limited teaching experience, they had not yet fully come to terms with those aspects of language teaching that are the norm in their high schools. Another reason could have been because the style of teacher training was not what they had experienced before as, typically, teacher training for JTE's is achieved through lecture-based courses. As a result, reflecting on procedures and techniques in activities in which they were in the role of 'students' and linking new practices to their own classrooms situation might have been beyond several of the participants.

With respect to each session's materials, 'Very good' or 'Excellent' was chosen by over 90% of participants. Lower ratings were accompanied by written comments expressing a desire for handouts to include a greater number of examples of classroom activities. This feedback could have again been from less experienced JHS teachers, or were just general requests from several participants. Other comments mentioned the material needed to be more challenging. This was probably because a few teachers were familiar with parts of the training as a result of personal study and/or classroom experimentation.

Of course, while the feedback is very useful as input for revising content and materials for future training, it is important not to read too much into responses as a measure of the success of the training programme as it does not reflect to what extent it actually encouraged participants to begin to modify their existing beliefs and values, and assume a more eclectic vision of teaching

on return to their classrooms. Despite this limitation, what the feedback does seem to support is the development and delivery of training that questions the universal application of the communicative approach and instead embraces a paradigm shift towards a context-based approach as propounded by Jarvis and Atsilarat (2004). That is, when contextual factors (in this case those related to teachers, learners, and administrators) are understood, openly acknowledged, and given primacy over a theoretical model and instructional system, then the reaction of participants to this kind of training programme is enthusiastic and affirmative.

Moreover, it is particularly important that the notion of a paradigm shift is embraced by expatriate teacher trainers who are developing and conducting the training, as they are likely to have gained teaching qualifications and experience in a different culture and environment, may have contradictory philosophies regarding the nature of effective teaching and learning, and usually have comparably limited experience of language teaching in the given local context.

This raises the matter of whether this type of training programme should indeed be developed and delivered exclusively by expatriate teacher trainers. On reflection, a preferred option may be to have both 'senior' JTE's who are still actively teaching and receptive to 'new' perspectives and expatriate teacher trainers work together in equal partnership to develop and deliver such training. In this way, instead of having expatriate teacher trainers rely on their perhaps limited knowledge of the local context to develop a training programme at the behest of high school administrators, direct access to local and up-to-date knowledge of the teaching context is available and is granted priority, and the experiential knowledge of CLT of expatriate teacher trainers is selected, adapted, modified, or rejected to fit that context. This partnership could overcome any sense of dissatisfaction regarding contents and materials mentioned in written feedback for this training programme, give greater kudos to the training, and would circumvent the possible interpretation of training programmes determined by high school administrators and 'outside agents' as unrealistic and irrelevant. An additional benefit of this concept may be that 'senior' JTE's could offer on-going, localised training and support over an extended period to junior colleagues and, indeed, simultaneously to ALT's, thereby building stronger teaching relationships through shared knowledge and understanding which in turn could promote more effective team-teaching.

Other issues arising in relation to the development and delivery of this training programme are also worthy of mention. Firstly, JHS and SHS JTE's at schools near one of the training centres were accordingly grouped together. Although the programme was designed to cover areas common to both environments, it would be preferable (should time and budgets be available) to have separate training programmes for JHS JTE's and SHS JTE's. Aspects of CLT

general to both groups could still be dealt with, but also JHS specific and SHS specific elements could also be catered for.

Secondly, while this training programme indirectly offers participants a limited opportunity to advance their English language ability by being conducted completely in English, written feedback from participants indicates that it may be preferable to at first provide JTE's with a discrete language improvement programme. This suggestion is based on recognition of three factors that are fuelling JTE's desire for maximising their English language proficiency. These factors are: to enhance their self-esteem and professional status; the move towards a teaching approach which accentuates the use of English in the classroom; and the establishment by MEXT of TOEIC targets for JTE's. A CLT methodology course only caters for elements of the second of these three factors and is therefore highly likely to be considered of secondary importance by JTE's. As a consequence, they may channel their enthusiasm, motivation, and self-development in another direction, thereby hindering attempts to integrate CLT.

Furthermore, it is likely that more informed and context-sensitive CLT training could be delivered by determining teachers' beliefs prior to implementing this kind of training programme. A cost-effective and administratively efficient option for collecting this kind of baseline information where large numbers of participants are involved is the use of attitude scales (Karavas-Doukas, 1996). Supported by interviews enabling elaboration on responses, attitude scales could provide data regarding those aspects of CLT in which they will require more extensive guidance, input and explication. It would also be of value to administer this kind of scale post-training and examine to what extent the training led to participants' modifying their attitudes and beliefs.

Conclusion

To address the MEXT strategy aimed at improving the communicative competence of Japanese high school learners of English, the Gifu PBofE and the British Council have instigated a training programme designed to facilitate the integration of CLT into existing English language courses. Recognising potent contextual constraints that exist with regard to teaching and learning traditions and administrative aspects, the training programme incorporates an approach which extols primacy of context and a weak form of CLT, and aims to encourage reflective practice and promote a more eclectic view of language teaching.

While feedback indicates that participants have responded positively to this training programme, higher priority may need to be given in future to initially providing language improvement training and, subsequently, separate JHS and SHS CLT methodology courses

developed and delivered through local and expatriate teacher trainers in collaboration. Nevertheless, it is apparent at this early stage that Gifu JTE's who attended the training are now more optimistic about taking the first steps towards making their classrooms more communicative.

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Title
Benefits of Using Short Stories in the EFL Context

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Abstract

The purpose of this article is to familiarize EFL instructors with the effectiveness of using literature in language instruction. While some instructors may still believe that teaching EFL encompasses focusing on linguistic benefits only, so eventually their students will communicate in the target language, others who have integrated literature in the curricula have realized that literature adds a new dimension to the teaching of EFL. Short stories, for example, help students to learn the four skills—listening, speaking, reading and writing-- more effectively because of the motivational benefit embedded in the stories. In addition, with short stories, instructors can teach literary, cultural, and higher-order thinking aspects. However, before novice instructors attempt to use short stories in their EFL classes, they should understand the benefits of short stories and plan classes that meet the needs of their students.

Introduction

The use of literature to teach second/foreign languages can be traced back to over one century ago. In the nineteenth century, second/foreign languages were taught with the help of the Grammar Translation Method. Students would translate literary texts from the second/foreign language to their native language. When this method was replaced by methods that emphasized structures and vocabulary, literature was no longer used. Thus, neither the Direct Method nor the Audiolingual Method utilized literature to teach second/foreign languages. In the seventies, methods such as the Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia, the Silent Way, Total Physical Response, and the Natural Approach did not utilize literature to teach second/foreign languages, and neither did the Notional-Functional Syllabus.

For the past two decades or so, literature has found its way back into the teaching of EFL; however, not the way it was used with the Grammar Translation method. Instructors have realized

that literature can be used to reinforce the skills and complement language teaching. Scher (1976) affirms that with students at the beginning and intermediate levels, instructors can use literary texts for "language practice, reading comprehension, and possible aesthetic appreciation" (Muyskens, 1983, p. 413). In contrast, with advanced students literary texts may be utilized for the "development of knowledge of world literature, practice in reading and discussing creative work, and the introduction of literary concepts, genres, and terminologies—e g, recognition of figures of speech, levels of meaning, and other stylistic features" (p. 413). Moreover, students can gain insight into literature by gaining entrance to a world familiar or unfamiliar to them due to the cultural aspects of stories, and taking a voyage from the literary text to their own minds to find meanings for ideas, leading to critical thinking.

Benefits of short stories

Researchers who advocate the use of short stories to teach ESL/EFL list several benefits of short stories. These include motivational, literary, cultural and higher-order thinking benefits. Nevertheless, before instructors look at these benefits in more details, they need to be reminded of one benefit that all instructors should take advantage of, reinforcement of skills.

Reinforcing the skills

Short stories allow instructors to teach the four skills to all levels of language proficiency. Murdoch (2002) indicates that "short stories can, if selected and exploited appropriately, provide quality text content which will greatly enhance ELT courses for learners at intermediate levels of proficiency" (p. 9). He explains why stories should be used to reinforce ELT by discussing activities instructors can create such as writing and acting out dialogues.

Also, Oster (1989) affirms that literature helps students to write more creatively (p. 85). Instructors can create a variety of writing activities to help students to develop their writing skills. They can ask students to write dialogues (Murdoch, 2002, p. 9) or more complex writing activities if students have reached a high level of language proficiency. For example, if instructors bring to class "The Wisdom of Solomon," they can assign the following writing activities:

a. Write a dialogue between King Solomon and the guard holding the sword after the mother and the son, and the other woman left the palace.
b. Paraphrase the first four sentences of the paragraph, "And in this way they argued . . . whose child it was" (fourth paragraph from the bottom).

c. Summarize the story in three sentences, including the main character, setting, conflict, climax, and resolution.

d. Write one sentence on the theme of the story.

e. Write a paragraph on what causes people to lie.

f. Write a classification essay on different kinds of lies.

Activities a and b are suitable for beginning levels; activities c, d, for intermediate levels; and activity f, for advanced levels.

In addition, stories can be used to improve students' vocabulary and reading. Lao and Krashen (2000) present the results of a comparison between a group of students that read literary texts and a second group that read non-literary texts at a university in Hong Kong. The group who read literary texts showed improvement in vocabulary and reading. Three activities can be added to "The Wisdom of Solomon," to help students to acquire more vocabulary. These activities are related to form, meaning and use respectively.

a. Complete the word form chart below. The first word has been done for you. Remember that some words do not have all forms.

Participle	Adjective	Noun	Verb	Adverb
speaking	speakable	speaker	speak	---------
---------	---------	---------	die	---------

There can be as many words as the instructor thinks necessary but not too many so as not to make students lose interest in the activity that should be included in every story. This activity helps students to learn more vocabulary, and it also teaches them how to use a dictionary.

b. Write the letter of the definition/synonym in column B that most closely matches each word/phrase in column A.

In this activity, the words/phrases in column A come from the story students are reading. The definitions and/or synonyms provided in column B must match the meaning of the words/phrases in the context of the story to help students to understand how a different word/phrase can be used in the same context.

c. Choose the word/phrase that best fits each sentence, drawing upon the list under column A in the previous activity. You may need to add -s to a plural word or to a third person singular of a verb in the present tense, -ed to the past tense of regular verbs, etc.

In activity c, students practice using the words that they already understand the meanings of.

Since "The Wisdom of Solomon" does not include a list of unknown words/phrases in bold and the words/phrases do not have explanation and/or synonyms on the footnote, instructors should add both. As a student taught by this author and instructor has said: "The list of words helps us go on reading without stopping for too long to look them up in a dictionary or thesaurus."

As far as reading comprehension is concerned, the new vocabulary will help students with comprehension; however, it does not guarantee that students will understand the story. The activities included in section 3, Introducing literary elements, will reinforce reading comprehension.

High-intermediate and advanced students also profit from literary texts. What they read gives them the opportunity to come up with their own insights, helping them to speak the language in a more imaginative way. They become more creative since they are faced with their own point of view, that/those of the main character(s) of the story and those of their peers, according to Oster (1989, p. 85). This thoughtful process leads to critical thinking. As Oster confirms, "Focusing on point of view in literature enlarges students' vision and fosters critical thinking by dramatizing the various ways a situation can be seen" (p. 85). Therefore, when students read, they interact with the text. By interacting with the text, they interpret what they read. By interpreting what they read, they can work toward speaking English more creatively. Activities on higher-order thinking are found in section 5, Teaching higher-order thinking.

In reference to listening, instructors can do the following:
    a. Read the story out loud so students have the opportunity to listen to a native speaker of English (if at all possible); or
    b. Play the story if a recording is available.

The activity is done for fun or for students to find answers to questions given and explained to them prior to the listening activity. For students to understand the story when they listen to it for the first time, the questions can be based on literary structures.
    a. Who is the main character of "The Wisdom of Solomon"?
    b. Where/when does the story take place?
    c. What is the problem (conflict) in the story?

Motivating students

Since short stories usually have a beginning, middle and an end, they encourage students at all levels of language proficiency to continue reading them until the end to find out how the conflict is resolved. Elliott (1990), for example, affirms that literature motivates advanced students and is "motivationally effective if students can genuinely engage with its thoughts and emotions and appreciate its aesthetic qualities" (p. 197). He stresses the importance of developing student–response (individual and group levels) and competence in literature. In addition, one of the reasons Vandrick (1997) lists for using literature with students is that literature motivates students "to explore their feelings through experiencing those of others" (p. 1). In addition, according to the Internet article (author not named) "Using Literature in Teaching English as a Foreign / Second Language" (2004), "Literature is motivating. . . . Literature holds high status in many cultures and countries. For this reason, students can feel a real sense of achievement at understanding a piece of highly respected literature. Also, literature is often more interesting than the texts found in coursebooks." As a result, instructors should agree that literary texts encourage students to read, and most literary texts chosen according to students' language proficiency levels and preferences will certainly be motivating.

By selecting stories appropriate to students' level of language proficiency, instructors avoid "frustrational reading" (Schulz, 1981, p. 44). To choose stories according to students' preferences, stories should have various themes because, as Akyel and Yalçin (1990) point out, variety of themes will offer different things to many individuals' interests and tastes (p. 178). But the themes should be "consistent with the traditions that the learners are familiar with" (Widdowson, 1983, p. 32) to avoid conflicts.

Introducing literary elements

Instructors can introduce literary elements with short stories. With beginning and low intermediate levels, instructors can teach simple elements, such as character, setting and plot. The same and more complex elements, such as conflict, climax, resolution, etc., can be introduced with more advanced levels. Gajdusek (1988) explains how literature can be introduced by describing the order of activities: pre-reading activities, factual in-class work, analysis and extending activities. In the pre-reading activities, students have the opportunity to learn about the background of the story and vocabulary (p. 233). Instructors can start by asking students questions before they are introduced to "The Wisdom of Solomon":

    a.   What is justice?

    b.   How can people behave in a fair way?

c.   Have you ever been treated unjustly? When? Why?

In factual in-class work, students should be introduced to who, what, where and when of the story, or point of view, character, setting and action (pp. 238-239). If "The Wisdom of Solomon" is the first story that students will read, instructors can add questions to the left margin of the story. Each question should be placed next to the paragraph in which the answer is found so students can begin to understand with the help of the instructor what each literary structure means. The questions can be the ones below:

a.   Who is the main character of the story?

b.   Where does the story take place?

c.   When does the story happen?

d.   Who is narrating the story?

Here is an example of the way each question could be placed on the left margin of the story.

"The Wisdom of Solomon"

1. Who is   As the two women came to King Solomon to plead their case, one of the
main   them spoke first. "I plead with you, Sire, to hear what I have to say!"
character?   "Speak!'" said the King. "What is your problem?"

The questions on the left margin introduce students to character, setting, and point of view. Both pre-reading activities and factual in-class work analysis can be assigned to beginning and low intermediate students since they require very little analysis.

Extending activities, on the other hand, deals with why, that is, "involvement and experience" (p. 245). Students must be able to use their knowledge of the language to express their ideas. Thus, only students who have reached a high intermediate/advanced level of language proficiency should be introduced to these activities. "This might . . . be the time to approach the text as literature," says Gajdusek (p. 245). About extending activities (writing and in-class group work such as role-play), Gajdusek states that the activities ask "for creative, relevant responses from the readers" (p. 251). For students to succeed, they must have understood the story.

An extending activity that can get students more involved in the story is role-play. Instructors can ask students to play the role of several characters.

a. Imagine you are the guard who is told by King Solomon to cut the child in half. If you don't think you can do what the King has asked you to do, tell him how you feel. Make sure you are convincing.

b. Suppose you are the guard who is told by King Solomon to cut the child in half. After cutting the child in half, tell him how you feel about his decision. Make sure you are convincing.

Teaching culture

Short stories are effective when teaching culture to EFL students. Short stories transmit the culture of the people about whom the stories were written. By learning about the culture, students learn about the past and present, and about people's customs and traditions. Culture teaches students to understand and respect people's differences. When using literary texts, instructors must be aware that the culture of the people (if different from that of the students) for whom the text was written should be studied. As students face a new culture, they become more aware of their own culture. They start comparing their culture to the other culture to see whether they find similarities and/or differences between the two cultures. Misinterpretation may occur due to differences between the two cultures as Gajdusek (1998, p. 232) explains. To avoid misinterpretation, instructors should introduce the culture to the students or ask them to find relevant information about it.

Before reading/listening to the story "The Wisdom of Solomon," students should read some information about King Solomon. The paragraph below tells students who King Solomon was and how he became the wisest leader in the world. If students have access to the Internet, instructors can ask them to read information about the King from http://www.geocities.com/thekingsofisrael/biography_Solomon.html before they read/listen to the story.

Solomon became king of Israel after the death of his father, David. The Old Testament account of his life tells of how he had a special dream early in his reign. In his dream God told him that he could ask for anything he desired. Solomon answered that he wanted nothing more than to have an understanding heart in order to rule wisely over his people. According to the account, God then praised Solomon for asking for wisdom rather than riches and honor. The Old Testament writer says that Solomon subsequently became the wisest leader in all the world. Many came to seek his advice, even leaders of other countries. The most famous story of the wisdom of Solomon, however, is the one in which he settles a dispute between two women about questions of motherhood. (Janssen, 1981, p. 123)

Teaching higher-order thinking

Of all the benefits of short stories, higher-order thinking is the most exciting one. High intermediate/advanced students can analyze what they read; therefore, they start thinking critically when they read stories. Young (1996) discusses the use of children's stories to introduce critical thinking to college students. He believes that "stories have two crucial advantages over traditional content: . . . [First,] because they are entertaining, students' pervasive apprehension is reduced, and they learn from the beginning that critical thinking is natural, familiar, and sometimes even fun. Second, the stories put issues of critical thinking in an easily remembered context" (p. 90). Howie (1993) agrees with the use of short stories to teach critical thinking. He points out that instructors have the responsibility to help students to develop cognitive skills because everyone needs to "make judgements, be decisive, come to conclusions, synthesize information, organize, evaluate, predict, and apply knowledge." By reading and writing, students develop their critical thinking skills (p. 24).

Introduced by Bloom et al. in 1956, thinking skills, called Bloom's Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain, include both lower-order and higher-order thinking. Depending on students' level of proficiency, instructors can activate students' lower-order or higher-order thinking. Beginners are able to recall information and respond to questions about dates, events and places. Thus, when asked questions about names of characters, setting and plot of the story, they will have no difficulties responding to the questions. This is level 1 of the taxonomy—knowledge. As students become more proficient in the language, they can move to level 2—comprehension. In this level, they must demonstrate their comprehension by comparing, interpreting, giving descriptions and stating main ideas. When students become even more proficient, they move to level 3—application. In level 3, students try to solve problems by using the knowledge they have about the story. In level 4—analysis—students must have reached the high intermediate level of proficiency to succeed. The reason is that students must analyze, compare, contrast, explain, infer, etc. facts/ideas about the story. Upon reaching the advanced level of proficiency, students can synthesize and evaluate what they read, the last two levels of the taxonomy (synthesis and evaluation). Instructors can then ask questions such as "How would you change the plot?" "What would happen if . . .?" "What changes would you make to solve . . .?" "Do you agree with the actions . . .? with the

outcomes . . .?" "Why did they (the character) [sic] choose . . .?" "What choice would you have made . . .?" (Bloom's critical thinking questioning strategies).

Questions added to each story should train the students to think critically. Some of the questions are exemplified below:

1. In the story, "The Wisdom of Solomon," would it have made any difference if the real mother of the baby who was about to be cut in half, had stayed quiet instead of pleading to King Solomon not to cut him and give him to the other woman?

2. What would have happened if King Solomon had not heard the real mother of the baby and cut the baby in half, giving half to the real mother and half to the other woman who claimed to be the real mother?

Questions 1 and 2 require students to think of a different end to the same story and probably see both the real mother of the baby and King Solomon in different ways from how they were portrayed in the original story.

3. Do you agree with the way King Solomon acted? Do you agree with the way the real mother acted?

4. Do you agree with the resolution of the story?

Questions 3 and 4 require students to make judgement.

Different stories may elicit different questions. The questions will depend on the plot, characters, conflict, climax, complications, and resolution of each story. The more questions requiring higher order-thinking students answer, the better prepared they will be to face the world once they graduate.

Conclusion

Since the goal of EFL teaching must be to help students to communicate fluently in the target language, instructors should focus not only on linguistic benefits, but also on other benefits.   In addition to the four skills, short stories help instructors to teach literary, cultural and higher-order thinking aspects. As far as culture and other benefits are concerned, Henning (1993) believes that culture should be integrated into the curriculum and "literature is one feature   . . . in the cultural domain that provides . . . added value beyond the level of language acquisition." Literature helps students to expand their "linguistic and cognitive skills, cultural knowledge and sensitivity" (quoted in Shanahan, 1997, p. 165).   Consequently, one can say that integrating short stories into the curriculum will help EFL students to become well-rounded professionals and human beings since short stories teach more than the skills necessary for survival in the target language. Short stories teach literary, cultural and higher-order thinking benefits.

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Note

A different version of this paper with a different title was presented at the 37th International IATEFL Annual Conference in Brighton, UK, from April 22nd to 23rd, 2003. A summary of the paper was published in *IATEFL 2003 Brighton Conference Selections.*

Appendix

"The Wisdom of Solomon"

As the two women came to King Solomon to plead their case, one of them spoke first. "I plead with you, Sire, to hear what I have to say!"

"Speak!'" said the King. "What is your problem?"

She pointed to another woman who was standing near her with a tiny baby in her arms. "Sire, this woman and I live in the same house. About two weeks ago I gave birth to a son. She helped me. She and I were the only ones there." As she spoke, tears came to her eyes.

"Go on, my daughter," said the King.

"Three days later, my lord, this woman also had a baby. And it, too, was a son. I helped her give birth. There were still only two of us in the house." Tears streamed from her eyes as she continued.

"A few days later, her baby died in the night because she accidentally lay on it as she slept. And then she took my son from my bed while I was sleeping and put her dead child beside me." She continued to weep as she spoke. "When I got up in the morning to nurse my son, I found that it was dead; but when I examined it, I discovered that it was not my child."

"That's not the way it was!" the other woman interrupted. "That's not the way it was at all! She's just making up an emotional story for you, Sire, and she has produced some tears to go with it! This is my son; the dead child is hers!"

"You're lying!" said the first woman. "And you know it! The living son is mine and the other is hers!"

"Oh no it isn't!" said the other woman, as she held the child close to her. "It's the other way around! This is my son!"

And in this way they argued back and forth in front of the King. Solomon had listened and observed carefully and it seemed as though he had made up his mind. However, he asked the woman to lay the child down in front of him. He looked intently at the child and then at each of

the women as thought he were trying to determine by appearance whose child it was. Then, to the great surprise of all who heard, King Solomon said, "Bring me a sword." One of his guards came with a sword in his hands. "Divide the child in two parts!" he said coldly. "Give half to one and half to the other!"

As the guard raised the sword to obey the King, the first woman cried out, "Don't kill the child, my lord! Please don't do it! Let him live and give him to her."

The other woman, however, thought Solomon's idea was a good one. "Cut it in two!" she shouted. "Then neither one of us will have it!"

Then the King raised his hand and spoke. "Don't kill the child! Give it to the first woman!" he commanded, pointing to her. "She is the mother!"

Title
On the Effects of Economization and Disambiguation in the Production
of EFL Learners.

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ABSTRACT

This study explored the effect of "Economization and Disambiguation" paradigms on English language production in order to seek psychological validity for the cognitive accounts of language processing involving Iranian learners of English. The participants consisted of 41 junior students of English Translation at Shiraz Azad University. Two groups of structures served as a recall task in the form of 20 pairs of sentences with each of two clauses designed in the reverse order. One group had the pronoun *he* at the beginning of the subordinate clause and the other *you*.

Upon exposure to these pairs, participants were instructed on how to combine the two clauses using the complementizer *that* when deemed necessary and report the result to an interlocutor.

Analysis of the results revealed that those pairs of sentences having the pronoun *he* took fewer *thats* than those having *you*. Results of a series of t-tests showed significant difference between the reconstruction of sentences in the two groups. The paradigms of disambiguation and economization came to surface through the above-mentioned task.

The said paradigms proved themselves as useful strategies resorted to in foreign language production.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1-0. Preliminaries

The inclusion or omission of certain optional words by speakers has provided the forum for the juxtaposition of two distinct views in psycholinguistics, namely: i-economization and ii-disambiguation.

To clarify the point, let us consider the following structure:

1. The teacher knew (that) you had missed classes.

The common view shared by many psycholinguists including (Ferreira & Dell, 2000), and in line with common sense, is that the speaker may omit the optional complementizer *that* so that the utterance is spoken with minimal effort (i.e. economization of the number of words produced).

In those instances, however, when the speaker opts not to omit an optional constituent, it is generally assumed that an attempt is made on the part of the speaker to facilitate comprehension of the utterance by the listener (i.e. disambiguation). This view is of course perpetuated when the structure is partially ambiguous and as a result difficult to understand.

1-1. Definition of Key Concepts:

In this part the definition of some of the key concepts used during this study will be provided by the researcher.

1-1-1. Disambiguation:

As it was mentioned before one important paradigm in the speaker's utterance in order to facilitate comprehension of the listener is "disambiguation". This case arises when an ambiguous structure evokes different meanings to different people. Disambiguation sometimes refers to other concepts. Richards, Platt and Platt (1992: 110) defined disambiguation as: "the use of linguistic analysis to show the different structures of an ambiguous sentence."

Linguistic analysis is just one of the ways to clarify what an ambiguous sentence means. In any event, the speaker can have the same analysis in mind spontaneously and try to utter a sentence which is maximally comprehensible.

Disambiguation may have several manifestations, one of which is to use certain optional words like *that* in between two clauses of a complex sentence. At times, adding more words to an utterance may further disambiguate the sentence.

1-1-2. Economization:

Another significant element on the part of the speaker in order to save time and apply minimal effort to the utterance is "economization". Mousavi (1999: 110) in his *Dictionary of Language Testing* defined "economy" as:

> *Economy (i.e. cost) refers to the possibility of obtaining a relatively large amount of information in a short period of time and without an inordinate amount of energy expended by the instructor and students.*

However through the present study a nonacademic sense is considered, so a great amount of authenticity is taken care of in this regard. In real life situations speakers try to save time and energy by economization of the number of words produced; nevertheless, a maximally comprehensible utterance is also required.

1-1-3. Authenticity:

Utterances produced by English speakers in real life situations are highly "authentic", since the two paradigms of disambiguation and economization are only applied to one's speech within meaningful and highly authentic settings. Richard, Platt and Platt (1992: 27) defined *authenticity* as: "the degree to which language teaching materials have the qualities of natural speech or writing."

According to the above definition an utterance, even in nonacademic settings, may be authentic if it contains qualities of natural speech. This researcher tried to gather data in authentic-like situations. This was done by having *interlocutors* take part in data collection.

1-2. Conceptual Framework

In uttering a linguistic structure, two forces are conceived to act on the speaker's cognitive system. First, the speaker must choose the appropriate constituents; and then, he has to order them in such a fashion as to best fulfill his goal of communicating the intended message (Ferreira and Dell, 2000). For these processing tasks to be operationalized, the following points seem to be a given. As the creator of the utterance, the speaker must use all resources at his disposal to be timely and efficient in locating and selecting the constituents of the utterance. Consequently, the speaker faces somewhat of a dilemma--being timely and efficient on the one hand, and trying to be maximally comprehensible on the other.

Thus, in uttering an expression, the speaker's linguistic system is subject to the pressures of two opposing forces:

i- being timely and efficient, and ii- being optimally comprehensible. This line of reasoning has provided psycholinguists with the opportunity to evaluate the nature and the extent of the interaction between the mentioned pressures on the speaker's cognitive system. In this light, certain structures in English have provided the platform for the evaluation of the said forces on the speaker's language mechanism. The structures of this nature permit the psycholinguist to assess the intensity of these pressures as well as illuminating the influence of such pressures on the choices the speaker makes in producing utterances. This class of linguistic structures are composed of those that present the speaker with the choice of including an optional constituent

for the sake of disambiguating his utterance or to forgo the use of such words for being economical.

Perhaps of all such structures, the ones made up of the optional complementizer *that* provides the most suitable type for this line of enquiry. This claim is based on the assertion that with such utterances, the speaker is more likely to be challenged with the task of disambiguating the utterance.

In so far as the above-mentioned pressures could empirically be verified as having a bearing on the speaker's utterances, further evidence for the psychological validity of the cognitive accounts of language processing would be provided. Such evidence has already been obtained in the domain of L1 processing (Ferreira and Dell, 2000); however, no full-fledged study has of yet addressed the issue in the context of L2 processing. Hence, this study is concerned with evaluating the claims made about the operation of the pressures on the L2 speaker's cognitive system when faced with structures containing the optional *that*, and the ensuing choices made by the speaker in forming this utterances.

1-3. Objective of the Study

This study seeks to determine whether the same forces are at play in L2 processing, namely economization and disambiguation. This would be accomplished through a task composed of certain structures devised to evaluate the strength of the forces on the cognitive system of L2 speakers in processing and producing language.

1-4. Significance of the Study

From the theoretical point of view, the findings of the conceived study will be tremendously valuable in shedding light on the intricacies of inner processing of L2 by foreign language speakers. More specifically, one might be able to ascertain the effect(s), if any, of the mentioned forces on the choices the foreign language speaker makes in production of L2.

Furthermore, in pinpointing the influence of the forces that operate on the cognitive system of the L2 speaker, and considering the nature of the task that will be discussed hereafter, it is believed that some insight could be gained on the order of presentation of certain L2 structures for the benefit of both the syllabus designer and the L2 teacher.

1-5. Hypotheses of the Study

This study seeks to determine whether the following strategies are resorted to in producing utterances:

1) The strategy of economization when uttering disambiguous structures; and

2) The strategy of disambiguation in producing partially disambiguous structures.

Hence, the following hypotheses were considered for this study:

In producing disambiguous utterances, the speaker would be more inclined to employ the economization strategy (i.e. omitting the optional constituent *that*). Thus,

H₁: $X_e > X_d$

However, with partially ambiguous structures the disambiguation strategy is more likely to be utilized:

H₂: $X_d > X_e$

For both types of structure, the null hypothesis would be:

H₀: $X_e = X_d$

Key:

$X_e \rightarrow$ mean instances of utilizing economization

$X_d \rightarrow$ mean instances of utilizing disambiguation

CHAPTER TWO
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2-0. Introduction

In this chapter the related studies previously carried out on the Effect of Disambiguation and Economization on Language Production are reviewed.

2-1. Theoretical Considerations

It is axiomatic that in conveying an intended meaning the speaker of a language faces a variety of options. These options are mostly language specific (i.e. different languages permit different configurations of words to convey meaning). To cite an example of such alternations in syntax, one may consider the active vis-à-vis passive structures in English. A more subtle alternation is the speaker's option to use optional words (Ferreira and Dell, 2000).

2-1-1. Syntactic Flexibility

It has been argued that the reasons underlying the speaker's choice in the use or omission of optional words are three fold. The first is the subtle difference in meaning as maintained by Thompson and Mulac (1991). It has been asserted that the structure:

I noticed that mistakes were made.

is semantically, even though slightly, different than:

I noticed mistakes were made.

Since the omission of *that* serves to weaken the distinction between the embedded and main clause. In other words the topicality of the subordinate clause becomes less robust through the omission of *that* (Thompson and Mulac, 1991).

Besides, this semantically-motivated flexibility in syntax, two other factors seem to have a strong bearing on syntactic alternations. These factors are more cognitively oriented, and thus the main focus of the present study. This thesis hence proceeds with an introductory section on these factors.

2-1-1-1. Lemma-driven Motives for Syntactic Flexibility

At the heart of language production lies grammatical encoding. The process of grammatical encoding begins with a message and ends with the selection of word forms by the speaker (Ferreira, et al., 2000). Between these two points, the speaker accesses lemmas: "representation of syntactic properties of the to-be-produced words" (Ferreira, 2000: 298).

During lemma processing, the speaker may not gain immediate or even delayed access to the called for lemma. In such a case, he abandons his original syntactic representation for meaning of the message for one which is more compatible with his lemma-driven capacities (Ferreira, et al., 2000). Thus for instance, if the lemma needed for the production of a passive structure is not readily available, the speaker may opt for the active from.

This type of syntactic flexibility is what was earlier referred to as being timely and efficient or perhaps more appropriately economical in relaying the message. Under this branch of psycholinguistics the topic is referred to as "the principle of first mention". The title is reflective of the incremental nature of a lemma-driven processing (i.e. recalling a lemma gives rise to a compatible lemma that comes next and the chain continues until the structure is syntactically complete. To clarify the concept of a lemma-driven system, let us consider the case of a structure whose first lemma unit is the *coach* followed by *knew*; now if the speaker's linguistic system predicts the next lemma unit to be *you* then according to the principle of immediate mention, the speaker would produce a sentence complement structure without *that* for only such type of a structure permits the immediate mention of *you* in:

The coach knew *you* missed practice.

On the other hand, if the speaker does not select *you* immediately, in all likelihood, a sentence complement structure including *that* would be uttered:

The coach knew *that* you missed practice.

In spite of its decisive influence in its demarcation of the type of utterance syntactically chosen, it should be mentioned at the outset that the concept of immediate mention will have minimal effects, if any, on the design of the present study for it will be neutralized as it will be treated not too much unlike a control variable. This point will be elaborated in future sections.

2-1-2. Cognitive Effects on Type of Structure

The second of the cognitively-based factors that influence syntactic flexibility is more robust not only in nature, but also in being implemented in the design of the present study entitled "ambiguity sensitive sentence production" it rests on the notion that in producing a structure, the speaker is both sub-consciously and practically concerned in getting his message across by taking steps to minimize the listeners effort in comprehension of the message. (i.e. disambiguating the utterance) (Ferreira, 2000); thus, one reason for syntactic flexibility is to use a configuration of words that exert minimal conceptual pressure on the listener's cognitive system. Of all structure domains that strive to minimize ambiguity, the notion of "Garden Path" has been extensively employed in psycholinguistic studies. Hence, the following section is devoted to Garden Path structures and the role they play in the present study.

2-1-3. Garden Path Phenomenon

Certain structures in English entitled "Garden Path" structures provide the background for the task of the present study.

Garden path structures are characterized by the following two notions: (a) they contain temporary syntactic ambiguities and (b) they are at first glance biased toward a syntactic analysis that proves false in the end (Ferreira, 2000). To exemplify the concept consider the structure:

The man selected for the task made history.

In the above structure, the temporary syntactic ambiguity occurs when the parsers reach *selected* in their analysis. The ambiguity results because *selected* can be taken as the main verb of the sentence and as such ends with an NP. Such an analysis is more highly involved in the parser's perceptual channel due to the higher frequency of type of exposure in the past. Hence, a bias towards following *selected* by an NP is built in.

However, upon reading the remainder of the structure, the status conferred upon selected as the main verb changes to one of the passive verbs with *made* being analyzed as the main verb of the structure.

For the purposes of this study, a particular category of Garden path structures that allow the ambiguity take place at the sentence complement part of the structure, are envisaged. As an example consider the structure:

The coach knew *you* missed practice.

In analyzing this structure, the parser is more likely to anticipate an *adverb* once he gets to *you*, again, based on the higher frequency of these structures. Thus, the ambiguity occurs the moment the comprehender reaches *you*; and the bias is for the structure to proceed with an *adverb*. However, the listener's expectations prove counterintuitive for the structure ends with a complementizer.

It is a given that no garden path phenomenon would result if *you* were replaced with any other personal NPs, nor if the optional *that* complementizer was not omitted.

In a research study investigating the tendency for disambiguating such structures by including the complementizer *that*; Elsness (1984) compared written texts against spoken ones. The results indicated that no compelling evidence differentiated written and spoken texts in their use of the complementizer *that* for disambiguating purposes. In another study (Rayner & Frazier, 1987) found that the time taken for reading disambiguated (i.e. structures with no omission) was less than the text that had structures with omissions.

2-2. Empirical Literature

A fair amount of work on a similar issue – lexical availability in relation with syntactic and lexical production – was advanced by Ferreira and Dell (2000). The study was held at the universities of California, San Diego and Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Six experiments conducted through the study along with several tasks designed showed remarkable results about *native* speakers of English. These experiments tested the predictions concerning optional word mention of two general approaches to language production as speakers only sometimes include the *that* in sentence complement structures like *The coach knew (that) you missed practice*. One approach claims that language production processes choose syntactic structures that ease the task of creating sentences, so that words are spoken opportunistically, as they are selected for production. The second approach claims that a syntactic structure is chosen that is easiest to comprehend, so that optional words like *that* are used to avoid temporarily ambiguous, difficult-to-comprehend sentences. In all experiments, speakers did not consistently include optional words to circumvent a temporary ambiguity, but they did omit optional words (the complementizer *that*) when subsequent material was either repeated (within a sentence) or prompted with a recall cue. The results suggest that speakers choose syntactic structures to permit early mention of available material and not to circumvent disruptive temporary ambiguities.

With each use of a linguistic expression, two acts are accomplished. First, the creator of the linguistic expression – the speaker – must find the right words and order them in accordance with an intended thought. Second, the recipient of the linguistic expression – the listener – must

understand those words to recover the original thought that the speaker intended to convey. To be timely, speakers must create their utterances as efficiently as possible. But an utterance is only effective if it is understood at least as rapidly as it is created. Thus, the system that creates linguistic expressions is subject to two simultaneous pressures: It must produce well-formed linguistic expressions as efficiently as possible, but it also must produce utterances that can be easily comprehended.

One way to evaluate the impact of these pressures is to examine the decisions that are made when the language production system builds a sentence and to determine whether those decisions aid the efficiency of production or of subsequent comprehension. One specific decision that the language production system must take is whether to include optional function words in certain sentences such as:

Complementizers like *that* in sentence complement structures, as in *I suspected (that) you learned the whole thing,* and relative complementizers and auxiliary verbs like *who were* in sentences with passive relative clauses, as in *the astronauts (who were) selected for the mission made history.*

The six experiments presented by Ferreira and Dell tested the degree to which such optional word mention is influenced by two separate mechanisms, one of which leads production to operate more efficiently, while the other leads production to create utterances that are more easily understood. A couple of considerations used in the study of Ferreira and Dell, (2000) will proceed to further clarify what the experiments sought to prove.

2-2-1. Lexico-syntactic Flexibility and Optional Word Mention

A language's *syntax* is a description of the allowable configurations of words in that language in terms of categories like *noun*, *verb* and so forth. Languages offer some flexibility within their syntactic systems, so that a particular idea can be communicated with distinct configurations of words. In English, such flexibility commonly occurs with the alternations that occurs with the active (*The tortoise defeated the hare*) versus the passive (*the hare was defeated by the tortoise*) form of a sentence. However, a more subtle form of flexibility occurs with *optional word mention*, where a speaker can grammatically include or omit certain function words.

From the perspective of the information processing system that underlies language, such flexibility is a valuable resource that can be exploited to achieve different goals. Ferreira and Dell mentioned three of those goals, and their experiments addressed *two* of them.

One possibility is that syntactic flexibility is used to communicate subtle nuances of meaning, so that actives and passives are meaningfully different ("Mistakes were made"), as are

sentence complement structures with or without the *that* (Thompson & Mulac, 1991). Most language users have the intuition that the syntactic variation that comes with syntactic flexibility primarily caters to such communicative needs, and research has shown that syntactic alternatives are not fully interchangeable (McKoon & Ratcliff, 1997) and communicate subtle differences in meaning (e.g., Thompson & Mulac, 1991, argue that omission of *that* involves weakening the distinctions between the main and embedded clauses, so that high epistemicity of the main clause or topicality of the complement clause lead to *that* being dropped).

However, psycholinguistic research has revealed that syntactic flexibility can also be exploited to address processing-related challenges faced by language users. Next, two ways that syntactic decisions can alleviate processing difficulties that arise during language use are discussed. With the first strategy, the production system uses syntactic flexibility to more easily create fluent utterances. With the second strategy, the production system uses syntactic flexibility to present utterances that are easier for a potential listener to comprehend. These two processing functions of flexibility —easing the burden of the speaker and that of the listener — are not mutually exclusive; both could be at work, even at the same time. However, as Ferreira and Dell showed through their study, there are circumstances under which the two approaches make different predictions and hence the experiments presented by them allowed for an investigation not only of whether the strategies apply but also of their relative influence in affecting speaker choices.

2-2-2. Availability-Based Sentence Production

As was previously mentioned the concept of *lemma* and *lemma driven sentence production* as appeared in the works of Levelt, 1989, and Garrett, 1975, are important for language production. The same theory guided Ferreira and Dell's study as well.

Most models of language production assume that the information processing heart of sentence production occurs with *grammatical encoding*. Grammatical encoding begins with a *message* —the representation of the concepts and their interrelations that a speaker wishes to express — and ends with the selection of *word forms* — representation of the phonological content of the words of a sentence. It is between these two stages that the production system accesses *lemmas*: representations of the syntactic properties of the to-be-produced words. *Lemmas* are important for many reasons, one of which is that sentence production is often characterized as *lemma driven*; that is, lemmas are taken to encode the information that is used to construct the syntactic structure of a sentence. (This emphasis on the role of lexically specific

information has a long history in linguistics, as in Bresnan, 1978, 1982, and is now becoming important in psycholinguistic theory as well; MacDonald, Pearlmutter, & Seidenberg, 1994).

Lemma-driven production has desirable properties, especially that it supports *incremental* production (Ferreira, 1996; Levelt, 1989) — the construction of a sentence piecemeal, from beginning to end. This approach permits selected words to be produced in compatible sentences, so that "Wh-words" such as *what* and *who* can trigger the use of interrogative structures or so particular verbs can call on appropriate intransitive, transitive, or ditransitive structures.

However, not only do the syntactic privileges of the to-be-produced lemmas affect syntactic structure, but so too can the *timing* of lemma selection have important effects on the syntactic structure of a sentence. This point can be illustrated with passive versus active production as mentioned before.

As their study showed production proceeds more efficiently if syntactic structures are used that permit quickly selected lemmas to be mentioned as soon as possible. We call this *the principle of immediate mention*. The principle of immediate mention makes a straightforward prediction for sentence complement structures with optional complementizers, like *The coach knew (that) you missed practice*.

In general, such *availability-based effects* on sentence production link the availability of the to-be-produced lemmas to the processes responsible for selecting the sentence structures to be used. The operation of availability-based effects has been demonstrated in a wide range of structures involving order-of-mention effects here (e.g., the choice between using an active or passive; like Bock, 1986a, 1987).

Bock (1986a, 1987) has developed a fair amount of work on a relevant issue as well.

2-2-3. Ambiguity-Sensitive Sentence Production

Along with syntactic flexibility that can be exploited not only to make production processing proceed more efficiently, but also to make a potential listener's comprehension processing proceed more efficiently, Ferreira and Dell made use of another concept of ambiguity in sentence production.

Given a choice among sentence alternatives, the most straightforward way to increase comprehension efficiency is to avoid sentences that are more difficult to comprehend. A kind of difficulty arises especially with the *sentence complement structures* and *passive relative clause structures* in English.

As mentioned before, the notion of *garden path* has been well studied in the psycholinguistic literature examining sentence comprehension. Garden paths occur when

sentences (a) contain temporary syntactic ambiguities and (b) are biased at the point of temporary ambiguity toward a syntactic analysis that is eventually inappropriate. A sentence is said to contain a temporary syntactic ambiguity when it momentarily permits more than one syntactic interpretation. However, a temporary ambiguity is not sufficient to cause notable difficulties in comprehension (indeed, every sentence contains an indefinite number of temporary ambiguities as it unfolds).

Difficulties specifically occur when biases lead comprehension processes to commit to a syntactic analysis for the temporarily ambiguous fragment that is incompatible with the analysis that the entire sentence will eventually require. For example, given *The coach knew you . . .*, comprehension processes are unable to determine whether *you* is a direct object or an embedded subject. However, processing biases (which can include syntactic simplicity, Frazier & Fodor, 1978, and frequency of occurrence, MacDonald et al., 1994), cause comprehenders to take the post verbal noun phrase in such structures to be a direct object; here, they take *you* to be the direct object of the verb *know*. Nevertheless, by definition, sentence complement structures continue with *you* as an embedded subject, as in *the coach knew you missed practice* (Ferreira and Dell, 2000). Thus, when a comprehender receives the second verb (missed), the misanalysis is discovered (i.e., you must be an embedded subject) and the initial direct object interpretation is discarded in favor of the correct embedded subject interpretation. The same psycholinguistic process is true with passive relative clause structures.

Thus, when sentences with sentence complements or passive relative clauses are produced in their *reduced* form (without the optional function words), they may constitute garden path sentences. However, if the same sentences are produced in *full* form (with optional function words), the garden paths can be avoided. This implies that syntactic flexibility can be exploited by production to increase comprehension efficiency in a straightforward way: If the reduced form of a sentence includes a garden path, then produce that sentence in its full form. Any such tendency would have the effect of reducing the number of ambiguous sentences seen in spoken language, though it is unlikely that any such pressure would be so powerful as to eliminate temporary ambiguities completely.

One study (Elsness, 1984) examined whether there is any tendency in natural spoken and written text for writers to produce the full forms of sentences that include garden paths in their reduced forms.

The study did not find compelling evidence for such a tendency, despite the fact that it has been shown that readers read full forms of sentences more easily than reduced ones (Rayner & Frazier, 1987). However, it is possible that a strong tendency to avoid ambiguity was not

discovered for two reasons: First, the specific sentence choices made during writing may respond to a variety of demands which may have little to do with temporary ambiguity. Ferreria and Dell's experiments, by contrasting ambiguous and unambiguous under controlled circumstances, were more sensitive to any effect. Second, writing is likely to be a more deliberative process than speaking, so that if a tendency to avoid ambiguity is implicit, it may be more apparent in a spoken task.

Ferreira and Dell's six experiments tested the ambiguity-avoidance and availability-based claims using variants of *a sentence recall task*. This work on native speakers of English showed compelling processing results.

2-2-4. Results

The results of experiments might be taken to indicate that speakers are selfish, exploiting the flexibility of language to ease only the task of creating sentences. Such a conclusion, however, overlooks two considerations. First, communicative pressure, indeed affects optional word mention. That is, speakers can change their overall level of *that*-mention when understandability is important. Second, a range of challenges face language users when communicating. As noted by Clark (1996), one pressure that language users experience in a communicative setting is the need to "hold the floor" in a timely manner. The results of their experiments were testament to the importance of this pressure.

The need for language users to communicate in a timely fashion implies that specific strategies, like the availability-based one, are necessary so that speakers can manage the complexities that are involved in producing language.

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3-0. Introduction

This chapter includes the description of research methodology. It deals with the participants, instruments, data collection procedure, and statistical analysis procedure.

3-1. Participants

The participants in this study consisted of 41 junior students of English at Shiraz Azad University. Each of the participants was chosen randomly from among male and female students. The justification for choosing these participants – particular target population – is that during their three years of study they had been exposed to a sufficient corpus of both formal and informal L2 English. Thus their exposure to the type of structures is somewhat similar to the built in bias for one kind over another.

Moreover to offset the effect of age-related variations the participants were all above 18 years of age, as happens in all upper academic—university – situations. They also came from almost the same socio-economic backgrounds.

As for the variable of intelligence, the present study sides with Lenneberg (1968) and Steinberg (1982) in rendering it a non-factor due to the minimum levels claimed to be required for language acquisition and processing.

3-2. The Task

A sentence recall task consisting of 20 pairs of structures was designed for the study. All the structures had *I* as the pronoun preceding the complementizer *that*. However, Half of the structures had the complementizer proceeded by *he* and the other half by *you*. The task was designed in two pairs of structures each of ten sentences. Structures in the two pairs were the same except for the pronoun preceding the complementizer. Through the first pair *odd* numbers had *you* and *even ones* had *he* as the pronoun, the reverse happened in pair (II). An example is given in Table 3.1. The whole task is also included in the appendix.

Table 3.1. *Position of task structures*

	Second Clause	First Clause
Pair I	*You* overheard the military secrets	I concealed
Pair II	*He* overheard the military secrets	I concealed

In constructing the structures, the second clause appeared first followed by the first clause. This reversed order of presentation is deemed necessary to make the participants resort to an actual processing procedure rather than merely repeating the structures while performing on the recall task. The prediction motivating the design of the recall task was that with the first group of structures the participants were faced with the opportunity to employ the disambiguation strategy; while with the latter type the economization strategy was more likely to be utilized.

As for memory considerations, the literature reveals that memory for entire sentences is often quite accurate, at least for short retention intervals (Potter and Lombardi, 1990, 1998).

As examples in table 3.1. reveal, in reconstructing the first type of structures, the participants were faced with a partially ambiguous mood that is the pronoun *you* leads to a garden path situation as it may be followed by either an adverb or a verb phrase. Thus, in order to avoid this partial ambiguity, the participant was more likely to not omit the complementizer *that* for the sake of clarity. With the second type of structures; however, the participants are not faced with a partially ambiguous situation since the pronoun that follows the first verb within the first clause doesn't permit any other constituent to follow it but a verb phrase. Hence, the parsers in most likelihood omit the optional *that* in conjoining the two clauses.

3-3. Administration Procedure

The 20 pairs of the structures of the task were tape recorded and played back through head phones to the participants, on an individual basis. The participants were instructed to put the two clauses of each structure in correct order (i.e. to change the order of their presentation), and to orally report the reconstructed sentences to the interviewer sitting in front of them. This scheme (i.e. the use of headphones and an interlocutor – the interviewer) provides for an air of authenticity for the task. This claim is substantiated on the grounds that a real communicational setting will be constructed when the participant reports the reconstructed sentences to an actual interlocutor.

Furthermore, a 10 second time span for the onset of production of each sentence is incorporated into the administration of the task. By limiting the interval allowed for production, in effect, a real life communication encounter would be simulated for the participants. Hence, the utilization of the economization and disambiguation strategies is more likely to surface in the participants' production.

3-4. Data Analysis Procedure

Since two pairs of structures each of ten sentences which were the same except for the subordinate clause pronouns were used, the difference between the means for the inclusion and omission of the complementizer *that* in two streams of input (i.e. structure types 1 and 2) can be the answer to the research questions.

Therefore, in order to obtain the results a series of matched t-tests were administered on both the within type and between type means of the structures for the inclusion or omission of the complementizer.

The results of analysis are summarized in the following chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

4-0. Introduction

Having gained the findings and results from the raw data, statistical analysis was carried out within the framework of "within type" and "between type" effects. In the following sections, these forums are elaborated on in detail.

4-1. Within Type Effects

Given that the primary objective of this study was to investigate whether there existed any meaningful differences between the use of *that* within each group of structures having *you* or *he* at the beginning of the subordinate clause. It was deemed that a series of matched t-tests would be beneficial in reaching a conclusion in this regard.

What follows, are the results of this battery of t-tests presented for each of the two groups involved through the present study.

4-1-1. Complement Structures with Ambiguous Pronoun *You*

The result of a matched t-test carried out on this type of structures with the ambiguous pronoun *you* indicates that the difference between the *you* structures with *that* and those without it was significant. As the following table indicates:

Table 4.1. *Within type analysis of you structures containing the*
complementizer that vs. those lacking it

Variable	No of Pairs	Mean	SD	t-value	df	Level of Sig.
T.I.Y.	41	6.4634	1.485	6.14	40	.01
T.L.Y.		3.5854	1.533			

Significance level of T.I.Y/T.L.Y (matched T-test) *P<.01

T.I.Y. = That Inserted You Structures   T.L.Y. = That Less You Structures

4-1-2. Complement Structures With Unambiguous Pronoun *He*

The result of a matched t-test carried out on this type of structures with the unambiguous pronoun *he* indicates a significant difference between *he* structures with *that* vs. those without it. As the following table indicates:

Table 4.2. *Within type analysis of he structures containing the*

complementizer that vs. those lacking it

Variable	No of Pairs	Mean	SD	t-value	df	Level of Sig.
T.I.H.	41	4.6341	1.475	6.65	40	.01
T.L.H.		3.6341	1.655			

Significance level of T.I.H/T.L.H (matched T-test) *P<.01

T.I.H. = That Inserted He Structures   T.L.Y. = That Less He Structures

4-2. Between Type Effects

The design conceived for the analysis of between type effects was another matched t-test. In this part the means obtained from the two different groups of *he* and *you* were compared. The result of this matched t-test, too, indicates a significant difference between *he* and *you* structures with *that*.

Table 4.3. *Between type analysis of the use of that in structures containing*

you and he

Variable	No of Pairs	Mean	SD	t-value	df	Level of Sig.
T.I.Y.	41	6.4634	1.485	6.55	40	.01
T.I.H.		4.6341	1.655			

Significance level of T.I.Y/T.I.H (matched T-test) *P<.01

T.I.Y. = That Inserted You Structures   T.I.H. = That inserted He Structures

4.3. Results Summarized in Figures

As mentioned before the number of *thats* in structures with the unambiguous pronoun *he* was more limited compared to those having *you*. The following figure on the next page summarizes the "between" and "within type" effects. The figure was designed according to the means acquired through statistical analysis of the results. It makes a fair comparison of the number of *thats* used through the experiment.

Figure 4.1. *Summary of between and within type effects in accordance*

with the percentage of thats used

☐ That used

◼ That not used

Percentage of

"*thats*"spoken
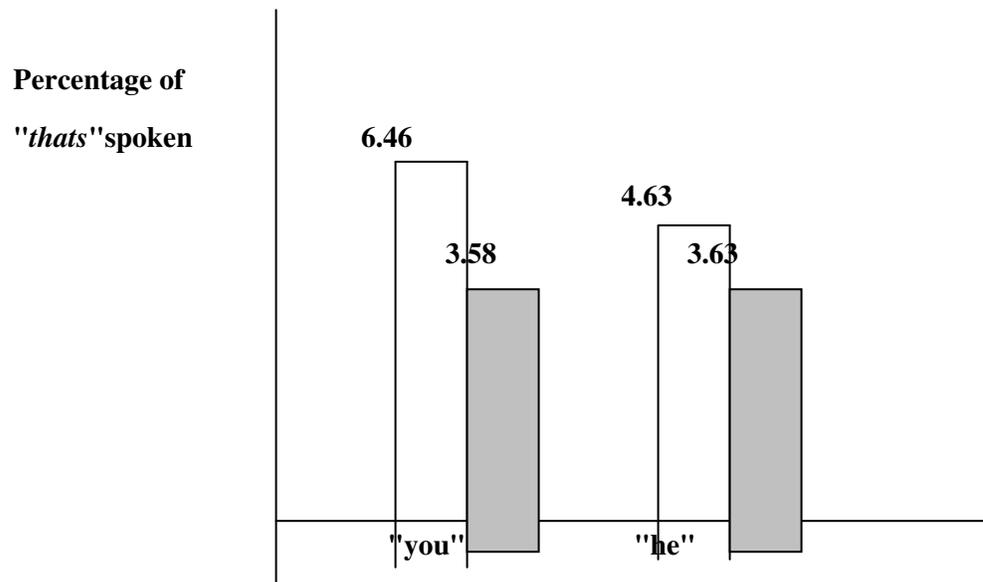
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS,

AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER

RESEARCH

5-0. Introduction

This chapter provides the study's summary, discussions, conclusions, implications, and suggestions for further research.

5-1. Summary

This research aimed at examining the effects of disambiguation and economization paradigms on English language production used by Iranian EFL learners. The participants in this study were 41 junior students of English Translation at the Azad University of Shiraz. The participants were randomly selected from among male and female EFL learners at the above mentioned university. Two groups of complement structures served as a recall task were designed. There were 10 pairs of sentences with clauses put in the reverse order. All structures had *I* as the main clause pronoun; while, half of them had the ambiguous pronoun *you* and the other had the unambiguous pronoun *he* at the beginning of the subordinate clauses proceeding the possible use of complementizer *that*.

Participants were then asked to put the two clauses of each pair in the correct order and use the complementizer *that* when deemed necessary.

The research question addressed by this study was:

Q: Do disambiguation and economization forces affect Iranian EFL Learners' utterances?

In order to answer this question, three matched T-tests were carried out to obtain the relationship within and between the intended groups.

5-2. Discussion

This study was performed to examine whether disambiguation and economization paradigms had any significant effect on the language production (i.e. utterances) of the participants.

The answer was affirmative for both paradigms. The said forces were both influential in the production of utterances by Iranian EFL learners.

Disambiguation and economization forces were found to have a significant effect on the choice of optional words (e.g. that) used by EFL learners.

It was also found that disambiguation and economization paradigms usually came to surface under special circumstances. Through the present study the use of ambiguous and unambiguous pronouns were the effective stimuli.

Results of a series of matched t-tests carried out on within and between type relationships showed meaningful differences, too.

Finally, given the efforts expended on eliminating the artificiality of the experiment, disambiguation and economization as the forces working through one's speech were more likely to be used in real life situations or other native-like ones as used with the intended participants in this study.

With respect to the null hypothesis of the study, the results provided a fair amount of evidence for its rejection. Namely, that the two groups of structures exhibited significant differences in so far as the use of *that* was concerned.

5-3. Conclusion

The results of this study indicated that disambiguation and economization paradigms come to surface as forces acting on individuals' speech every time one makes an utterance. It means that:

1) D.E. paradigms are the result of a series of complex psychological processes which happen while speaking that may deal with STM, as well.

2) Certain words through real-life situations may trigger the use of D.E. paradigms. The said forces may happen in productive skills as speaking, in particular.

5-4. Implications

The present study has yielded the following implications for the development of skills, meaningful drills and comprehension activities.

Having paid attention to *disambiguation and economization* paradigms in speaking and listening skills, one may communicate more effectively in more native-like situations as may happen with EFL learners of English.

More Authenticity can be seen through the use of *disambiguation and economization* forces in EFL situations. Teachers may also benefit by making the students aware of the optional word use, syntactic flexibility and other related items; therefore, more meaningful activities may also be applied to classroom situations.

EFL learners who gained mastery over *disambiguation and economization* use in communicative classrooms may have fewer problems in comprehension skills, understanding spoken English, and dealing with foreigners.

5-5. Suggestions for Further Research

1. This study was carried out on the effects of D.E. paradigms on *speaking* in particular. Similar study can be conducted on these effects on other language skills especially *writing* as another productive skill.

2. This research was conducted with EFL university students in Shiraz Islamic Azad University, a similar research can be carried out in other universities with students of different proficiency levels to confirm or disconfirm the findings.

3. The sample in this study, as is true with all university situations, was chosen from among students over 21 years of age. Further studies may address other age groups.

4. This study was carried out at the university level with students of fairly good command of English. It can be also replicated at institute level with students of other language command levels.

5. Finally, the present study dealt with pronouns and different types of them as far as ambiguity is concerned. Other similar studies may work on other entries of English grammar.

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APPENDIX A

Two Groups of Sentence Complement Structures Served as a Recall Task

The unambiguous (*he*) or ambiguous (*you*) pronoun was positioned at the asterisk in each of the two groups. Each group had 10 pairs of complex sentences differing in only the pronoun at the beginning of the subordinate clauses. The two clauses were played back to listeners in the reverse order individually.

Main Clause	Subordinate Clause
I heard	* warned the president about the economy

I concealed	* over heard the military secrets
I worried	* trusted too many people.
I dreamed	* forgot to go to the big concert
I guessed	* remembered the questions on the TOEFL
I observed	* confirmed the hotel reservation
I revealed	* protested against government
I replied	* charged too much for the computer
I thought	* learned 5 languages
I suspected	* felt uncomfortable

APPENDIX B

The Questionnaire Used to Investigate the Impact of
Disambiguation and Economization

The present questionnaire was used by every interlocutors while participants were reporting the reconstructed structures to them. This was respectively done on an individual basis. The 10 second interval simply let the interlocutors mark the intended spaces.

Student Name: ---------------------

Sex: M   F

Age: --------------------

University Year

1

2

3

4

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Sec I										
Sec II										

Article Title

The Computer and Language Teaching

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Introduction

The advance in technology has made it quite possible to take advantage of many modern facilities in different facets of communication. The language learning/teaching process is no exception, since language in its strict technical sense is a means of communication.

Audio-visual devices such as tape-recorders and video-tapes have frequently been used effectively in language classes. However, since both human nature and the language learning/teaching process are dynamic phenomena, the need for the newest techniques and technological devices is felt.

Similarly, a computer stores as much information as its capacity allows. Thus, this is a good opportunity to utilize it as a complementary device to other audio visual aids in teaching language to learners. In fact, it is a sort of Computer-mediated Communication (CMC) which is, as Cook (2003:126) says, "…communication via a computer network. It may be one-to-one or one-to-many, and synchronous (in which participants are on-line simultaneously) or asynchronous (in which they are on line at different times)."

In the following, some functions of the computer in language classes will be illustrated. It is worth noting that each letter of the word "computer" is used to represent some key terms relevant to the teaching situation.

C: Check, copy, comprehend

A Computer gives the learners an opportunity to check their spelling, grammatical, and comprehension problems. Learners may be given some easy-to-difficult passages to read. Following each text, some multiple choice questions will appear on the screen and the learners will then be required to select the best choice in accordance with the ideas given in the passage. In this exercise, the only thing the learners have to do, as far as the computer accessories are

concerned, is to use the mouse. However, in more advanced language activities, the learners may be asked to give short and/or complete answers to the questions. Thus, they will have to use the keyboard to write longer phrases and sentences.

In other cases, learners may be asked to copy the original text on a new file and make required changes to some particular parts of the material. For instance, they are asked to change the subjects, verbs, adjectives, etc. to the ones they have been assigned. Even in a more advanced situation, the learners may see a text in which the order of sentences has been violated. Then, they have to read the passage carefully and put the sentences in their correct order.

O: Options, observation, organization

Learners may be given various options to manipulate any aspect of the language. For example, the category related to the four language skills as the main option preceded by the level of difficulty overshadows the other subcategories as follows:

1. levels of difficulty [elementary] [intermediate] [advance] [none]

2. skills [listening] [speaking] [reading] [writing]

3. components [words] [sentences] [stories] [dialogues]

4. words [animals] [plants] [cities] [more]

5. sentences [idioms] [proverbs] [expressions] [others]

6. narratives [history] [science] [psychology] [others]

7. dialogues [bookshop] [restaurant] [pharmacy] [others]

8. stories [comic] [jokes] [drama] [others]

9. puzzles [words] [pictures] [shapes] [others]

10. presentation [picture] [figure] [diagram] [none]

Since the options are quite flexible, they will help the learners to have access to various aspects of the language and the related materials and exercises to improve their language proficiency.

During the computer-based language activities, learners will observe several structural changes occurring to words, sounds, rules and meanings of the language they are learning. In addition, they can manage to organize all this information in a separate file and save it for further reference. For example, they create a directory called "Rome" in which the information regarding the word Rome from the "cities" option plus a picture of the city selected from the "picture" option have been put together. From the "proverbs" option, also, "When in Rome, do as the Romans do." could be picked up and added to the directory of "Rome". All directories made in this way can be put in an alphabetical order for further use.

In the case of grammatical structures, too, learners may elicit the related rules from the many examples presented in the "sentences" option and insert them in a certain file called, say, "rules". Later, should they wish to test their knowledge of grammar, they will open the "rule" file and under the subdirectory of, say, "passive" make as many sentences as they can.

M: Memory, manipulate, motivate

The big advantage of using the computer is that it gives the learners more confidence and freedom to manipulate the learning program. Unlike other audio-visual devices where the learners have to listen to the same dialogues, music, etc. and/or watch the same cartoons, movies, etc. this advantage is supported by the extensive memory of the computer. Taking the chance to work partly on their own and to get involved in the process of language learning/teaching, the learners will become more and more motivated and interested in learning the language.

P: Puzzle, picture, practice

Since problem-solving as a communicative activity is very effective in directing the learners towards authenticity and automaticity, puzzles can best be introduced with the help of the computer.

The puzzles can be presented in the form of either putting the letters, words, sentences, pictures, etc. in their right order or solving a problem. Puzzle games like "Hugo" are also good examples in which learners have to order the character to follow certain directions to solve the problem.

U: Use, understanding, universality

The learning program if designed carefully on special software can familiarize the learners with a variety of activities and exercises. This program is supposed to have a binary function. Firstly, it should be written in such a way that the learners understand the properties and functions of language and the objectives of the program via practical situations rather than theoretical explanations. On the other hand, with the help of this program, learners will be expected to use the language as properly as possible.

As mentioned earlier in this paper, the entire learning program may be divided into two sections: use and usage. For instance, learners first listen to a dialogue; then they are asked to take part in the presentation of the same dialogue by recalling and repeating the original statements uttered by the main characters. Up to here, the learners' activities are semi-controlled. From this point on, they will be ready to use, in the real situations, as many statements as they have learned. Since the computer is originally a blank machine, if well-programmed with suitable, consistent,

and serial procedures, it can be utilized to teach all languages of the world together with their cultures. This is due to the universality of function of the computer.

T: Teach, think, test

Depending on the program, the computer can teach many aspects of language and culture to the learners of different levels. For example, regarding sounds, the position of the tongue in producing the vowels could easily be taught to university students majoring in the language they are practicing, say, English. Animation plus sound effects will best help the learners to learn many facts about the language phenomenon. They will also become motivated to think with amazement about the language they are using in their every day life. This will assist them even to search and think about other languages of the world and ultimately the universal properties of language. Having been motivated, encouraged and assisted by this knowledge, now, learners will try to care about almost perfect, if not native-like, pronunciation. As a result, they will not think of language as a means of trivial communication but as a phenomenon with wider perspectives and greater expectations.

As another piece of evidence, intonation seems to play a very important role in conveying different meanings in any language; the patterns, however, are sometimes different in some languages. A statement with the primary accent on the negative marker and a falling tone at the end is supposed to be a normal utterance in Persian. Nevertheless, the same characteristics will denote an emphatic representation in another language, English. Some people may think that this difference could be taught by books on intonation, language teachers, practical handbooks, etc. But as mentioned earlier, using the computer, learners will have the opportunity to organize their own learning program with the help of the many options they have.

Another effective function of the computer is that it can test the learners' knowledge of language rules and language use in interesting ways. For details about the software which, motivating the students to participate in an on-line learning activity, test and mark the assignments see Luck and Joy (1995). Currently, most widely standardized tests are computer-based (Brown, 2001: 146). When one selects the "test" option, s/he may confront the same subdivision as mentioned under "O". Selecting a specific aspect of the language, s/he can test the materials s/he has learned previously. S/he can also be credited with special marks during a series of tests at the end of which s/he will be able to observe his/her rate of achievement on curves, diagrams, percentages, etc. concerning different aspects of the language. Then, s/he can make a comparison between different stages in his/her own proficiency.

E: Edit, exercise, encourage

Opening new avenues, the computer gives the opportunity of self-evaluation to language learners. They can edit as many exercises as they require in various aspects of the language. This will encourage them to copy, paste, delete, add, and make many other changes. For example, punctuation can best be practiced as an important phase in writing. In this type of exercise, learners are asked to apply appropriate punctuation to a certain text. They will be permitted to make other changes to the entire passage as long as the grammatical and the lexical restrictions are not violated. At the end of the exercise, they will see if they have made any mistake(s). This activity will go on until the learners have fewer or no mistakes in the area to be practiced.

R: Reassure, reinforce, refresh

Working with computerized language learning programs reassures the learners of their every-minute progress in the process of learning. For learners feel that they have enough time and sufficient access to many options to work with to improve their language ability.

Another function of the computer as a variety of electronic facilities in language learning is to reinforce the learners to have more contact with the language in different situations. Thus, the combination of the two functions, i.e. reassurance and reinforcement, refreshes the mood of the learner and the spirit of learning only if the computer is considered as a supplementary device to a long term program and not as the main goal of the learning course. The computer doesn't think; it can only execute the directions of a thinking man (Best 1977:204).

Conclusion

The following considerations are presented as the concluding remarks to the above discussion.

1. The functions mentioned above are applicable to situations where both native and non-native speakers of the language are involved. However, since in the former case, language is normally acquired but in the latter it is formally learned, the role of the computer will be adequately effective for second language learners of any age, linguistic background, level of proficiency, etc. In Sokolik's words (2001), "…it is clear that computers are providing instructors and students alike with a new battery of tools with which language can be learned more effectively (p. 486).

The reason behind it is that the native speakers of a language will benefit from the computer learning programs, e.g. spelling, grammar, etc. up to a certain age, i.e. year six or so. Later, if they require to use the computer, it will be with the aim of seeking more knowledge about different disciplines including language itself. But non-native speakers even up to the

university level have to manipulate the second language in order to become more and more competent in the four skills, i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing. So, concerning the latter group, computer-based exercises on "reading" appear to be an effective requirement for the learners, even those majoring in English.

2. It should be kept in mind that despite the many benefits of the computers (see Warschauer and Healey, 1998), they are only machines that can only facilitate the formatting. They can neither think nor create. Therefore, a language class must not be computer-centered because this may eliminate the outstanding role of the teacher, who is the real creator of the programs and the thinking leader of the class.

3. The design and selection of any computer program will definitely depend on the learners' level, age, etc. Therefore, it can be utilized for both individual and group learning. In the case of the former, classes with a multicultural atmosphere in which learners come from different linguistic backgrounds will benefit much from the computer as a complementary activity to the regular learning schedule. For more information about the factors to be considered in designing educational software focusing on teacher-student interaction criteria see McDougall and Squires (1995).

4. The messages could either appear in written form, pictures, caricatures, etc. on the screen or be heard via the speakers depending on the learners' choice.

5. The internet and World Wide Web have created a growing body of text and images that can now be searched by anyone with access to a computer and modem (O'Grady et al. 1997:665). For example, the following are some sample sites on the internet which manipulate learning and teaching English through online services:

- http://www.syvum.com/online/english.html
- http://www.roseofyork.co.uk/learning.html
- http://www.worldwidelearn.com/language-courses/learn-english.html
- http://www.english-to-go.com
- http://www.eslgo.com
- http://www.usingenglish.com
- http://www.globalenglish.com
- http://www.rong-chang.com

- http://www.eleasten.com

- http://www.englishclub.com

- http://www.english-at-home.com

- http://www.edunet.com

- http://www.abcasiapacific.com

- http://www.1-language.com

- http://www.bellenglish.com

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Article title

E- lectures in teacher education: Boon or bane?

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Abstract

This paper centres on incorporating electronic lectures (e-lectures) online into a pre-service English Language teacher education programme. It examines the nature of streaming video, the context for implementing video streaming of lectures, and considers the benefits and problems arising from integrating such a form of technology into a teaching methodology course for trainee teachers. Of specific interest is the efficacy of streaming video in supporting learning. Pedagogical implications for classroom practice are discussed with recommendations and suggestions for future research in the field proposed.

Introduction

Traditional teaching in higher education campuses has largely involved face-to-face classroom delivery of instruction, be it in the form or a mass lecture with an entire student cohort or tutorials with smaller groups of students. With advancement in instructional and learning technologies, particularly in institutions of higher learning over the years, online instruction has become increasingly popular as a mode of instruction (Harasim, 1990; Bing, 2002; Shephard, 2003). Online learning is generally acknowledged to refer to a `learning experience or environment that relies upon the Internet or World Wide Web (WWW) as the primary delivery mode of communication and presentation' (Fowles, 2000).

Advances in information and communication technologies (ICT) are offering institutions of higher learning an opportunity to widen their scope of modes of communication and instructional delivery. What has emerged are different models of 'distributed learning', also

referred to as 'blended or hybrid learning'. Distributed learning refers to 'using a wide range of information technologies to provide learning opportunities beyond the bounds of the traditional classroom' (California State University Centre for Distributed Learning, 2003, online). The technologies involved can include email, video conferencing, newsgroups, chat rooms, instructional software and the World Wide Web. For this paper, the focus on online education centres on the specific use of lectures video streamed to students from a platform.

Indeed, it is not difficult to understand the appeal of the newer modes of instruction and for `educational delivery' to be `the key application for this technology (CMC) as a public form of communication' (Turoff, 1990: ix). It is recognized that benefits are evident: students and instructors do not have to meet at the same time as communication or content is stored in the computer or system. Online education is available at any hour of the day or night, seven days a week. Students anywhere can be part of the single class and likewise, instructors can be anywhere in the world and still team- teach a class.

Streaming video

One of the specific means of online instruction which is growing in interest is the use of video to support student learning. Video has long been used in various ways to support learning in different disciplines. The term `video' encompasses, on a general level, all media supporting moving pictures and sound. This paper focuses on online lectures which feature recorded lectures on video `streamed' over the Internet to students who access the material by clicking on a hyperlink.   Viewing a streamed video essentially involves viewing a video in real time as the file is downloaded on a computer screen instead of from a videocassette. Access to the Internet with reasonable bandwidth, media player and related software compatible with the streamed video are required. The recorded material is realized in the digital mode which the computer reinterprets as moving images and sound. Short delays and interruptions can be expected. Text-based or image-based hyperlinks can be provided into any online resource. Streamed video can be digitized and distributed into segments or chunks (clips) which viewers can select to view from an index of various `entry points' into the streamed presentation.

Context and background of study

A six-week module on Primary Teaching of English was offered to a cohort of 85 trainee teachers in Singapore undergoing a two-year Diploma in Education programme in the second semester of their first year of study.   Trainee teachers attend two two-hour tutorials   weekly throughout the duration of the course. No face-to-face mass lectures in the lecture theatre are

offered. Any supplementary work prior to the weekly in-class tutorial, for example, preliminary reading and/or research, is expected be done outside of class.

The module was developed in the context of an integrated Language Arts curriculum for teaching children at the lower primary level (7-9 year old students). It reviews and summarizes the current theories of writing and discusses ways of developing young writers. It is designed to provide trainee teachers the theoretical knowledge and pedagogical practices for the teaching of writing and evaluation of pupils' writing.

The e-lecture

The lecture focused in this study was on `Responding to and evaluating student writing' (Appendix 1). It provided the theoretical underpinnings and principles for effective responding and evaluating of students' writing, and outlined for trainee teachers a practical, systematic approach for classroom practices based on the prevailing assessment standards and expectations as set out by the Ministry of Education in Singapore.

The lecture was a 50-minute recording on VCD format in a standard lecture theatre. The recorded lecture was edited and made available through video streaming by the university Centre for Instructional Technology (CITE).   The `Blackboard' platform (Blackboard, Inc. 1997-2004) which the university had established for campus- wide usage and access by both staff and trainee teachers was used to post relevant announcements and information pertaining to the lecture (Appendix 2). The contact email and telephone number of the technical support staff was provided for trainee teachers to raise any queries should they encounter problems in accessing the lecture.

Trainee teachers were offered three different modes of transmission of the lecture: Wireless Local area network (LAN), Broadband and Narrowband. LAN offers the highest quality while Broadband is of the lower. Both were acknowledged to pose download problems when the Internet traffic is high.

512k (LAN)
http://videoweb.nie.edu.sg/vod/BlackBoard/Caroline/Responding to and Evaluating Student Writing/LAN/Responding to and Evaluating Student Writing.asx

256k (Broadband)
http://videoweb.nie.edu.sg/vod/BlackBoard/Caroline/Responding to and Evaluating Student Writing/Broadband/Responding to and Evaluating Student Writing.asx

56k (Narrowband)

http://videoweb.nie.edu.sg/vod/BlackBoard/Caroline/Responding to and Evaluating Student Writing/Narrowband/Responding to and Evaluating Student Writing.asx

The video format for the delivery of streamed media on campus required the latest Windows Media Player 9 version for proper viewing. The media player is easily downloaded from the Microsoft website for the various operating systems:

http://www.microsoft.com/windows/windowsmedia/9series/player.aspx

Motivations for implementation

E-lectures offer the following opportunities for implementation in courses. A common base of information is presented to the cohort of students taking the course and the teaching staff involved. There is standardization of input which facilitates content management. Although the student cohort for this course is relatively small, this mode of instruction could favour programmes, particularly where large numbers of students are involved, demanding equally large numbers of teaching team of tutors. The recorded lecture is also particularly useful for review in cases where scheduling problems emerge; for example, when one of classes is cancelled or the lecturer is away at a conference and is unable to deliver face-to-face.

E-lectures further present opportunities for unlimited numbers of review of lecture content by students at their own convenience, regardless of spatial and temporal constraints. Students can view the lecture from home or anywhere else on campus and staff need not be tied to a specific time slot in viewing the similar content from their offices or home. It is a means towards providing `anytime, anywhere learning' which is gaining in currency in educational institutions.

Streaming also allows the user to jump and move around the video material without having to download the entire presentation. It can easily provide the user with an interactive relationship where the content can be changed to reflect the user's requests or needs.

Depending on how the online material is followed up in class, tutors have the flexibility as to how the material can be used. For instance, the streamed material allows for on-the-spot reference where tutors can cross-check and extend discussion or sharpen analysis of focus by referring to specific segments of the lecture using the menu created which outlines key segments of the lecture.

Problems of implementation

Incorporating the use of online material into the teaching methodology course for the first time is not without its specific set of problems. Students who were unfamiliar with the online delivery of material faced initial difficulty in accessing the material. This was more of a concern at the level of user familiarity with the technology involved than one of a technical problem in the system itself. Optimum transmission of the online material required the latest version of Windows media player 9 which may not necessarily already be in the user's system. Other technical glitches included the speed of transmission, depending on the system the user is on. The limitations of available bandwidth and current technology in the user's system make it a challenging task for efficient and effective accessibility of the online material by some students.

Feedback from trainee teachers

Feedback from trainee teachers was elicited through the use of questionnaires (Appendix 3) administered and also in-class tutorial discussions. This section provides information drawn from the students' responses (unedited) with regard to the benefits and problems with the e-lecture in their module. The positive impact of e-lectures ranged from fulfilling course objectives and requirements, flexibility in terms of independent viewing and reinforcing the concept of `anywhere, anytime learning', the immediacy of impact to opportunities for unlimited reviewing of content. The limitations of the online delivery were also noted with recommendations suggested.

The collated responses to the questionnaire are summarized in the following table. The comments to each point have been categorized and are featured in the section following the table.

Table 1

Feedback from trainee teachers on the online lecture

Questions	Yes %	No %	No response %
1. Do you prefer the e-lecture to traditional mass lectures in the lecture theatre?	77	17	6
2. Did you find the e-lecture motivating in your personal learning experience?	74	20	6

3. Did you find the quality of the audio-visual input good?	82	11	7
4. Did you face any technical difficulties in terms of accessing the lecture?	51	28	21
5. Did you review any segment of the lecture?	92	3	5
6. Did you download and print out the lecture outline and notes?	95	5	-
7. Did you refer to the lecture slides after the lecture?	96	4	-
8. Would you recommend e-lectures to a friend?	83	10	7

The table shows that the overall perspective is generally positive with users supporting e-lectures with a relatively high number preferring this mode of instruction (77%) , finding it motivating (74%) and willing to recommend (83%) to others,   despite the technical problems encountered. The accompanying print materials (95-96%) and good quality of the audio-visual input (82%) were other plus factors.

The following represent the range of comments provided by trainee teachers to the questions above. They have been categorized under various headings and selected responses are cited (unedited).

Aid to overall course aims and assessment

I found that the e-lecture was something new and interesting and very good indeed. It was very relevant for what we did for the module and helped me plan for the final test.

For the e-lecture, Responding to and Evaluating Student Writing, i thought that the objectives were clear in the lecture. The information was also useful for us trainees.

Generally it was well presented.

I found the e-lecture highly beneficial in helping me on the topic of analyzing children's writing.

Flexibility

I feel that the e-lecture was more flexible than a normal lecture as it allows us to view it any time we want

Time- and space- independence

Basically, I find that the e-lecture is very beneficial to us. We can actually view the lecture at our own pace and review it if we have any doubts about the lecture, which is something that we can't do for the normal lectures. I hope to have more of such e-lectures as I feel that we should also go for distance learning in the future.

I feel that the e-lecture is beneficial in the sense that one can view it in ones own free time>.. I do not have to waste time traveling to campus. Also, the idea of having e-lecture was also great. Trainees, can simply view it at the comfort of their homes and take notes at appropriate time.*yippee*

Maybe this can be implemented in NIE more so trainees only need to come to school for tutorials, not lecture.

I preferred e-lecture to traditional mass lecture, as there won't be a problem where some of our timetable clashes. In addition, we would be able to take down notes at our own pact anywhere, anytime.

Immediacy of impact

The e-lecture was quite a useful way to let us know the way to deal with pupils' scripts. I learnt the correct way to comment and help the students in writing better composition. It provides a live samples so that we can see the real way in marking and commenting.

Review of content

A great benefit would be the ability to revisit the lecture and garner points previously missed.

I did review some parts of the lecture were detailed and I wanted to copy the notes for my review.

I would say that it is a very good way for us, the trainees, to view the lecture on 'Responding and evaluating student writing' online. Through this mode of learning, we could view the video clip as many times as we like to take down our own notes at our own pace. As guidelines on this lecture are provided, we could focus on those points and elaborate them.

Students' suggestions

An alternative to viewing e-lectures was proposed by a student who suggested making available CD-ROMs of the same lectures in the library or circulated around students in a class to view outside campus. This would benefit students who encountered problems or difficulties in accessing the lecture and who were unable to obtain help in time.

Other recommendations revolved around follow-up tasks or activities. These include short online tests or brief exercises to enable students to self- monitor and/or test their understanding of the content of the lecture.

Other proposals included maximizing the potential of electronic materials to offer students more practice and live examples on how language teachers could respond to and evaluate student's writing. There was also a suggestion for a video clip showing an actual conferencing of how a teacher in class responded to pupils of different ability where their written work was concerned.

Students generally would recommend e-lectures to others; even for groups of students who are more used to the Macintosh environment but with the caveat for compatibility of system with Macintosh format.

Drawbacks

In response to the question as to the worst thing about e-lectures, what students perceived to be limitations or drawback of such lectures comprise the reduced face-to-face contact and interaction, personal discipline apart from the technical glitches.

Lack of personal contact

While virtually anything can be done online nowadays, I do enjoy the tutorial sessions which allow hands on activities. They really allow generation of personal meaning to the principles taught. Thanks so much for being with us, Dr Ho. I've gained a lot of insight from your instruction.

Personal touch is always motivating as you can see the person, expressions and body language visually.

Need for personal discipline

Self- discipline was required or online lectures may be taken for granted.

Technical problems

The only thing is that the internet connections can sometimes be a little faulty> so there is a lot of lag time> and the video quality may not be that clear__both sound wise as well as visuals> with the improvement of technology< i believe that it will be a viable option in the future.

Lagging-video stalls while audio continues. I'm sure with improvement in technology, this will be a preferred media.

Feedback from tutors

The instructors involved in teaching the course under study comprised a small team comprising 4 tutors with an overall course coordinator. This small staff number facilitated the smooth implementation and acceptance of the inclusion of e-lectures as an alternative mode of instruction.

Initial technical problems

Despite the initial hesitance with a few staff over the unfamiliar environment of learning and expectations required, tutors were generally supportive of this mode of instruction. The convenience of viewing the online material in the comfort of the offices of staff proved to be a more efficient and less time-consuming way of receiving a common core of information conveyed to both staff and students without the need to physically be present at the lecture theatre for the lecture to be delivered. Problems which surfaced at the earlier stage over technicalities, namely with accessing material and adjusting the audio level, were resolved with the support of the technical online help service for staff which promptly attended to specifics raised by staff.

Audience alignment: Active management or passive reception

On a pedagogical level, the concern with the efficacy of the system in terms of benefits to participants is an area of concern. The classic complaint against lectures in general is that there is less feedback and interaction compared to a tutorial setting. This is even truer of a recorded e-lecture. Despite careful planning and excellent presentation, a recorded lecture is unable to make any real-time adjustments for the audience and this can make the lecture more difficult to follow. Active mental or cognitive processing on the part of students in anticipating, questioning and critically evaluating content presented is required of students in both online and non-online contexts of learning. In the absence of the physical contact and face-to-face interaction among participants, attention to real-time paralinguistic signals (body language, gestures, facial

expressions) as a cueing system for instructors to adapt and to respond accordingly, and to monitor students' processing of information disseminated may be made even more difficult. Audience alignment in attending to the needs and concerns of participants, and the issue of active processing or passive reception of information are critical issues which deserve further examination. Indeed, the very act of specific note-taking during lectures requires the active participation not just of the lecturer, but also of students. The aim is to understand and evaluate what has been said: 'Then make your own record of what you have understood. You need to think during lectures'. (Feltham, 2000)

Instructors' expectations and monitoring of students' viewing

Another concern of instructors is over monitoring students' viewing of the e-lecture. The instructors' expectation of students' fulfilling this requirement before they attend their tutorials is reinforced by tutors with reminders and notices made available through Blackboard. Procrastination and/or not even taking the effort to view the lecture before going to class for tutorials may be inevitable for some. Fortunately, with this cohort of students, tutors found that all students had viewed the lecture. With a larger student size, the in-built tracking system from where the e-lecture is transmitted will be an essential tool for instructors to ensure that all students do comply with this requirement. Tutors could be provided with information as to the numbers of students who did manage to access the lecture and when. Nevertheless, it is left to tutors to take appropriate follow-up action in the post-lecture tutorial.

Recommendations

The degree or extent to which students benefit from e-lectures is determined by the nature of the follow-up work by tutors in class. Post-lecture in-class tutorials are acknowledged to be critical in a `methods' course in serving to consolidate, extend knowledge and to reinforce understanding.   The class contact with tutor after the e- lecture viewing provides the opportunity for students to clarify their doubts and have their queries answered.

Tutors who are used to online delivery of material also noted a qualitative difference involving the recording of lecture on DVD or VCD format. The preference was for the former in terms of the overall quality of recording. The provision of a menu to facilitate navigation, and

forward or backward tracking for reference is an added boon in aiding classroom instruction and delivery.

Reliable and supportive technical help with the necessary expertise and technical knowledge are critical for the effective implementation and delivery of such a mode of instruction. The availability of such a support network for troubleshooting as and when required is essential not only from the lecturer's/tutors' but also the student's involvement with online lectures. Familiarity with the system in use by both groups of users cannot be taken for granted. It is strongly recommended that pre- lecture briefings be held for both groups to clarify any misunderstanding or attend to any queries users may have. A basic level of understanding of what is required needs to be ensured by all users prior to implementation. Post-lecture sharing sessions on the problems or difficulties encountered among users are strongly recommended not only to build a sense of ownership among participants but also to serve as a..forum for the exchange of ideas. These could be held face-to-face or even through electronic means as in an electronic discussion forum. A frequently-asked question listing (FAQs) on the use of such an approach would also be invaluable to users, particularly first-time participants.

Given the lack of face-to-face personal contact cited by students as a drawback of e-lectures, a need remains for incorporating more interactive elements into online lectures to enhance greater interactivity between lecturer and students for reinforcement of learning. This is an area which requires further exploration to maximize the optimum benefits which can be derived for not only students but also lecturers from such a medium, particularly for a methodology course for trainee teachers which involves dynamic processes involved in instruction rather than a static body of content knowledge.

E-lectures, by themselves, are not recommended for regular use as the sole medium of instruction, particularly in methodology courses. This is where the specifics of delivery and teacher-pupil interaction and the dynamics of classroom discourse are critical in imparting the relevant skills and strategies to would-be teachers. There is a need for balance in terms of approach and mode of instruction. Integration of a variety of methods and a range of different modes of delivery as in a multi-modal approach is acknowledged to contribute towards a more holistic and balanced approach to instruction.

Technical considerations

This section provides a checklist for teachers interested in using online lectures and elaborates further on each area:

Task	What it involves	What it impacts or affects
Creating video	Shooting the information that is to videoed and later transmitted for viewing.	Technical quality and purpose for video creation aimed for. Affects how easy video files are to compress.
Compression/encoding	Compression of image information for Web delivery.	Size of file may affect visual quality.
Delivery of streamed video	Either downloaded for later playback by user or streamed for viewing in real time to user as file is downloaded.	Degree of ease of navigation or 'moveability' around video material and interactivity. Choice of real or non-real time transmission.

Creating video

Content material that is appropriate for real life, face-to-face classroom delivery may not necessarily work as effectively on the Web. There is a need to tailor the online content for specific purposes identified by the lecturer. In creating the video for Web delivery, for optimum results, there is a need to ensure that the original quality of the material is technically good and shot specifically for that purpose.

Simplicity is the key where compression of visual online material is concerned. Uncomplicated backgrounds and minimized camera movement with sparse action in frame would aid in maximizing compression and minimizing file size. Both analogue or digital cameras can be used for video capture. It is widely recognized that the savings in time and effort, ease of use and increased quality of the latter would more than offset any extra costs of digital footage incurred.

Compression/encoding

Compressing video for Web delivery will need to be seriously aligned towards a reduction of size if one is to deliver video content within a restricted bandwidth. This will mean scaling the image down to a size small enough for delivery but not without sacrificing quality of image. Compression essentially involves reducing image size, frame rate and the overall image itself. Video editing and encoding can be done on either Mac or PC platforms depending on preference

and/or resource availability although it is acknowledged that great efforts have been made to provide attractive multimedia technologies packaged as key and central parts of the Mac software.

<u>Delivery of streamed video</u>

Streaming video does not necessitate the need for large video files on hard disks but the storing of a few frames in a 'buffer' within the RAM memory. It also offers the possibility for live video transmission in real time.

Various systems or formats provide streaming capability. These include:

 Real Video

Based on Real Time Streaming Protocol (RTSP) - an open standard and free

Server software to implement streaming required

Scaleable size offers compatibility with a wide range of machines

QuickTime

Based on RTSP - an open standard and free

Run on multi-platform servers from Unix to Windows NT

Windows Media Player

Ubiquitous with the Microsoft platform

Pedagogical considerations

The following section highlights for classroom practitioners practical, key considerations which could be given attention with regard to implementing e-lectures into courses. The questions focus on basic core issues, ranging from the overall purpose and `value-addedness' of the online lecture, needs and preparedness of participants to the use and integration of the e-lecture before any critical decisions are to be taken.

Factors to consider	What it involves	Notes for instructor/ lecturer/tutor
Purpose of e- lectures	Content knowledge versus processes How content is used	
Class need	Accessibility to learners Learner use of material	
Lecture features	Nature of content material Degree of complexity in terms of information to be transmitted	
Lecturer/tutor preparation	Practical teaching considerations Knowledge and preparedness of staff	
Integration with other parts	Independent, compartmentalized use versus integrated use of materials	
Impact on trainee teachers	'Value- addedness' for learners Content use my learners	

Purpose of e- lectures

Does the lecture focus on static content knowledge or procedural, dynamic interactive processes among participants?

Does the lecture serve as an introductory core essential to a topic, reinforcement or a supplementary resource   to complement the teaching of a topic?

What is it the e-lecture offers which traditional lectures fail to deliver?

The onus is on instructors or lecturers/tutors in deciding on the balance of content material which does not require much interactivity as in a linear transmission of underlying theoretical principles with that which demonstrates key processes and dynamics of communication in a more interactive manner. If there is an area which the e-lecture delivers successfully compared to the traditional classes, this should be foregrounded and would be evident to all involved. The purpose of the lecture also needs to be determined–whether to introduce, reinforce or complement concepts taught.

Class need

Will the e-lecture be accessible to trainees on campus and/or home?

Are materials (eg. lecture outline) available online so that students can print them and fill them in while viewing the lecture?

An initial survey of what students have in terms of computer resources and familiarity with campus requirements would help the instructor in planning for the implementation of e-lectures into his programme. How the instructor envisages the material to be used is also a critical factor to be taken into account at the planning stage.

Lecture features

Is it practical to use video over the Internet using streaming video technologies

Does the lecture include multimedia features such as graphics, sounds, video, etc. that need to be put online?

The instructor designing the lecture would do well to consider the specifics and technicalities of what he intends to incorporate into the lecture content. The pedagogical purpose of the multimedia features needs to be clear if these are to be integrated well into the content material.

Lecturer/tutor preparation

What do lecturers need in order to put complete lectures on the Web? (Time, resources, technical skills)

What do other lecturer/s tutors need to know in order to access and use the online lecture?

As with learners, it would pay off to carry out a survey or to informally elicit information from staff intending to teach on the programme with regard to their readiness or preparedness of using online material for instruction. Demonstration of use of material, and questions-answer feedback sessions would prove beneficial to iron out any unforeseen problems specific staff may face.

Integration with other parts

Is the entire lecture or only a portion of the lecture to be made available online? |
How will the lecture be integrated into the rest of the lesson?
Are the online materials a substitute for good notes?

The instructor would do well to plan and decide on how he intends the lecture content to be used with the rest of the lesson planned on the specific topic focussed. Follow-up tasks or activities can be reinforced in class during the post-lecture tutorials. This will ensure optimum use and reinforcement of e-lecture material.

Impact on trainee teachers

Who will benefit from the lectures? (substitute for trainees unable to attend face-to-face lecture / compulsory for all trainees as the sole mode of delivery)

How will the input from the lectures be used in tutorials?

Are there accompanying notes/slides available online so that trainees can print their own set of materials?

The decision as to whether learners will be using the material in its entirety as a required component of instruction or in component segments at the learners' discretion as part of individual self- access and autonomous learning will have to be worked out at the outset before implementation. This will affect how learners are expected to use the material for their own learning and understanding.

The way ahead

Indeed, it is clear that the use of video streaming of lectures for specific purposes necessitates the need for a careful consideration of specifics, namely, the *when*, *where*, and *why* as well as *how*. It is widely acknowledged that a `one- size fits all' approach to online learning is

less than ideal. Any proponent of online learning would do well to note that in no way can online lectures represent a complete substitute for face-to-face lectures or in-class interaction. Any user and/or participant bears well to continue to be careful about how and when online lectures are used--when is it the best delivery mode and what can it do better which other modes of instruction are unable to fulfill.

It is acknowledged that this study draws on a specific e-lecture to a student cohort for the first time in a teaching methodology course. The findings from the study based on the limited data size may not necessarily be representative of all other situations involving online lectures. No claim is made as to the generalization of findings from this study. The study, based on the specific context and needs of the participants involved was, at best, exploratory in nature. The key issues and areas of concern which have emerged from the study, however, have not been reported previously, particularly in the research context of Singapore. The discussion and recommendations based on specific issues arising from the data provide a starting point and useful framework for other studies in the field which, it is hoped, this study will further stimulate. The data from this study provide a useful base for comparative studies of online or e-learning in other contexts to determine the extent to which the findings can be generalized in other situations.

These could include studies focusing on courses, both teaching methodology and academic content at various levels – undergraduate, postgraduate and diploma. The impact of online learning with regard to the specific nature of subject matter, involved, be it a static body of content knowledge or the dynamic processes involved in the instructional process, is a worthy area for further investigation. This would ultimately lead to more insights which would contribute to a more comprehensive framework accounting for online learning in various forms, examining the impact of online learning for various purposes.

Further, studies on the impact of online learning on various groups of participants for different purposes under varied conditions, for example, planned and spontaneous, education and commercial contexts also hold a lot of potential. Through comparative analyses across various settings, the impact of variables such as subject areas (general/specific), ability levels (novice/experienced) and age groups (adults/teenagers/children) on the resulting impact on learning would provide valuable information on the potential and pitfalls of online learning in various contexts. More research is required before meaningful generalisations can be made on the effectiveness or otherwise of online learning for various purposes.

Innovative advances in technology result in the development of online learning materials becoming easier all the time with a greater demand for more interactive content on the Web. By

the time online modes of delivery become universally accepted and are used more actively on campuses, currently available `streaming' methods may well extend beyond 'streaming' technology such as Real Video, QuickTime, Windows media player and even the MPEG-4 standard format. With ever increasing advances in technology, further research in extending the study of online lectures using varied video formats need to be carried out to keep up with the pace of change. Indeed, the integration of existing technology with other new modes or tools of technology is critical. The challenge remains for academics and other professionals in the field to keep up with the rapid pace of innovation. There is a need for further collaboration and greater integration to enable more informed decisions to be made with regard to instructional delivery which would best tap and make optimum use of currently available technology.

More studies along the lines outlined would also pave the way for practical considerations as in devising appropriate and useful online tools for this medium of learning, particularly in creating software and hardware tools to help the user, and teaching the skills required to maximize the gains from online learning. This would have an immediate impact on participants using this form of instruction for various purposes.

The different frames of reference for studies of various forms of online learning would provide a principled way of discussing and clarifying the distinctions in the nature of discourse and processes involving participants. More studies in a wider range of online settings would undoubtedly contribute to a fuller and more comprehensive understanding, and help to verify critical assumptions of the ways in which online learning affect participants involved. This call, at this point of time in Singapore where there is a dearth of local research studies but growing interest in the impact of technology on language and communication, is not only timely but necessary.

Appendices

Appendix 1

Lecture outline:

<div align="center">

ECE 102: Teaching English at the Lower Primary Level II

Responding to and evaluating student writing

Caroline Ho

</div>

1   Place of Responding and Evaluating

2   Why is `responding' important?

3   Types of Responding

4   The `How To' of Responding

    4.1   Giving constructive feedback

    4.2   Guidelines for Responding

5   Samples

6   The Monster Project

7   Electronic conferencing

8   Evaluation : Purpose

9   Types of evaluation :

    General impressionistic

    Analytical

    Semi-structured holistic

10   Principles underlying effective evaluation

Appendix 2

Blackboard announcement

Under `Announcement':

Online lecture: Week of 29 Mar
Please refer to `Course Documents' for information on an Online lecture you are required to view before Week of 29 Mar 04.

Under `Course Documents':

Online lecture: Week of 29 Mar
ECE102RespondingNotes.doc (49664 Bytes)
For Week beginning 29 Mar:

Please access ONE of the following sites for a 50-minute online lecture: `Responding to and evaluating student writing' by Dr Caroline Ho any time in the week beginning 22 Mar BEFORE you go to class on 29 Mar. Please note that LAN offers the highest quality while Broadband is of the lower. Both may encounter download problem when Internet traffic is high. You are also advised to view the lecture outside the Blackboard environment (i.e. copy the URL you want and paste it into the Internet browser you are using; do not double- click on the URL) from any PC/laptop terminal on campus although the quality is better from a wired network. The latest Windows Media Player 9 is required for proper viewing. (Can be downloaded from MS website for the various OS; 98/2k/XP)

http://videoweb.nie.edu.sg/vod/BlackBoard/Caroline/Responding to and Evaluating Student Writing/LAN/Responding to and Evaluating Student Writing.asx
256k (Broadband)
http://videoweb.nie.edu.sg/vod/BlackBoard/Caroline/Responding to and Evaluating Student Writing/Broadband/Responding to and Evaluating Student Writing.asx
56k (Narrowband)
http://videoweb.nie.edu.sg/vod/BlackBoard/Caroline/Responding to and Evaluating Student Writing/Narrowband/Responding to and Evaluating Student Writing.asx

Appendix 3

Post-lecture notes (emailed to trainee teachers):

RESPONDING TO WRITING

Global comments

What is the greatest strength of this essay?

What is its greatest weakness?

What were interesting points raised?

Did you enjoy/dislike writing this essay? Why?

Checklist for Content

Purpose

Is the writer's purpose clear?

Do I understand the main ideas?

Relevance/Clarity

Is the writing relevant to the given question?

Has the writer answered the question ?

Does the writing make sense?

Is it clear all the way through?

Where is the writing unclear/vague?

What does the writer really mean?

Has the writer left anything out?

Are there repetitions that can be deleted?

Was too much/too little said about same points?

Where is the organisation confusing?

Elaboration/Development/Organisation

What is the central idea of the essay?

Is this main idea developed clearly in the essay?

Can I follow the development of the points/ideas?

Are the ideas linked smoothly?

Are the points grouped together suitably?

Are paragraphs used appropriately? Are they logically sequenced?

Would it help to rearrange the paragraphs?

Has the writer included enough details?

Are the details relevant?

Can the reader *picture* what has been written?

Creativity and Imagination/Interest Value

Is the introduction appropriate/interesting? Any suggestions?

Does the introduction capture the reader's attention?

Is the conclusion effective/appropriate? Any suggestions?

Are the words used appropriate? Can you think of better, more interesting words?

Can the descriptions be more vivid? How?

Are the characters believable?

What is most striking/interesting about the writing?

How original is the writing?

Does the writing `draw the reader in'/command the reader's attention?

Checklist for Language

Have I checked my grammar, especially those areas in which I am weak?

Are the verbs in the correct tense? Are the verb forms correct?

Are subject and verb in agreement?

Have I used the correct prepositions?

Have I left out the articles where they are required?

Are the pronouns correctly used?

Is my choice of adjectives and adverbs appropriate?

Have I checked my punctuation, eg. capital letters, commas, full stops?

Have I double-checked my spelling, especially words I often get wrong?

Are my sentence structures clear? Is there variety in sentence structures?

Have I written in complete sentences?

Have I avoided the use of abbreviated or numerical forms eg. etc., 4 ?

The `Yes, but…' principle

Is there another way of saying….

Perhaps you could….

Can you think of another way of …..

What about…

How do you think we could….

Are there other ways you could….

What if…..

Have you thought   of…..

I wonder if you could…..

Do you think….would be able to….

Appendix 4

Trainee teachers' Feedback Questionnaire

Questions	Yes	No	No response	Comments to support response
1. Do you prefer the online lecture to traditional mass lectures in the lecture theatre?				
2. Did you find the online lecture motivating in your personal learning experience?				
3. Did you find the quality of the audio-visual input good?				
4.Did you face any technical difficulties in terms of accessing the lecture?				
5. Did you review any segment of the lecture?				
6. Did you download and print out the lecture outline and notes?				
7. Did you refer to the lecture slides after the lecture?				
8. Would you recommend online lectures to a friend?				
For you personally, what was the best thing about online lectures?				

| For you personally, what was the worst thing about online lectures? |
| Do you   have any other suggestions/recommendations? |

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Article Title

Evaluation of a trial project for the creation and total integration of English in a mid-sized private university in Korea

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Abstract

In the spring of 2004, as part of the rejuvenation and restructuring of Inje University, the idea of an English Campus, in which the University (a private university in southeastern Korea) would become a campus devoted to the instruction and use of English throughout the curriculum, was created. The idea, like many ideas for growth and development in tertiary institutions was put on hold until an opportune moment for implementation arose. In August of that year, several committees were established with goals designed to create a fully functioning English University in a non-native environment. Of these committees, there was one entitled, The High Class English Committee whose function was to increase the students TOEFL® TSE and TWE scores by a factor of one. The results of this five-week trial project for this committee are hereby recounted. Overall, trends showed an increase of 1.5 points for the written component with the speech component scores increased by one.

1 Introduction

Upon his induction in early 2004, the new university president established the goal of making Inje University a functioning English campus in the truest meaning of the words. His goal was to take a mid-sized local private university and make it equal in stature to larger national universities as a means of improving university visibility, thereby attracting a larger number of students to the school from an already dwindling national student population. To do this all English language faculty, were gathered and requested to offer suggestions, which the president could act on resulting in reaching goal achievement. Later that fall, at the end of the semester break, the

president returned to the university and with the assistance of a newly appointed head of the English Campus project, created seven committees, which would form the nucleus for this objective. The seven committees were; 1) the TOEIC® Project, 2) The TOEFL®/GRE Project, 3) The High Class English Project, 4) The Mileage Project, 5) the Department Centered English Project, 6) The English Events Project and 7) the International exchange committee. While each committee had the overall objective of increasing English proficiency throughout the university, they also had their individual objectives. The objective of this report is to describe the establishment, development, and results of the High Class English Committee.

2 Methods

2.1) Student Selection

Upon receiving the directives for the High Class English Committee, departmental secretaries were contacted and asked to obtain the TOEIC® scores for all Inje university students. As per the requirements of the directive, all students with scores below 700 on their TOEIC® score were excluded from the initial data list, producing a list of 365 students across all majors.

Since Inje university is a private medical university, there is a preponderance of high TOEIC® scores in medically associated fields. These medical students; however, were not selected for the trial project and therefore were excluded from the trial project. This resulted in a final list of 211 students with TOEIC® scores in excess of 700 for the trial project.

These students were contacted through their departments and requested to come for an interview, during which they were presented with an outline of the project goals, and their role in the project. Due to the nature of the project, students were then asked to volunteer for the project. Students, who chose to volunteer, were asked to sign a letter of consent for the purpose of research in order to release their data to the researcher for research purposes.

Within the sample group, students came from a cross section of all university departments. No one major was found to dominate the study group, possibly indicating a large degree of student interest in increasing their scores on standardized language tests presently used in EFL in Korea and also in the project goals.

2.2) Materials Selection

The primary researcher then compiled a list of materials for the project, which were designed for increasing students speaking and writing proficiencies on the TOEFL® test.

Project duration was established at five weeks, with each volunteer student being required to attend two conversation classes and one writing class beyond their normal allotment

of English classes. Topics for the conversation classes were taken from a series of TOEFL® test guides, based on applicability and relevance to the TOEFL® test and to any life situation that the students might possibly encounter. Comparatively, topics for the writing class were also taken from a series of TOEFL® texts, with their subjectivity based on test and/or daily relevance.

Each student was required to attend a minimum of two conversation lectures a week and suggestions were made such that they attend lectures by more than one instructor with the express purpose of increasing the variability the student encounters with respect to language patterns.

Alternatively, students were assigned to a specific instructor for the writing assignments. This was to ensure consistency in grading and evaluation of skill development throughout the project.

2.3) Evaluation

The evaluation of the students utilized the following methodologies.

2.3.1) Ongoing skill Evaluation

This took two individual forms, each based on the respective skill group being observed and measured.

2.3.1.1) Conversation

Conversation when compared to grammar and writing is a more flexible medium and as such can only be measured subjectively, while the others are more capable of being measured objectively. Therefore, the conversation classes utilized ongoing, anecdotal comments as a means of measuring an individuals' progress through the designed conversational curricula.

The comments consisted of notes on every students' miscues, language misuse, inaccurate structures, and sentence developments. Students were monitored throughout the conversation and recasts were utilized to correct the construct errors. Recasts were given at the end of each conversation class, to not impede the flow of the discourse event. The instructor also functioned in keeping the conversation focused and wrote notes throughout the conversation class.

2.3.2.2) Writing

Correcting the weekly timed essays was the means for evaluating the students writing skill development. As a means of measuring skill development, each assignment was corrected and

evaluated for progress relative to the previous weeks work. As well, writing was evaluated for clarity, conciseness, accuracy, logic, and argument structure.

Corrected essays were photocopied and then returned to the students for evaluation and assimilation of corrected information in order to improve writing skills over the duration of the project. As with the conversation classes, all data obtained from the written essays was collated by the primary researcher and retained for future purposes.

2.4) Logistical control

Students, after volunteering were randomly allocated to one of five instructing professors for the writing class. They, along with the instructor, chose a time during which to meet as a group for the writing class. Each writing class was of one hour's duration.

The first thirty minutes of each writing class were designated for essay writing, while the second thirty were set aside for discussion of the corrected essays. There was a one-week delay between essay completion and essay discussion so the instructor could mark the essays.

Students were required to attend two hours of conversation every week. The choice of instructor was left to the student as long as they participated in the mandated two hours per week. To determine accuracy of the attendance for this phase, sign-in sheets were utilized in every conversation class. These sheets were then submitted to the primary researcher at the end of every week to assess attendance to the conversation aspect of the project.

If a student missed a conversation period, they were contacted and warned regarding the delinquency. However, if they missed a writing class they had to report to the primary researcher and present a valid reason for the lack of attendance. If the reason was accepted, they would then be required to make it up at that point. However, if the reason was not valid the student would be presented with the option of discontinuing with the study and then designated as a DNC (Did not complete) variable for the purpose of project evaluation.

2.5) Curricula and texts

The materials used for the project came from an assortment of TOEFL® texts. Topics used for both the conversation and timed essays primarily came from the following texts; TOEFL® 185 essay topics 2003 edition, the Nexus Introduction to TOEFL® writing (with accompanying 185 essay topic guide), The CBT TOEFL® start up text and Interactions 2 - writing texts. Information used for the conversation classes, with respect to grammatical structures and vocabulary used, came from, CBT TOEFL® Grammar, and the Nexus TOEFL® Vocabulary and Grammar texts.

2.5.1) Writing

The TOEFL® 185 essay topics, 2003 edition is a series of 185 graded essays organized and ranked on level of difficulty and occurrence in the TOEFL® exam. Essay topics are presented as a question followed by a sample answer and the Korean translation of the question and answer. Students were only given the question; all other information was deleted for the writing class. The instructor, as a method for correcting the timed essays, used the sample essays from the text.

In the Nexus Introduction to TOEFL® writing, topics are presented in a linear method. This method is based on essay construction. Each unit is designed around the construction of a section of the essay, hence focusing on the actual development and construction of the argument. This text is accompanied by a smaller guide, which contains 185 selected essay topics.

The CBT TOEFL® startup text is a computer based TOEFL® test for the measurement of listening, structure, and reading skills. However, some of the topics used in the text were used for conversation and writing topics.

Lastly, Interactions 2 - writing, a text for writing instruction was used to obtain a more varied group of writing and conversation topics, that were not in the TOEFL® list, for the purpose of obtaining variety in the project and giving the students the chance to explore the use of the language skills they were being given from the other texts.

2.5.2) Conversation

Currently, the TSE (Test of Spoken English) is not a major component of the TOEFL® exam; however, future guidelines indicate that this will change. Therefore, in anticipation of this change the students were required to show an ability to converse freely in English. To do this the following texts were source materials. The CBT TOEFL® grammar text was used as a source to assess grammatical structures in speech. This was accompanied by the use of the NEXUS TOEFL® vocabulary text to facilitate increased vocabulary development. The Korean system has built an inherent dependency upon the TOEIC® test; however, the TOEFL® approach measures a different vocabulary and hence having a spoken, contextual understanding of this alternative vocabulary was deemed necessary for the project.

3 Results

Initial student placement encountered some logistical trouble when trying to match student schedules with professors' schedules. However, once this difficulty was rectified, students were required to attend a writing development class before beginning writing. This class was used to

instruct the students on the basics of writing a structured essay. Upon completion of this class, students were assigned their first timed essay topic, which varied from professor to professor.

Through the duration of the project, attendance attrition resulted in seven students withdrawing from the project due to overloaded student schedules. This form of attrition was expected and was factored in during project development. In the final count for students, fifty-five students partook in the project for its duration. However, again due to the nature of project timing this attendance was not perfect. For those students who did attend the following results were obtained.

3.1.1 Writing

In the course of the abbreviated duration of the project, students were required to write five timed essays. These essays were corrected and returned to the students one week later. Upon the return of the essays, students were given the chance to ask questions regarding the corrections and the reasons for the errors, as a means to increase their performance for the following week.

Scores for the assigned essays in the first week ranged from a low of 0.5 to a high of 4, on a scale of 6 as accepted by the TOEFL® marking methodology. Over the duration of the trial program scores improved by 1.5 points on average, using the 6-point scale. In the final week of the trial, project the scores ranged from 1.5 to 4.5 on the 6-point scale.

For the first week, the mean of the test scores was 1 with a distribution from 0.5-4 and a standard deviation of 0.5. Upon termination of the project, the mean score was 2 with a distribution from 1.5 to 4.5 and a standard deviation of 1.0.

The trial project goal was to increase the students' average score by 1 point on the TOEFL® exam. Results show that the average score for the trial group increased by a score of 1.5, thus surpassing the objective of the project. This level of increase while meeting the project goals is only partly indicative of the actual results.

3.1.2 Speaking

As previously mentioned, development of the speaking skills is harder and more subjectively measured. This creates problems in objectifying a score for students. Hence, the speaking component was measured by observations of each student's individual development and how well they could discuss the topics and answer the questions presented to them by the professor and the other students.

This was achieved by getting the students to deal with each separate component of the speaking component for the TOEFL® exam. The exam has four major components. A discussion

component, whereby the student presents a fact based opinion. A slide component in which the student is presented with a series of pictures for which they have to create a plausible story. A graph component in which they describe a graph and lastly, a flow chart component in which they must describe the processes outlined by the flow chart.

Each component, therefore, is a function of descriptive speech. The goal then was to develop student's ability to describe accurately what they see or think when presented with a topic. Obtaining materials that would develop each student's descriptive skills achieved this.

Grading them towards this achievement; however, was not as easily achieved. Students were graded on how well they did on each assignment, but this grading scheme was far more subjective than objective.

4 Discussion

Students on average increased their scores; however, as the test grade point increases, the marking criteria become far stricter in the requirements to obtain a given score. Therefore, any increases made by the students were in the lower range of the TOEFL® criteria guidelines.

Increases in students writing scores were more readily identifiable. Those increases ranged from 1.5 to 4.5 with an average of 2, thus identifying an average increase of 1.5. On the TOEFL® scale of 6 this is a relative increase of 25%, which, while it might not appear to be a great increase it is substantial in light of the initial levels of the students. This is especially true when looked at with respect to the 5-week trial period.

While increases in the students speaking skills, were harder to measure, development of the students' relative descriptive abilities did improve. Anecdotal results showed that students' abilities went from the basic description to partial analytical description over the 5-week period as well. This; however, did require greater interaction between the instructors and students in order to be realized.

For the speaking component students began by describing their responses to written situations in a discussion format. They went on to look at and describe short packets of information obtained from storyboards, graphs, and flowcharts. Most students at the end of the trial period were managing to do this in a functional manner, while some did not manage to do so. In light of this, the project in the future will be reworked to provide more reinforcement to develop students' verbal skills.

While the overall results do not show great progress, relative to the required goals of the TOEFL® exam, they do indicate that measurable progress is possible over the short term. Progress achieved; however, is only at the initial level. To go beyond this would require a far

greater level of commitment on the part of the students and the professors who contributed. Since the project guidelines only called for a limited increase of 1 point on the TOEFL® grading criteria, it was possible to reach the goal; however, if the goal were to reach one of the higher grade categories according to the TOEFL® guidelines, it would be a far more tedious goal to reach.

To reach the higher skill levels designated by the TOEFL® testing criteria, would require, as previously mentioned, a far greater level of commitment from both the students and the professors involved. As well, this would require that the students be taught the skill sets necessary to reach those higher levels, namely grammar, vocabulary, and comprehension skills. The current project, due to the severe time constraint, did not incorporate the instruction of these skills, not to mention, that the instruction of these skills, was under the auspices of another committee.

Those students who took part in the project fell into the upper strata of students at the University. This was by design, having been preselected by the committee as having a TOEIC® score exceeding 700. While this limits the veracity of the project with respect to bias, it does identify those students who are most likely to take the TOEFL® exam as a means of furthering their academic careers.

5 Conclusions

The approach used to develop Korean students' writing skills worked to limited degree. Students made progress in skill development; however, the attained levels were only at the lower to middle level of the TOEFL® grading criterion. This does not mean students are incapable of attaining the higher levels, just that to do so they need a more balanced approach with respect to contiguous instruction in order to reach a higher level of understanding.

This trial project while it did reach the prescribed trial goals was not given the necessary time (in terms of instruction) to grant the students the ability for full development. To facilitate students reaching higher TOEFL® criterion levels, greater instruction time is necessary on the part of both the instructors and the students.

Comparatively, writing development was not as easily definable, partly due to the nature of instruction of speech skills. A more advanced level of skill development is necessary to obtain these TOEFL® criterions. Reaching the advanced levels (again a level of 6 is highest) is much harder for the average student. While no statistical data are available to accurately define the veracity of the anecdotal observations, speech and descriptive skills did improve through the duration of the trial project; they were just not as easily scored.

Overall students who participated in the trial project would receive better scores on the TOEFL® after working in the project. Increases; however, that would be offset by missing information which is needed to do well in the whole test; grammar, comprehension, reading, and listening. Students who took part in this committee did not necessarily take part in the other TOEFL® committee project, which was designed to develop grammar and comprehension skills. If students, who took part in one committee, took part in the other, then their overall TOEFL® scores would increase making it far more valuable as a project course, since by having all component scores increase is better than having only one component score increase.

To accurately measure a students progress it would have been better to have the students take the TOEFL® test, as was originally designed into the project; however, due to financial constraints, both on the part of the students and the school, this option was removed from the project goals. For the future, it has been requested that the students be given the capability to take the TOEFL® exam as a means of determining the accuracy of the project results. At the time of writing, this condition had not been met for the current project duration.

While a preselected data source, in this case, students, is effective in obtaining results, it does mask any overall trends by creating bias in the data set. To accurately verify this trial a more cross-sectional approach is deemed viable in the future.

Lastly, while teaching to a test is helpful, it is not always the best method. That is, teaching towards a test, helps a student pass the test, but it does not help them learn what they are doing in order to pass the test. Teaching towards the test can have both positive and negative washback effects (Lynch 2003). Lynch cites Messick (1996) regarding the negative washback effect in which teaching to the test stresses inauthentic language performance. Lynch (2003) also goes on to cite the positive washback effect, of teaching to the test, as approximating genuine communication identified by Berhardt (1991), Kitao and Kitao (1996), O'Malley and Valdez Pierce (1996). Messick (1996), also cited in Lynch (2003), goes on to clarify that the link between testing and washback is not that clear. Good teachers can offset this problem of formatted instruction by modeling their instruction in a way that creates communicative learning, but that is not always possible depending upon the material required for the student to do well on the test.

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Article Title

Collocation Errors Made by Arab Learners of English

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Abstract

Systematic and in-depth analyses of EFL learners' lexical errors in general and of collocation errors in particular are relatively rare. This study presents empirical data verifying the informal observations and theoretic assertions that EFL learners produce 'unnatural' word combinations. A total of 420 collocations were found in 42 essays written by Arabic-speaking university students majoring in English. About two thirds of these collocations (64%) were incorrect and 80% of these were lexical collocations as opposed to grammatical ones. Sixty one percent of the incorrect combinations could be due to negative transfer from Arabic. The fact that post-intermediate and advanced students of EFL have a relatively large stock of vocabulary might have motivated interlingual transfer in the belief that it would be easy to find the EFL equivalents of the Arabic lexical items. These findings suggest the necessity of direct teaching of collocations, inclusion of bilingual glossaries in the EFL course books, and designing bilingual collocation dictionaries.

Introduction

A learner's interlanguage is distinguished from the full-fledged language of a competent speaker by the fact that the former exhibits features indicating the incomplete mastery of the code. The learner's language is characterized by linguistically incorrect and/or contextually inappropriate forms and expressions. Both types of deviations are labeled 'errors' when they result from a lack of competence in the language. In addition to linguistic and pragmatic deviations, an interlanguage may exhibit certain forms that are linguistically and pragmatically correct but still sound 'unnatural' or 'strange', (Bridges, 1990; Emery, 1987; Swan, 1995). This 'strangeness' is captured by an inclusive definition of 'error' such as the one proposed by Lennon (1991, p.182):

"a linguistic form … which, in the same context, would in all likelihood not be produced by the learner's native speaker counterpart."

While the field of language teaching and learning is rich in studies of foreign language learners' linguistic and pragmatic errors, (see e.g. Kharma and Hajjaj, 1997; Lott, 1983; Ringbom, 1992; Swan and Smith, 1987), research on 'strangeness' of linguistic forms and expressions is lagging behind. Impetus to studies on 'strangeness' is given by the fact that post-intermediate and advanced learners of EFL may not face structural and pragmatic problems, nevertheless, their language sounds 'unnatural, or 'odd'. Therefore, studies are needed such as that reported by Mahmoud (2003) where university students' errors in binomials were analyzed. The need for such studies stems from the fact that EFL students' lexical errors have not been given due attention, (see also Taiwo, 2004). The present study sheds light on EFL learners' errors in the use of collocations. Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) touched briefly on this area in an attempt to cover as many areas as possible.

They wrote a short paragraph on Arab students' collocation errors based on data collected by means of multiple-choice questions focusing only on verb-noun combinations. Only two options were given in some cases and four in other cases. The purpose of the present study is to collect, classify and analyze the collocation errors in the free written English of post-intermediate and advanced Arab learners of EFL, thus adding one more ring to the still short chain of studies in the area of lexis in general and the area of collocations in particular. An analysis of collocation errors can reveal the problems that EFL learners encounter and the causes of these problems in that area and help teachers and EFL specialists find appropriate ways of dealing with them in the EFL course.

Collocations: Definition and Importance

Most of the researchers who define collocation agree that it is a lexical unit consisting of a cluster of two or three words from different parts of speech, (see e.g. Baker, 1992; Benson, Benson and Ilson, 1997; Williams, 2002). Most of the definitions are paraphrases of Firth's (1957, p.183) definition that collocations are "words in habitual company". For the purpose of this study we define collocations as two words belonging to different grammatical categories to exclude binomials where the two words are from the same category and are connected implicitly or explicitly by a conjunction (e.g. and, or) or a preposition such as "in" or "by" (e.g. push and shove, sick and tired, here and there, in and out, life and death, hand in hand, dead or alive). Another reason for exclusion of binomials is that they were quantified and analyzed by the present writer in a separate article, (Mahmoud, 2003). Yet another reason is that very few

binomials were detected in the data studied for the purpose of this study. This could be due to the fact that the students believed that many binomials were informal, hence they avoided them in their formal written production.

Regarding the types of collocation, there are open collocations and restricted ones. In open collocations, the words can cluster with a wide range of other words whereas in restricted collocations, they are fixed like idioms, (for more information see e.g. Al-Salmani, 2001; Emery, 1991). Such word combinations are also classified respectively as grammatical and lexical collocations. Grammatical collocations are combinations where a preposition is used with a noun, a verb or an adjective, (e.g. by accident, admiration for, agree with, account for, afraid of, amazed at). Lexical collocations include:

[1] Verb + Noun (e.g. break a code, lift a blockade)

[2] Verb + Adverb (e.g. affect deeply, appreciate sincerely)

[3] Noun + Verb (e.g. water freezes, clock ticks)

[4] Adjective + Noun (e.g. strong tea, best wishes)

[5] Adverb + Adjective (e.g. deeply absorbed, closely related)

(for more elaborate linguistic analyses of collocations see e.g. Al-Salmani, 2002; Baker, 1992; Emery, 1991).

Acquisition and correct production of such word combinations is a mark of an advanced level of proficiency in a language. As Lewis (1997, p.15) puts it "fluency is based on the acquisition of a large store of fixed or semi-fixed prefabricated items." James (1998, p.152) also agrees that the correct usage of collocations "contributes greatly to one's idiomaticity and nativelikeness." Taiwo (2004) sees lexical errors and grammatical errors as equally important. Sonaiya (1988) goes even further to say that lexical errors are more serious because effective communication depends on the choice of words.

After more than a decade of foreign language study, many Arab learners of English make collocation errors. According to Thomas (1984, p.187), this is "hardly surprising, given the vast scope and very idiosyncratic use of lexical items and collocations." As stated earlier, no elaborate studies that we know of have attempted to quantify and analyze Arab students' errors in the use of English collocations. What has been published on such errors so far is either a brief account based on informal observation (e.g. Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989) or a purely predictive contrastive analysis

of collocations in English and Arabic (e.g. Emery, 1987; Farghal and Shunnaq, 1999). Therefore, in this study we intend to present empirical data verifying the theoretical claims and informal observations about collocation problems encountered by Arab learners of EFL.

Quantification and Analysis

The data for this study consisted of 42 essays written by male and female third-year Arabic speaking university students majoring in English. Regarding their proficiency in EFL and judging from their grades in the language skills courses, most of these students were post-intermediate and a few were advanced level. They were given a list of topics to choose from (e.g. Euthanasia, Mobile Phones, Arranged Marriage, Customs and Traditions, etc.). In addition, they were given the freedom to write on any social issue of their choice. The essays were written as a homework assignment and ranged from one and half to two single-spaced pages in length.

The students were not told that their use of collocations would be studied. Had they been told, they might have underused or overused such word combinations. As the essays were written as part of their weekly writing exercise, the language they produced was linguistically natural. A total of 420 grammatical and lexical collocations were found. These were listed and given to three native-speaking university teachers of English to check whether they were correct. The grammatical collocations amounted to 84 (20%). There were 336 (80%) lexical collocations, most of which were Verb+Noun and Noun+Verb combinations. The three judges agreed that 269 collocations were incorrect (i.e. unnatural), (see Table 1).

Table (1)

Number and Percentage of Correct and Incorrect

Grammatical and Lexical Collocations Found

	Correct		Incorrect		Total	
	No.	%	No	%	No	%
Grammatical	39	9.28	45	10.71	84	20
Lexical	112	26.67	224	53.33	336	80
Total	151	36	269	64	420	100

Note: The percentage is a function of the total number (420)

Table (1) shows that most of the collocations produced by the 42 students were lexical (336 - 80%) and most of the grammatical and lexical collocations detected were incorrect (269 - 64%). The incorrect grammatical collocations amounted to 45 (10.71%) and the incorrect lexical ones were 224 (53.33%). The students produced 151 (36%) correct collocations, 39 (9.28%) of which were grammatical and 112 (26.67) were lexical. The correctly produced collocations could have been acquired through exposure to the language or they might have been positively transferred from Arabic. However, some of the lexical collocations could not be due to interlingual transfer from Arabic. For instance, if the collocations valuable advice, bring about a change, full answer, break relationship, fatal accident were transferred from Arabic, the resulting collocations could have been *expensive advice, lead to a change, complete answer, *cut relationship, and * killing accident respectively. Needless to say, interlingual transfer does not necessarily lead to error (e.g. complete answer). Some correctly produced collocations such as reach an agreement, save marriage, critical moment, a white lie, an old custom and lose contact could have been picked up from the language input or positively transferred from Arabic.

A total of 269 collocations (64%) were incorrect; 224 (83%) of these were lexical and 45 (17%) were grammatical. In all of the incorrect grammatical collocations, the errors were cases of selection or addition of an incorrect preposition and most of them seem to be due to negative interlingual transfer from Arabic.

Examples:
* by this way (in) - * by money (for) - * in the phone (on) - * on contact (in) -
* ends with (in) - * remind with (of) - * spend money in (on) - * addicted by (to) -
* affect in health - * seeking for help - * contact with him -* responsible from (for)

The incorrect lexical collocations were 224 (83.27%); 210 (94%) of these were Verb+Noun combinations. The rest (14 - 6%) were Adjective+Noun combinations as in:

* large thinking - * artificial information - * complete life -
* a small accident

[1] Word Choice: where the choice of one word or both words is incorrect
(A) One word incorrect
* repair his mistake - * make the homework - * Al-Qaidah arrangement
* pray the prayers - * work your work - * rest a full rest

(B) Both words incorrect

* destroyed houses (= broken homes)

* basic machine (= important device)

* hurts the mind (= harms the brain)

[2] Word Form: where the form of a word is incorrect

* wants to get marriage * a famous musician band

* his economical problems * It was a failure marriage

[3] Contextual errors: linguistically correct but contextually incorrect

* bring a boy (= give birth to a boy)

* lose dignity (= lose virginity)

* finish business (= do business)

* carrying her baby (= pregnant with her baby)

As far as the sources of the errors are concerned, 164 (61%) of the incorrect collocations could be attributed to negative interlingual transfer. Interlingual transfer is an indispensable learning communication strategy employed by foreign language learners at all levels of proficiency, (see e.g. Bhela, 1999; Mahmoud, 2000; Odlin, 1989; Ringbom, 1987; Sheen, 2001; Tang, 2002). Another factor that may account for the interlingual errors in collocations is that post-intermediate and advanced learners have a relatively large stock of target language vocabulary. Hence they may think it would be easy for them to find equivalents to their mother tongue collocations. In the case of Arabic-speaking students, there are two varieties of Arabic from which they can transfer: modern standard Arabic (MSA) and non-standard Arabic (NSA), (see Mahmoud, 2000). The interlingual errors detected in the present study give support to Mahmoud's (ibid) findings. Many errors could be attributed to both MSA and NSA due to the similarity of the two varieties.

Examples:

* grow fear in him (= yazra') * do by his advice (= ya'mal)

* abbreviate time (= yakhtasir) * do a mistake (= ya'mal)

* make an accident (= ya'mal) * big responsibility (= kabeera)

However, some interlingual errors could be attributed solely to NSA because transfer from MSA could have led to the selection of different English equivalents as in:

* bring problems (NSA = yijeeb) (MSA : yusabbib = cause)

* say his opinion (NSA = yaqool) (MSA : yubdi = show - yu'abbir = express)

* make problems (NSA = ya'mal) (MSA : yusabbib = cause)

* bring a high grade (NSA = yijeeb) (MSA : yahsul ala = get / obtain)

Some interlingual errors reflect students' problems within their first language. In other words, students confused two similar words in Arabic and that confusion was reflected in English. For instance, the error in * violate the promise could be due to the fact that the student confused yukhlif (= to go back on) with yukhalif (= violate). The error in *gain language could be due to the student's inability to see the difference between yaksab (= gain / win) and yaktasib (= acquire) in Arabic.

The intralingual errors were 105 (39%). These were regarded as intralingual because transfer from Arabic (MSA or NSA) would not have led to such errors as in:

* took my attention * make solutions * answer the mistake

* large thinking * transfer my feeling * artificial information

* produce a decision

Since phrasal verbs do not exist in Arabic, errors such as * break out problems and * run off pain could not be interlingual. Confusion with similar words in English may be the reason behind word combinations such as:

* connect our family (= contact) * restore notes (= store)

* medium of communication (= means) * adjust shops (= adjacent)

Conclusion and Implications:

This paper adds to the few studies so far conducted in the area of lexical errors of foreign language learners in general and the errors of Arab learners of English in particular. It provides empirical data verifying the belief that collocations constitute an area of difficulty in learning English as a foreign language. The findings of this study support the claim that Arabic-speaking

students commit errors when producing collocations in English, especially the lexical combinations. Errors indicate that EFL students depend on interlingual and intralingual strategies to facilitate learning. Such strategies help in case of perceived linguistic similarities and lead to problems in case of differences. Most of the incorrect lexical collocations found in this study were due to interlingual transfer from Arabic. Impetus to such transfer is given by the fact that university students majoring in English have a relatively large stock of vocabulary. Hence they employ the interlingual transfer strategy whereby they replace the Arabic words with English ones. As a result, some collocations were produced correctly due either to positive interlingual transfer or direct acquisition from the language input.

As it is the case with errors in grammar and spelling, for example, there is no magic formula for correction of collocation errors. In addition to exposure to the language through reading and listening, learners of EFL could benefit from direct teaching and exercises aimed at raising awareness of collocations, (see Ellis, 1997; Williams, 2002). Depending on the students' cognitive development, simplified contrastive comparisons between English and Arabic collocations might help students see when to transfer and when not to. In fact, a survey of the English language course books - Our World Through English series (OWTE) - used at the preparatory and secondary levels in Oman was carried out for the purpose of this study. Only three short exercises are given in a six-year curriculum and these exercises incidentally touch on a few verb+noun combinations. The tasks are intended to practice stative verbs, plural nouns, and adverbs of frequency. More exercises are needed that focus on all types of word-combinations. Matching tasks and collocation grids such as those suggested by Channell (1981) and Nation (1990) could be included and recycled in the curriculum.

In addition to direct teaching tasks, a bilingual list of collocations could be included in the course books. This is in line with the students' tendency to transfer collocations from Arabic as reflected by the interlingual errors discussed earlier. The OWTE books used in the Omani schools contain glossaries of bilingual vocabulary items covered in each unit. These single words could be replaced by word combinations. Such bilingual lists of collocations might help in counteracting interlingual errors. They may show the students when to transfer from Arabic and when not to. They could also be a source of input for direct acquisition. Since collocations are fixed lexical units, as opposed to free single lexical items, they could be listed with their Arabic equivalents at the end of each unit or at the end of each course book instead of the bilingual vocabulary lists. In addition to the monolingual collocation dictionaries (e.g. Benson et al, 1997; Hill and Lewis, 1997), bilingual English-Arabic and Arabic-English dictionaries of collocations

are needed. Such dictionaries could be useful not only to the learners of English but also to English-Arabic-English translators.

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Article Title

A New Approach to Teaching English as a Foreign Language:

The Bottom-Up Approach

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Abstract

Much has been said and written over the years about the merit or other of the traditional teaching methods. Most language teaching methods have closely adhered to the ad hoc top-to-bottom listening-speaking-reading-writing order (e.g. the Audio-lingual Method) or have been single-faceted methods which sacrifice many parts of language in favour of one part (e.g. the Reading Method). The Bottom-Up Approach is a revolutionized way of teaching foreign languages in which the traditional order has been reversed. In the current thinking the bottom of language is writing, which is considered secondary to other language skills. However, it is emphasized here that this is a misconception. A major obstacle to foreign language learning is the fear of making mistakes, especially when one presents oneself in public. Writing is a private negotiation with the self. It eliminates fear and anxiety, and creates an atmosphere in the light of which students gain confidence as they progress towards total language.

Introduction:

The English language teaching tradition has been subjected to a tremendous change. The change has either been due to the reaction of learners and / or teachers to a given method or has been due to changes in linguistics and psychology theories. Despite such changes one or two older methods (e.g. the Grammar Translation Method) remain stalwart and impervious to educational reforms. The reason for this could be the shortcomings associated with most modern language teaching methods. Nowadays, for example, there is a lot of talk about communication and developing communicative skills. Unfortunately, however, even this has not solved the language problem of many learners in different parts of the world. The problem may be inherent in the Communicative

Method itself, or it could be the result of absence of motivation on the part of learners. Looking at the problem from different angles, we find that lack of motivation is the main cause of learners' apathy towards language learning. Why do learners fail abysmally at the end of a long period of wheelings and dealings in the classroom? The answer: anxiety, fear, lack of privacy.

Nearly all language teaching approaches have emphasized a top-to-bottom methodology; that is, listening-speaking-reading-writing. The Bottom-Up Approach, however, reverses the emphasis of the traditional top-to-bottom approaches, and puts writing at a higher level of focus. The reason is that writing is an independent activity which removes fear and anxiety, and offers privacy and autonomy.

Review of the major past methods

The Grammar Translation Method

The Grammar Translation Method goes back to the 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries when foreign language learning was associated with the learning of Latin and Greek. These two languages were supposed to promote their speakers' intellectuality. To this end, it was of vital importance to focus on grammatical rules, syntactic structures, along with rote memorization of vocabulary and translation of literary texts.

Although one can say that the Grammar Translation Method's contribution to foreign language learning has been very meagre, it is still one of the most popular and favourite models of language teaching.

The Direct Method

Francois Gouin's harrowing experiences of learning German gave him insights into the intricacies of language teaching and learning. Observing his three-year-old nephew he came to the conclusion that language learning is a matter of transforming perceptions into conceptions. Later, he devised a teaching method which was premised upon these insights. The Series Method taught learners directly a series of connected sentences which were easy to understand. Nevertheless, this method did not last long and a generation later it was replaced by Charles Berlitz's Direct Method. The basic tenet of the Direct Method was that second language learning is similar to first language learning. Although it became very popular at the beginning of the twentieth century, the Direct Method started to decline for its being difficult to use.

The Audiolingual Method

The decline of the Direct Method led to the emergence of the Audiolingual Method. The outbreak of World War II and the need for Americans to become orally proficient in the languages of their friends and foes alike contributed to the creation of the new method. Bits and pieces of the Direct Method were put together to make it, which was first known as the Army Method. Although the Audiolingual Method takes much from the Direct Method, it adds features from structural linguistics and behavioural psychology.

With the attack on the concept of verbal behaviour (Chomsky 1959) , with the attention of linguists and language teachers to the deep structure of language (Chomsky 1965) , and with psychologists' taking account of the affective and interpersonal nature of learning (Hilgard 1963) the Audiolingual Method was doomed to failure . As a result of this, a new generation of methods emerged. David Nunan (1989) referred to these methods as designer methods which attempted to capitalize on the importance of psychological factors in language learning.

Suggestopedia

Lozanov, the founder of Sugggestopedia, believed that we are capable of learning much more than we think, provided we use our brain power and inner capacities. Relaxation and music played vital role in the method. With classical music in the background and with students sitting in comfortable seats vocabulary, readings, role-plays, and drama were presented. In this way students became suggestible.

Suggestopedia suffered from a major setback. What will happen if our classrooms are bereft of such amenities as comfortable seats and CD players? Evidence shows that this is indeed the case, and most classrooms lack such facilities.

The Silent Way

The Silent Way rested on cognitive rather than affective arguments, and was characterized by a problem-solving approach to learning. Gattengo believed that it is in learners' best interest to develop independence and autonomy and cooperate with each other in solving language problems. The name of the method comes from the fact that the teacher keep silent and refuses to explain everything to learners.

The Silent way came under attack on account of the teacher being distant and the classroom environment not being conducive to learning.

Communicative Language Teaching

Defining and redefining the construct of communicative competence (Hymes 1972; Canale and Swain 1980), exploring the vast array of functions of language (Wilkins 1976), and relentless need for communication led to the emergence of the Communicative Language Teaching Method. The basic premises of this approach include:

(One) Focusing on all of the components of communicative competence: grammatical, functional, pragmatic.

(Two) Viewing fluency and accuracy as complementary principles underpinning communicative techniques.

(Three) Using the language in unrehearsed contexts

Despite its great appeal, Communicative Language Teaching has not overcome the psychological barriers which cripple learners and hinder the learning process. Unfortunately, although it is currently in use, teachers quickly get bored and resort to the old the Grammar Translation Method.

The Bottom-Up Approach: Theoretical Description

The Bottom-Up Approach is based on motivation theory in second language learning. As Dornyei (2001: 116) notes, "… teacher skills in motivating learners should be seen as central to teaching effectiveness." Experience has proved that fear of speaking in public in a foreign language and lack of privacy eliminates motivation of language learning. Tuckman (1969, quoted in Argyle 1969) thinks that a group goes through four stages from its formation. This has important implications for the study of the classroom and the use of group activities during teaching:

Stage 1 Forming: At first, there is some anxiety among the members of the group, as they are dependent on the leader (that is, the teacher) and they have to find out what behaviour is available.

Stage 2 Storming: There is conflict between sub-groups and rebellion against the leader. Members of the group resist their leader and the role relations attending the function of the group are questioned.

Stage 3 Norming: The group begins to develop a sort of cohesion. Members of the group begin to support each other. At this stage, there is cooperation and open exchange of views and feelings about their roles and each other.

Stage 4 Performing: Most problems are resolved and there is a great deal of interpersonal activity. Everyone is devoted to completing the tasks they have been assigned.

Most learners are held down in stages 1 and 2, and do not progress towards stages 3 and 4. Learners feel anxiety whilst speaking publically. The reason is that they do not know what the correct behaviour is in the foreign language, and the principles of the method require them to communicate in the target language or follow teachers' orders at all costs. Thus, there is no balance between speaking publically and requirements of the method.

The latter leads to conflict between sub-groups and rebellion against the teacher. If the conflict is long-lived, it results in demotivation and drop-out.

Unlike other methods, the Bottom-Up Approach attempts to develop, maintain, and increase the motivation needed in language classrooms. The new method uses the process-oriented model established by Dornyei and Otto(1998). The key units of the model are as follows:

(1) Creating the basic motivational conditions, which involves setting the scene for the use of motivational strategies.

(2) Generating student motivation , which roughly corresponds to the preactional phase in the model

(3) Maintaining and protecting motivation , which corresponds to the actional phase

(4) Encouraging positive self-evaluation, which corresponds to the postactional phase.

Basic motivational conditions are requisite for the working of motivational strategies. These conditions include appropriate teacher behaviour and good teacher-student rapport, a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere, and a cohesive learner group characterized by appropriate group norms.

The learning experience is per se intrinsically pleasant for learners. However, the curiosity to learn may be vitiated by methodological straitjacket. Therefore, unless teachers increase their learners' goal-oriented ness, remove fear make teaching plans relevant for them, and create realistic learner beliefs, they will encounter a classroom environment fraught with lack of cohesiveness and rebellion.

Once learners pass the second stage, it is important to sustain and protect motivation. When the task becomes cumbersome, there is a natural tendency in learners to get tired or bored, and succumb to any attractive distractions which may result in demotivation. Therefore, there should be a motivational repertoire which includes several motivation maintenance strategies.

There are two most important of these strategies: (a) increasing learners' self-confidence; (b) creating learner autonomy.

Dornyei (2001: 130) lists five approaches to help learners maintain and increase self-confidence:

(1) Teachers can foster the belief that competence is a changeable aspect of development.

(2) Favourable self-conception of L2 competence can be promoted by providing regular experiences of success.

(3) Everyone is more interested in a task if they feel that they make a contribution.

(4) A small personal word of encouragement is sufficient.

(5) Teachers can reduce classroom anxiety by making the learning context less stressful.

Educationalists (see Benson 2000) argue that learner autonomy can prove beneficial to learning. This assumption is premised on humanistic psychology. Rogers (1991:276) notes that "The only kind of learning which significantly affects behaviour is self-discovered self-appropriated learning."

An important aspect of the Bottom-Up Approach is that it provides full autonomy for language learners. According to Good and Brophy (1994: 228), "The simplest way to ensure that people value what they are doing is maximise their free choice and autonomy." The latter is shared by Ushioda (1997:41), who thinks that "Self-motivation is a question of thinking effectively and meaningfully about learning experience and learning goals. It is a question of applying positive thought patterns and belief structures so as to optimise and sustain one's involvement in learning."

Encouraging positive self-evaluation contributes to successful task completion and self-satisfaction. By employing appropriate strategies, we can encourage language learners to achieve the latter. Dorneyei (2001: 134) explains three areas of such strategies:

(1) Promoting attributions to effort rather than ability

(2) Providing motivational feedback

(3) Increasing learner satisfaction and the question of rewards and grades.

The Method

Although the Bottom-Up Approach gives prominence to writing, it views language as a total entity. Writing provides privacy and self-negotiation for learners, and becomes a channel through which learners overcome their fear and anxiety, achieve some degree of autonomy, and kill causes of demotivation.

The method is especially beneficial to lower intermediate, intermediate, and advanced students; that is, those who have to some extent developed writing and reading ability. Therefore, a basic knowledge of the target language script is necessary for the method to work.

To start with the teacher specifies a type. A type includes the things that surround learners from without and within, from every day life chores to emotional changes, merry-making and qualms. For the type to be specifically targeted, learners need certain specialized and general vocabulary. It is the job of the teacher to supply the necessary words. The words are presented in written form on the blackboard or an overhead projector may be used. Then he/she asks learners to have a pen and paper handy. Learners should write either the answers to certain questions, or should follow orders in writing. Once all the questions and answers are complete , and all the orders are followed and done in writing , the teacher calls on learners to sit back and think for a while.

The purpose is to allow learners to negotiate with the self and arrange the answers and orders in the form of a well-organized and well-thought passage. Next come checks and balances. The teacher asks learners to exchange their compositions with their neighbours. Again, the teacher calls for learners' silence. They sit back and check out their neighbours' work very carefully. Once finished with the latter, he/she asks them to read their neighbours' compositions loudly. While they read, the teacher corrects them for their pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and style errors. Immediately after smoke is cleared, students should present their own compositions orally with other students listening attentively. At this stage, students are asked to take notes. From the notes taken from a read composition of their own choice, they may form questions, and the student in point may answer them.

Class time and arrangements are important. Each session of training will be two hours with a 15-minute break. There may be two or three sessions per week. The duration of a course may last anywhere between two to three months. Circle classes are preferable, as students can face each other and the exchange of ideas will be smoother. The teacher's seat can be anywhere in the circle. He/she may stand up and move around with ease. Relevant equipment may be used. This depends on the type in action. For a social type, for example, displaying a video film with people interacting and socializing may invoke fresh ideas for students to compose their thoughts and form questions or answer questions.

Discussion

The Bottom-UP Approach is compatible with the proposed method. At the first stage , with the teacher providing the necessary words for a given type and asking questions in the target

language and allowing learners to take their time in writing answers , anxiety in learners and conflict between sub-groups and rebellion against the teacher are partially eliminated. Anxiety and fear is fully removed at the second stage when learners put their answers together, negotiate with the self, and develop self-reliance. The following stages contribute to a great deal of interpersonal activity. Such interpersonal activity creates necessary conditions which generate and maintain motivation in learners. It finally results in positive self-evaluation, and further self-reliance.

The method also promotes individualism and autonomy which in part give rise to creativeness and inventiveness. Individual feeling of success creates favourable self-conception and increases interest in the task. This, in turn, encourages students to have more learning experiences.

Conclusion

Teaching English as a foreign language has always been a controversial issue. Various teaching methods have come into vogue and disappeared. Most of these methods have followed the traditional top to bottom approach; i.e. listening has been placed on the top and been given a major priority, but writing has been sent down to the bottom and been rid of its important role in learning foreign languages. The Bottom-Up Approach has reversed the traditional order of language teaching and has put writing in focus.

The shift of the order is based on the theory of motivation. Anxiety and fear are two major terminators of motivation in foreign language learning. Without learner motivation no method can succeed. Anxiety and fear stem from lack of privacy and autonomy. The new approach creates moments of privacy for learners to negotiate with the self and gradually progress towards total language.

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Article Title

Rude Thoughts About IT in Language Education

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Bio Data:

Thor May has been teaching English to non-native speakers, and lecturing linguistics, since 1976. This work has taken him to seven countries in Oceania and East Asia, mostly with tertiary students, but with a couple of detours to teach secondary students and young children. He has trained teachers in Australia, Fiji and South Korea. At the moment he is teaching in Chungju National University, South Korea. Many of his papers, essays and stories may be seen on his website at http://thormay.net

Introduction

Information Technology in language teaching probably began with papyrus. It has attracted admirers and detractors ever since. This paper takes a slightly irreverent look at current IT, as well as its actual and potential uses in foreign and second language education. The power of commerce in IT development has always been a prime motivator, so the analysis here recognizes the essential economic context, with the resulting effects on language learning.

Some time ago I was approached by an entrepreneur who was thinking about getting out of the concrete pylon business and making a new fortune in the wonderland of Information Technology applied to language teaching. Concrete mixes surely have the odd problem with foreign bodies, but it seemed to me that IT and language education were an entirely less stable porridge. This short paper is a fairly crude attempt to label some of the elements in the IT-language mix, together with a few irreverent observations on the alchemy : past, present and possible future. Professionals in this trade may be piqued by more than the mixed metaphors here, but their search and mine for an occasional flash of gold in the pan will keep us all shovelling.

1. The commercial dynamic

a) Someone, somewhere will buy almost anything, given energetic marketing. However, although

commercial success is usually a necessary condition for an educational enterprise, it is not a sufficient condition for educational success. It is extremely easy to forget this when the money starts rolling in. The planet is littered with courses that contribute little to human competence (not only language courses) even though the schools and universities which host them may be profitable and prestigious. Everywhere there are bookshops bulging with language learning materials which make some publishers a profit but which are really little more (nor less) useful than the labels on jam jars for learning a language. Any program making use of IT will also be vulnerable to this condition. As with the audio-lingual frenzy which preceded it, the commercial (and hence political) enthusiasm for electronic information technology has only been resisted by a few techno-doubters; (see Robertson 2003 for a discussion of this issue).

2. Is language teaching necessary?

Language teaching and the products it gives rise to (schools, books etc), are probably the world's oldest confidence trick scams. The dropout rate in American foreign language courses can be up to 95%. (Asher 2003). What other profession or business could tolerate that kind of failure level? Even for a country where university freshman dropouts matches the divorce rate at about 50% (an incredible wastage on both counts) the language failure is extreme. In such an environment, a language course or 'method' which enjoys modest success can seem like magic. Foreign language programs in other countries have variable success, but a common pattern in formal education is a very low return on the teaching investment.

Where useful language learning is achieved, it is often by no means clear what contribution 'good' or 'bad' teaching makes, nor what 'good' or 'bad' resources really contribute. For example, in a country like Papua New Guinea, which has around 800 languages, and very little effective formal education for much of the population, it is quite normal for many people to have a working control of three languages. The same is true in India and many other so-called Third World communities. However, some countries with abundant technology and supposedly advanced education systems like Australia, South Korea and Japan are abject failures in transmitting a second language to the overwhelming majority of citizens. North European states are somewhat more effective. What is going on?

A percentage of learners in almost any human activity drop out, and only a limited number ever become true masters. Thus there is a kind of selective funnel. The problem with language education in institutional settings is that the funnel is shallow (initiates are lost quickly, although school systems may artificially retain failures 'in storage') and those who finally squeeze through are few. The characteristics of this learning funnel are too complex to explore in depth

here, but we can note in passing that objectives (e.g. accuracy Vs fluency), and techniques or methods which are congenial to advanced learners (and/or the kinds of learners who progress to that stage) are not necessarily appropriate for the mass of learners who first enter the field. Similarly, the mix of technologies which can be usefully applied to language learning and teaching may well vary at different stages of the process. This is an issue which seems to have received too little attention.

There are also more general critical factors in language learning success. The main ones (I think) are a) motivation, b) consistency of effort, c) a real domain for using the new language, d) immediate, genuine 'reward' for communicative success, and e) competition for the students' time & attention. For example my home country, Australia, loses on all these factors. Second language ability is seen to be almost irrelevant to life success by most Australians. Native-born Australians speak the world's common tongue, English, and where interpreting is needed, a bottomless pool of immigrants can supply it cheaply for almost any language. Moreover, life in Australia is complex, fast, and has endless distractions. People are quickly drawn away from boring, difficult language learning. This attention problem sometimes also affects the very intelligent. In China, as a group the Ph.D. students who I taught seemed far inferior as classroom language learners to undergraduates (English majors). There could be several reasons, but I suspect that the Ph.D.s had extreme demands from elsewhere on their limited available attention.

3. Geniuses, ordinary teachers, and machines

I have only ever met a few truly gifted language teachers (I don't count myself in that elite). What they seemed to share was a charisma and uncanny empathy with each student -- the kind of magic that would motivate people to do anything for them -- combined with a wisdom in offering just that information to a student which he or she could absorb in their present state of understanding. Such skills will always be rare, and no mass education system can depend on them.

What merely mortal teachers CAN do is minimize the disincentives to learning found in most large institutions, and be very cunning about competing for the attention of our distracted students, in and out of the classroom.

Any kind of technology used in language teaching is subject to the same iron laws of success as a human teacher. It will succeed to the extent that --

i) attention is captured and held
ii) content is memorable
iii) students feel that technology and content are useful and adapted to their needs

iv) systems are flexible enough to be modified

iv) content and technology are physically accessible on demand

v) students feel strongly motivated to access it regularly

vi) the technology and content comes at a price which the market can bear

4. The awful example of the Audio-Lingual Revolution

There are now good and bad audiolingual courses, either of which may be used smartly or foolishly. However a generation ago the arrival of the tape recorder in mass consumer markets gave rise to a marketing frenzy in the language teaching business. It happened to coincide with the academic fashion of Skinnerian operant conditioning (training rats in mazes with incentives etc). Suddenly language learning success would be guaranteed to everybody. No school was properly equipped unless it had an expensive Tandberg language laboratory, and fat volumes of drills in the desired target languages (e.g. see Ledgerwood 1996). Cohorts of students were bored frantic, trapped in their lab booths, repeating stupid, often unrelated sentences over and over. Some human beings are remarkably determined, and a few even learned a foreign language in this way, particularly if they were auditory learners; (I'm a motor learner myself - I learn best by writing or doing things physically). But of course there was a reaction, and language teachers went searching for a host of other 'magical' solutions.

The audio-lingual crash was a prime example of 1960s geek-talk being taken over by the commercial markets, turned into a commercial product and flogged to a mass consumer base. It made money, but there had to come a moment of educational truth. So-called advanced IT will go the same way in education, unless it is tamed as a tool.

The purpose of this little paper is not to discredit technology, but to gently remind us of the effects that technology can have. Even where technology uptake seems to succeed, the Law of Unintended Consequences can spring surprises in language teaching and learning. There are twenty-four hours in a day, and considerably fewer in a language classroom. We can easily spend an hour fiddling with some clunky video display when the same hour given to conversation would have been immensely more beneficial.

That's not all. Lawrence McCluskey (1994) slyly introduces McCluskey's Corollary to Gresham's Law: "Lower-order thought processes drive higher-order thought processes out of circulation;" (Gresham's Law is the dictum that bad money drives out good). Thus half the population, for example, can no longer do a simple multiplication because calculators are ubiquitous. In other words, when it comes to language education, we have to think carefully about whether a bit of technology in the long run will add to language skills, or amputate them.

The learner always comes first. Tools can change, but learner psychology will not change (though it may be subverted). Nor will many teachers change easily. Most language teachers, and a high percentage of students, are more or less technological imbeciles. Many even have trouble working a tape recorder efficiently (teachers and students). New technologies must therefore be idiot-proof, or at least care needs to taken in skilling teachers in such technology (e.g. see Nellen 2001). This is one argument for making the maximum use of existing, familiar technologies like TVs and mobile phones.

5. So what can we do with Information Technology in language learning education?

The current concept of IT embraces widely divergent technologies, although the links amongst them are becoming more fluid. Those elements most useful in education are likely to grow from an innovative marriage of the old and the new. For example ...

a) the science fiction cyborg is a mixture human and machine components. Future language teachers may well act like cyborgs in marrying their own abilities with a variety of technologies. Thus it will be increasingly easy to deal with students who are displaced in space and/or time. Writing has given us that ability for centuries, but the Internet, telephony, video telephony, even 3-D holography will give the process dramatic immediacy. With immediacy comes the chance to boost motivation. For example, skin-sensors may well be able to transmit the emotional reactions of students in another country and culture, even where language fails. Wisely used, that could be a powerful tool.

b) There are already numerous initiatives underway to coach students in language over the Internet. These range from dealing with entire classes to one on one tuition. The Internet is such a multi-faceted and enabling technology that it has created a whole new internationalized culture. This in itself provides an added set of reasons for becoming multilingual. The effect will only accelerate as broadband becomes the norm, access prices fall, and mobile usage spreads.

i) At its simplest, the Internet is a huge database. Individuals and institutions have used it extensively to store, organize and present an endless range of information on language learning and language teaching. Thus anyone with good Internet access who intends to learn a language can use resources which were unthinkable even a decade ago. The quality varies widely, and the cost ranges from free to commercially prohibitive. Now information access is often less a supply problem than a user problem of available time, skills, initiative and intelligence.

ii) Almost all educational institutions now have some kind of Internet presence. For a diminishing few it is merely an electronic advertisement. Others would not exist without it, and offer the full

range of Internet learning technologies and resources. Most now use an online Learning Mangagement System (LMS)to organize and present content. There is a vigorous contest here between commercial products and open access, sometimes free, systems. The best of these LMS systems encourage both simultaneous and asynchronous interaction between students and teachers by creating an online workspace. Again the full potential is often inhibited by staff or students who are unskilled or even allergic to making use of technology.

iii) An emerging technology which (I think) could have a profound effect on the use of the Internet for language teaching is asynchronous voice communication. That is, the spoken message is stored for later access by a receiver. Some readers may be familiar with 'voice mail' - a kind of remote message recorder. An online limitation of this has been the large amounts of electronic memory and bandwith devoured by even digital sound. However, the Wimba Company has integrated asynchronous voice communication with an LMS in a way that is proving extremely popular with harried lecturers and students. Now the public domain LMS, Moodle, is researching a similar system. Behind the scenes, a lot of work is being done on Voice XML to drive technologies like this. For most people voice is both quicker and less intimidating than print, but up to now online chat has required both parties to be simultaneously available.

iv) Every one of my Korean students has an e-mail address. E-mail is a related but different technology to the Internet. It has spawned its own problems and opportunities (e.g. see Gonglewski et. al. 2001). We are all familiar with the commercial nightmare of spam. However, a range of international publications like newspapers are now also available via this medium, usually for free, while there are thousands of list-servers to keep special interest groups informed (e.g see the University of Oregon English Mailing Lists). E-mail's use as a language learning medium has been slower to develop, although a large amount of unstructured communication takes place amongst pen-friends etc. Since e-mail is both asynchronous and simple, it does offer certain teaching advantages (and limitations). Voice e-mail programs have been available for quite a while and should offer special opportunities for language exchanges.

c) Mobile phones are now ubiquitous and have an ever multiplying repertoire of functions. It would be foolhardy to ignore a language medium as powerful as this. My students can use them for dictionary lookups, as a database, for web access, games, text-messaging, and videos, as well as chatter. This urge to chatter says something profound about the nature of the human cognitive language machine. Students may turn up to class without an exercise book or pen, but never without the mobile phone. With the spread of mobile phones, telephone tutoring is also beginning to appear. SMS text messaging on mobiles is another obvious medium for language teaching. A problem with all of these attempts (as with ordinary teaching) is that the

services of skilled tutors are comparatively rare and expensive. Can the tutors be replaced?

d) Some low wage countries, especially India, now employ thousands of call-center staff fluent in English to service clients in English speaking countries like the United States and Australia. It is conceivable that an elite of such Indian call-center staff could be trained to tutor English in other countries, using the same kind of intercontinental line-leasing arrangements as existing call-centers. One can envisage all kinds of problems in getting this business up and running (not least the training costs), but it seems possible in principle. However, many normal call centre staff in India are already finding the pressure of having split cultural personalities debilitating. The communicative intentions of, say, a twenty-year old female student in Shanghai and a 40 year old male Indian teacher in Hyderabad will easily go astray.

e) Computer voice recognition is a kind of holy grail for the IT industry. There has been some progress with native-speaker voices in controlled contexts (e.g. software like Dragon Voice). However, useful computer voice recognition for non-native speakers in a language learning context seems to me to be well over the horizon. Bear in mind that cross cultural communication (indeed much in-country communication too) is not merely the recognition of phonemes (difficult enough) but involves a constant clash of cultural presuppositions which require sophisticated choices for a human being (let alone a computer) to decode.

f) Talk bots : In the 1960s artificial intelligence researchers were amazed to discover that some psychiatric patients preferred to 'talk' to a computer program called Eliza. Eliza, written in the Lisp programming language, was an assembly of non-committal recorded comments and questions, triggered by key words in the patients' typed sentences. In fact Eliza mimicked the mirroring behaviour beloved of live psychiatrists, but patients felt safer with the machine since it was non-judgemental. A number of more sophisticated "chatter-bots" have since been developed. The enthusiasts for this technology see chatter-bots as a way to encourage fluency without the expense of hiring tutors (see the links in the reference section below).

g) Experienced teachers know that students are often greatly assisted if they can be persuaded to adopt another persona in the learning process. It seems to free them from the inhibitions of their normal personality. The oldest, and still one of the most effective tools in this game are puppets. Drama, dance, songs etc. are other manifestations. Now the Internet has given us whole new worlds, literally, where people not only adopt new personas, or "avatars"(they even buy them in many interactive games), but may become immersed in them for weeks at a time. There is an obvious opening here for language teaching/learning. Success in constructing such a medium for language teaching on a mass scale would require genuine talent (of the order that goes into feature film productions), and the developmental costs could be high. However, given

the right environment there is scope here for a real teaching revolution. Early hosts to the emergence of avatars in language learning were MOOs or multi-user environments. These virtual worlds may be entirely text-based or supported by an actual online 3D visual space. As with novels versus video, text-based MOOs are imagination-rich and sites such as Schmooze University attract a dedicated clientele.

h) When it comes to capturing the attention of the video generation, video parlour games (and their computerized relatives) are fierce competitors. In South Korea (where I work) everyone under twenty seems to spend a large part of their lives in these places. We are not going to beat the video parlours, but we might subvert some of them. Again, it would take great cunning. Wrestling with the inflections of a foreign tongue has not given past generations the thrill that kids get from blowing electronic heads off. As with computer gaming, this is a subversion requiring real talent and creativity, genuine empathy for the clients, and probably high development costs. Again though, the payoff could be impressive, especially if "educational game parlours" were staffed by competent tutor-advisors.

i) Simulators have been around for a long while now, but are usually restricted to training high level professionals like aircraft pilots and (increasingly) doctors. Flight simulators have been partly mimicked by computer game programs. There is no reason that training simulators cannot have voice accompaniment, thus combining skill training with language training. For certain kinds of students this is the only sort of language training that will ever work. The TPR (total physical response) method of language teaching exploits the fact that many people are tactile and motor learners. They learn by doing. One can envisage "talking tools" simulators in virtual environments. For example, as a mechanics trainee tightens a (virtual) nut it could squeak "hey! too hard!" and sheer off. The language simulator concept has now apparently been sold to the US military (see articles by Eng, Mankin, Mote et al 2004).

Speech can be used in three ways in simulated environments : i) to comment on a performed action; ii) simultaneous with an action; iii) to warn or instruct before an action, and hence anticipate consequences. The third option might be the most powerful in language teaching. The drawback to simulated environments in language teaching is that, at least at present, they require expensive software and hardware which is not available to large numbers of people -- and certainly not in countries like China.

j) Certain consumer electronic items are so widespread in the population that is seems almost perverse to ignore them as teaching tools. Television has spawned TV Universities, and large numbers of language courses. Countries like China and South Korea have run TV English courses for years. The best of these programs sometimes feature presenters and styles that

become nationally famous. The worst are mere camera shots of talking heads. A limitation of even the best TV is inflexibility and inability to offer student feedback. Broadband cable TV offers some scope to remedy this, although TV production is an expensive business.

MP3 players are natural language learning tools. I hardly use a tape recorder for language learning myself anymore. It is so much more convenient to convert the language tapes and audio CDs to MP3 (in violation of all copyright!). The player is so small that I can carry it around in my pocket anywhere. It uploads and downloads to a computer instantly, and has a built in microphone. Only inertia and fear of piracy in established publishing companies can be stoping them from offering downloadable MP3 language learning material. The piracy concern is legitimate, but not beatable now or in the future. Probably the only way around it is to keep offering added value (new content) from a paid source.

For a certain age and income group PDAs also offer an obvious channel for language learning content. This is especially true of devices like the Sony Clie which has multimedia capabilities. As with MP3 players, PDAs are carried around, offering instant access in quiet moments for busy people. Something to watch is that languages like those in the Middle East and East Asia have special fonts which only some PDAs can handle. In South Korea at least mobile phones have squeezed out PDAs.

6. How can IT learning technologies be spread?

a) IT learning technologies may spread through traditional educational institutions and teachers. This is a captive market. A drawback is that competition against existing educational mediums (teachers, books, language labs etc.) is rarely welcomed and may be actively suppressed. Purchasing choices tend to be conservative, using institutional rather than personal funds. On the other hand, when purchases are made, they are often of high monetary value. Large corporations like Apple and Microsoft have actively given away products to schools to help language teaching etc., with an obvious commercial intention to create long-term dependence on their proprietary formats.

b) IT learning technologies may piggyback on existing consumer markets for music, games, videos etc., or even packaged food. This is truly mass marketing. In the past educational piggybacking of this kind has sometimes conveyed a strong flavour of propaganda. For example, Singapore and China have both been venues where Big Brother teaches the masses some brand of "virtue". Naturally there is always a degree of resistance and distaste for propaganda. This unfortunate legacy may have to be overcome if language teaching is to be piggybacked extensively on existing media. A special case of piggybacking is the religious market. Both

historically and currently much of the most energetic language propagation has been to advance one creed or another. Whatever the virtues of these religions, their agents and their resources continue to play a significant role in spreading both literacy and knowledge about the world's languages.

c) IT learning technologies may develop unique channels of consumer access. This is not easy, but it has been done in other fields. For example, personal computing software has created its own market (there was no such market when I went to school in the 1950s and 1960s). The key to rapid, wide acceptance is usually an open architecture and 'giveaway' policy. The idea is that when demand becomes intense, added value can be offered at a premium price. The shareware computer industry runs on this principle. The risk is that if a product becomes too successful, not only will it attract a host of imitators, but it may be swallowed whole by a monster like Microsoft. For example, Netscape essentially made web surfing available to the Internet public, but was then buried through ruthless business practices by Microsoft's Internet Explorer. Electronic bilingual dictionaries are a contrary example of highly proprietary and expensive language products which have gradually spread amongst customers with a pressing need - notably tertiary students in non-English speaking countries.

7. Are There Business Openings In "IT for Language Teaching" ?

Many of the technologies referred to in this paper have developed in parallel in both commercial and not-for-profit environments. This pattern is a characteristic of products with a high intellectual property component, and often reflects competing ideologies. The tension engendered by such competition can be healthy, and in practice there is a good deal of cross-fertilization. We see this very clearly in the Open Source Software Movement, with derivative commercial developments such as the various flavours of Linux often spinning off at a later stage. It is also clear that technology related to natural language learning may range from the very simple (a pen and paper) to the very complex (such as computer simulated environments for language learning). We know that people have learned languages from time immemorial. We know that snake oil merchants have marketed instant fixes for language learning from time immemorial, and that many continue to make a tidy living out of it. There will always be business openings for "IT in language teaching", but we would be credulous to expect a magic bullet anytime soon.

The IT revolution is not done. Within a decade all human knowledge will be storable in a single grain of sand. Millions, maybe billions of people will be reading "online" daily, but online will not be staring at an electron gun. The industry prophets say we will be reading flexible stuff that looks rather like today's newspaper.... In other words, whatever is begun now must be

recognized as transitional, and designed for rapid change. However, human beings within a given generation are not particularly adaptable.

Whenever a business, a school, a factory is founded a new generation learns new things. Then they become comfortable, they develop a daily routine, and their priorities naturally enough revolve around bringing up their own families. What this means is that institutions automatically ossify and resist change, ignore new opportunities and actively seek to undermine competition. Indeed, in any hierarchical institution managers at every level will mostly exclude individuals and ideas which represent a threat to their own mediocrity. Luckily, the individualized and non-hierararchical nature of the Internet may short-circuit some conservative rigidities in the evolution of IT for language teaching.

For an entrepreneur who is serious about combining an element of Information Technology with language teaching into a viable business, there are sure to be lots of openings. However, with the preceding paragraph in mind, it could be wise for both financial and intellectual adventurers not to trade all commitment into a single basket. One successful business strategy has been to establish some kind of foundation which keeps a certain distance from individual projects, and can therefore maintain perspective. Many possible projects in the IT-Education area will have serious development costs. A foundation can therefore also spread risks, and be a medium to redirect part of the cash flow from successful initiatives into more experimental options which show promise but need a longer lead in.

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Some Relevant Internet Sites

A.L.I.C.E. and AIML Chat Robot News October, 2004 - a talk bot website

Andreas Lund's links to English as a second, a foreign, Another Language: BOTs, Robots, Chatterbots...

The British National Centre for Learning Languages has a useful page of links at Linguanet into the whole issue of Internet and e-mail language learning.

CAL Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington DC

CALICO Journal (Computer Assisted Learning instruction Consortium)- Texas State University - a good collection of articles on CALL. Papers from 1983 to 2000 are viewable online; later material requires a subscription

The CALICO Review - Reviews of CALL language learning programs on the market,   sorted by language

CALL on The Web - links by Claire Badin Siskin

COMFM - live TV on the Internet from every continent, multiple languages

Course Website (CMS) Programs - listing by Excite Search Engine

English Raven website The Audiolingual Method - this is a useful summary of this method's characteristics

Language Learning Technology Journal - all articles available online

Learning Languages - Micheloud's homepage on how to learn any language

LRNJ (Slime Forest Adventure) - A free role-playing game for learning Japanese

Online Learning Update University of Illinois at Springfield - online learning news and research

The Palace - a chat community built around a software program of virtual worlds and   avatars.

Schmooze University - a center for MOO (Multi Object Oriented) communal games and activities in language learning

University of Oregon English Mailing Lists - an example of list servers dedicated to   Second Language SIGs (special interest groups)

Virtual Human Web Resources - links to many forms of the emerging bionic man

Windows User Network - a few shareware computer games, some of which might be   adapted to simple L2 learning

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Article Title
Munby's 'needs analysis' model and ESP

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to discuss some criticisms made of Munby's (1978) book 'Communicative Syllabus Design' with a particular focus on Munby's 'needs analysis' model. It also points out some validity of this model in ESP (English for Specific Purposes) course design. Although the model has been a target for criticisms since it was introduced, it is useful to identify some of its values which can be applied to teach English in ESL and EFL contexts.

It will be argued that in most situations this model is impractical. However, from my own teaching experience, some of its values prove to be useful. Importantly, it is necessary to justify that Munby's approach should be drawn on as reference or a partly socio-linguistic base for designing a syllabus.

Introduction

As Nunan (1988:43) puts it, 'during the 1970s, needs analysis procedures made their appearance in language planning' and 'became widespread' in language teaching. In their first days, such procedures were used as "the initial process for the specification of behavioural objectives" which then explored different syllabus elements, such as functions, notions, lexis, in a more detailed manner. At the same time, Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) became a matter of general interest and LSP experts were making efforts to give birth to a more comprehensive and better LSP syllabus. As a result, needs analysis was warmly welcomed by LSP teachers as an approach to course design, which focused on learner's needs. But needs analysis did not find its remarkable influence and position in LSP until Munby's approach to needs analysis came into being. Munby's work "Communicative Syllabus Design" (1978) then became a target for criticisms by academics and linguists. Although Munby's work has been seen as having far more weak points than strong points, 'it has been very influential: either developments have stemmed from [it], or as a result of reactions to it' as Jordan (1997: 24) remarks.

Munby's approach to needs analysis

In his attempt to make a contribution to syllabus design, Munby (1978) proposed his approach to needs analysis which soon drew great attention from syllabus designers, particularly ESP architects. His work was a landmark in ESP and had a huge influence on ESP since it provided a new vision on individual needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). The work is briefly summarised as follows:

Munby's model consists of two stages: Communication Needs Processor (CNP) and the interpretation of the profile of needs derived from the CNP in terms of micro-skills and micro-functions. The CNP is set out under eight variables that 'affect communication needs by organising them as parameters in a dynamic relationship to each other' (p32). The CNP operates by looking at its 'inputs' - the foreign language participant - and information concerning the participant's identity and language. Then it requires information on the eight variables: purposive domain, setting, interaction, instrumentality, dialect, target level, communicative event, and communicative key. In the second stage of the model, the user must take the activities with their communicative keys and decide which of three alternative ways of processing them is appropriate. The alternatives are:

**specification of syllabus content by focusing on micro-skills

**specification by focusing on micro-functions

**specification by focusing on linguistic forms

Obviously, Munby explores thoroughly every aspect relating to learner's needs. His work is probably the most detailed and complex as well as informative. He thinks of the unthinkable and proves to be very thoughtful in the work. This analysis of Munby's approach focuses on the aspects of communication he emphasises and the assumptions regarding the roles of language, the learner, the syllabus, the teacher that lie behind his design. He emphasises all equal on:

- Purpose;
- Medium/mode/channel of communication;
- Sociolinguistic aspects;
- Linguistics;
- Pragmatics.

This indicates that he is taking into account language and culture and communication purpose, but pays no attention to implementation (activities, resources, and classroom dynamics). He also

seems to assure a very teacher-directed method, in which students' inputs about purpose are superficial and only required at the beginning of the course. It is clear that his emphasis on text and his categorisation rely on his intuition. All of these weaknesses result in criticisms of his work.

Criticisms of Munby's work

Although complex, thorough and highly standardised, Munby's approach to needs analysis lacks consistency and shows no transparent links to syllabus design. This makes it weak and vulnerable to critiques and comments raised by other academics and linguists. Critics evaluate Munby's work from different perspectives and attitudes.

Davies (1981) does not hide his anger when criticising Munby's 'Communicative Syllabus Design' (CSD). He uses strong words and actually opposes Munby's book. He claims that Munby's book 'needs to be totally rewritten before publication as a book' (p332). As far as needs analysis is concerned, Davies states that CSD is about needs alone, 'which is a pity since the tension between needs and demands is one that is ripe for analysis. Needs are private, demands public, and it is arguable that language teachers are as much concerned with the former as the latter' (p332). The tittle of the book - CSD - embodies in itself its aim, that is to provide language teachers with a syllabus, but it is not in itself a syllabus, as Davies remarks 'what we do expect is that it will tell us how to construct a syllabus and by extension a textbook, etc.' 'But CSD never gets that far' (p333). Sharing a single view with Davies, Mead (1982: 75) argues that Munby's work aims to obtain a syllabus but 'he nowhere spells out what he means by the term "syllabus" and its precise reference is in doubt'.

Hawkey (1980), to a moderate extent, criticises Munnby's failure to produce an actual teaching/learning syllabus. Davies sees Munby's syllabus as a danger for language teaching and learning since a lot of controversial problems are still embedded in its design. To conclude, Davies states 'the fact that the problems are real and the solutions unreal lowers the value of this book' (p336). Although it is clear that Davies is very angry at Munby's publication, he still tries to find strong points and values underlying the book. He remarks that Munby attempts to produce a syllabus but does not quite follow it through.

If Davies views Munby's book critically, Hawkey (1980) seems to be more tolerant and moderate. Hawkey analyses Munby's work from the course designer's perspective. For the learner, Munby's needs analysis model is not a tool that can help them effectively or pragmatically for the following reasons. First, it presupposes a quite homogeneous language training situation with

specific occupational or educational objectives. This proves to be implausible in heterogeneous classes where learners come from different backgrounds with varied language targets and proficiencies. Second, the model does not take all-round factors into consideration. In other words, Munby excludes important factors such as psycho-pedagogic, methodological and administrative issues from his model.

This fact may addict the learner in the sense that no workable and thorough syllabus could be implemented without them. Next, his model 'is not a questionnaire for direct use with learners' as he 'does not go into the matter of actual data' (p91). In addition, Munby neglects the actual facts of life (such as learners' characteristics, methodology, and resources) which actually operate a syllabus or determine how a syllabus works. Munby idealised these facts and this somewhat limits his aim. Despite these above limitations, Munby's model has been used in numerous course design situations and Hawkey counts it as the value of Munby's needs analysis and its contribution to language teaching and learning.

Mead's (1982) comments on Munby's work are generated from a micro-level view, which means he looks thoroughly at the individual aspects and then makes general comments based on his analysis of the specific components. Mead raises four comments and lists them according to the level of seriousness. Most seriously, as Mead puts it, 'the instrument is internally inconsistent: there are no formal restrictions on the membership of categories' (p74). Consequently, it is very difficult for learners and non-L1 teachers to distinguish between elements in the attitudinal tone index given by Munby. Actually, Munby expects learners to obtain a single target in spite of the fact that their targets are varied. Secondly, Munby shows no way to discriminate systematically between more and less significant variables. Put it another way, all the variables are of equal weight.

That really places pressure on learners when they want to express themselves implicitly or explicitly. Thirdly, 'the relationship between the model and its practical application is not made explicit' (p75). The 'participant' is referred to rather than the 'learner' as targeted by Munby's claim. Also, his refusal to discuss implementational constraints (socio-political, administrative) means that learning and resource problems are ignored. As a result, it is easily noticed that 'the model functions at a more abstract state' and obviously 'it promises more than can be delivered' (p76). Lastly, Mead argues that Munby's system is unsupported by either a formal linguistic theory of interaction, or empirical evidence, although it is complex.

It seems that Hutchinson and Waters (1987) appreciate Munby' s work more than they criticise it. What they do is to analyse needs from their points of view borrowing Munby's CNP at some stages. They see Munby's work (CSD) as 'a highly detailed set of procedures for

discovering target situation needs' and 'the most thorough and widely known work on needs analysis' (p54). Based on the assumption that both target situation needs and learning needs must be taken into consideration, they conclude that what we need is 'a learning-centred approach to needs analysis', not just a list of the linguistic features of the target situation as Munby's CNP produces.

Coffey (1984) quite objectively mentions both advantages and disadvantages of Munby's model. In terms of advantages, 'that book offers not only an analysis of English into communicative functions, but directs the user into setting up a complete course design by creating profiles of student needs' (p7). Moreover, 'it telescopes two operations, needs analysis and course design, into one' (p7) which if works, ESP can benefit a lot. However, since the book was published, both theory and practice of needs analysis as well as course design have received more attention since the book embodies controversial assumptions about the literature. Its weaknesses are seen and named as objections to Munby. First of all, the process provided is too complicated to put into practice in most circumstances. Then, it does not give the user a flexible tool to use because it is 'a once-and-for-all process apparently need not be amended as time goes on' (p7). Types or level of communication may be unchanged but the learner's needs may change constantly.

Jordan (1997) labels Munby's model as 'target-situation analysis' approach, one among many approaches to needs analysis, such as present-situation analysis, deficiency analysis, strategy analysis, and so on. Jordan also comments that Munby's work was 'a landmark in the development of needs analysis, and probably the best known framework for target-situation analysis' (p22). However, like other authors, Jordan does make some criticisms of Munby's work. First, the model should have considered practical constraints at the start of the needs analysis procedure instead of considering them after the procedure had been work through. Second, 'the language items chosen for practice in ESP/EAP should reflect those used in the real world', not the language derived from social English as classified by Munby's model (p24). In addition, Jordan refers to West's (1994) criticisms of Munby's work, that 'Munby's attempt to be systematic and comprehensive inevitably made his instrument inflexible, complex and time-consuming' (p24). This results in the 'simplicity' of needs analysis. Moreover, as West (1994) sees it, 'Munby's model collects data about the learner rather than from the learner' (cited in Jordan, 1997: 24).

Criticisms of Munby's model have brought about hesitation in applying it into language teaching and learning. However, the model, to some extent, is valid for ESP course development. Validity of Munby's needs analysis for ESP course development

In order to justify the validity of the model, I focus only on the ESP context. Just as ESP places emphasis on the learner's needs and how people learn, language learning in ESP also stresses on these matters. Different stages of development in theories of language will be discussed in combination with their applications to ESP. Then, how the Munby's model reflects that will be linked to the discussion.

The very first 'coherent theory of learning was the behaviourist theory' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:40) based on the work of Pavlov and Skinner. The theory argued that 'learning is a mechanical process of habit formation of a stimulus-response sequence' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:40), in which the basic exercise technique of a behaviourist methodology is pattern practice, particularly in the form of language laboratory drills. As a matter of fact, such drills are now still found in ESP textbooks with more and more interesting and meaningful contexts.

At this point, Munby's model proves to be valuable since it provides certain common pattern-like drills to indicate forms of modulation and mitigation, such as in the event 'Customs officer checking for illegal export of goods'; or 'Hotel waiter dealing with customers'. From my English teaching and learning experience, I find drill practice particularly useful for beginners' level since it equips learners with initial knowledge of making a dialogue in everyday English although it is not necessarily real-life in all circumstances. Moreover, such pattern practice exercises enjoy their popularity in language teaching, especially English for Business or Tourism, which requires some set forms of handling a situation. I see the value of Munby's model in this stage as a contribution to methodology.

'Mentalism': thinking as rule-governed activity, was the next step in the language learning development. It is 'one short step to the conclusion that learning consists not of forming habits but of acquiring rules-a process in which individual experiences are used by the mind to formulate a hypothesis' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:42). This step, then, built a bridge to 'cognitive code': learners as thinking beings, in which 'we learn by thinking about and trying to make sense of what we see, feel and hear' (p43). The fundamental teaching technique connected with this theory is the problem-solving task, which is very common in communicative classrooms. For ESP, this kind of task has been modelled on activities relating to learners' specialism. Munby's needs analysis, nevertheless, puts this theory aside when Munby tries to construct a communication environment referring to 'the participant' based on Munby's intuition and generalisation of different mental powers from his own assumption of how learners learn. In fact, as Hawkey (1980) argues, Munby assumes a homogeneous learning context in his model, but in reality, heterogeneity is of dominance.

Although it solves most theoretical and practical problems underlying 'behaviourism', the 'cognitive code' theory is not sufficient for a teaching method. To perfect it, approaches that attend the 'affective factor': learners as emotional beings, appeared. These treat learners as human beings, and the learning of a language as an emotional experience (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). The 'affective factor' determines the success or failure of the learning. Later, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) discuss this as 'wants', and Nunan (1989) defines this as 'motivation'. Both see this as the essence of needs analysis. Motivation is complex and highly individual matter according to some authors, such as Brumfit (1981), Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Nunan (1988), and Brown (1994). Hence, it is impossible to categorise learners' needs as ESP does with a simple assumption: target needs. Not naming it 'target needs', Munby illustrates the CNP as what is involved in communication needs. Even when ESP experts criticise Munby's model of intuition and categorisation, ESP itself is still tied to it.

As a teacher, I admit that I can not focus on every single motivation. What I actually do is to generate motivation from my students by combining mutual interests (eg. what they aim for, what they expect) with dominant groups of interests (eg future career, language use target) in my syllabus. Munby seems to forget the fact that learners are human beings who can think, feel, sense, see, create and be tired. That is why in his model, learners are seen as more passive and machine-like beings, who either productively or receptively are pressured by so many artificial factors raised by Munby. As Munby thinks, learners only need but do not want. It is far from the truth. What I have observed so far in language classes proves that 'wants' play a decisive role in mastering a language although 'needs' play a key role in learning it.

From what have discussed above, Munby's work only makes links to parts of how people learn a language. His work becomes even more vulnerable when comparing with the highly comprehensive pedagogic theories provided by Hymes (1972), Canale and Swain (1980), and Richards and Rodgers (1989). These authors discuss the concept of 'communicative competence' which covers grammatical (linguistic), sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic features of communication. These competences are suggested as having to be equally combined in a teaching syllabus to offer learners a fuller understanding of the language.

Also, recently, Benesch (1996) and Jordan (1997) have introduced their models of needs analysis which constitute all-round aspects of needs. Benesch (1996) offers 'critical needs analysis as an alternative approach to examining target situations' as clearly stated in the abstract of her paper (723). She considers 'conflicting interests from various levels of the academic hierarchy and explores possibilities for modifying the target situation' in order to build critical analysis, then discusses how to develop EAP (English for Academic Purposes) curriculum based

on this critical needs analysis by giving an example of what she actually did in a paired ESL/psychology course (p730). Jordan (1997: 22) states that 'needs analysis should be the starting point for devising syllabuses, courses, materials and the kind of teaching and learning that takes place'.

He offers 10 'steps in needs analysis' which exemplify the following seven questions 'why the analysis is being undertaken; whose needs are to be analysed; who performs the analysis; what is to be analysed; how the analysis is to be conducted; when the analysis is to be undertaken; and where the EAP course is to be held' (p22-23). Obviously, while a growing concern about ESP course design has been put into agenda, Munby's model fails to satisfy its audience and customers since it only emphasises sociolinguistic and linguistic aspects. Moreover, it ignores vital down-to-earth facts to put the model into effect, such as socio-cultural, financial, and administrative features.

In terms of needs analysis alone, Munby views needs at a superficial level. His work looks thorough in its scale, but it only gently touches upon the actual needs. Therefore, I find it very difficult to implement with my students as well as to write my own syllabus based on his approach. Moreover, it takes time and costs money to conduct Munby's work. Even though ESP courses have become fashionable recently in Vietnam with the growth of the market economy, these courses have not been yet recognisably different from General English. Therefore, the application of Munby's is 'utopian' both theoretically and practically. However, to be fair, I think, I might make use of his work in some learning situations where all learners are Vietnamese university students learning English for Business purposes, for example.

Undoubtedly, Munby's work, though vague and impractical, has influenced ESP course development in the sense that it raises both theoretical and practical problems to be argued among authors. On the way to develop ESP methodology, ESP architects, to a certain extent, have constructed their theories based on Munby' model, or made analogies of it to build a better one.

Conclusion

This paper has discussed Munby's approach to needs analysis and criticisms of his work. Also, it has justified the validity of Munby's approach to ESP course development. With a view to making a fair judgment, it has explored both strong and weak points given by Munby. From all the work done, it is believed that Munby's approach should be drawn on as reference or a partly socio-linguistic base for designing a syllabus.

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Article Title

Comparison of Three Methods of Assessing Difficulty

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Introduction

Text difficulty has been a concern of educational researchers and practitioners for more than 70 years (Chall and Conrad, 1991) and many have used different methods to assess the difficulty of the text (Chall and Dale, 1995). In fact, one of the most important aspects of textbook development has been considered to be texts of appropriate difficulty by educational publishers. Matching the difficulty of textbooks and readers' reading ability has been taken into account by publishers, writers, editors and teachers in order to use the text successfully (Chall and Conrad, 1991; Chall and Dale, 1995; Harris-Sharples, 1983; Day, 1994).

Controlling the readability of reading instructional material dates back to the early 19th century, leading to the emergence of different readability formulas. Many of such formulas have been widely used for several decades (Fry, 1977; Dale and Chall, 1948; Chall, 1956; 1958) and have been considered as the most reliable and valid (Klare, 1963; 1984). But most of these formulas tend to focus on syntactic and semantic measures of difficulty and do not include the variables known to predict difficulty. After some years of application of these formulas, even their developers admitted several weaknesses attributed to their formula (Klare, 1984). Accepting the weaknesses of these formulas, some of the researchers attempted to improve and modify the existing measures of difficulty and, as claimed by them, develop qualitative measures (Chall, 1956; 1958; Chall and Dale, 1995).

Qualitative assessments have been proved to be valid for more than 80 years in psychological and educational research (Thorndike's writing scale, 1910, 1912). Porter and Popp (1975) found a high correlation between judgments of difficulty of children's books and the

difficulty of those books as measured by cloze scores and oral reading errors. Chall (1958) found a 0.8 correlation between judges' rating of difficulty of passages and their readability levels.

The interest has been centered on qualitative assessment even more in the past decade. The Reading Recovery Program at Ohio State University (1990) and Weaver (1992) are such examples. In all, the characteristics of difficulty used by these studies are quite similar to those used in classic studies of readability such as Gray and Leary (1935) and Chall and Dale (1995).

In an attempt to develop a qualitative approach to readability, Chall et al (1996) presented a method based on matching samples of text to exemplars that have been scaled for comprehension difficulty, including six scales ranging from reading level 1 to 16+ in literature, science and social studies. As claimed by them, their qualitative assessment can be more sensitive to the great variety of text variables that differentiate text, including vocabulary, syntax, conceptual load, text structure and cohesion rather than only focusing on text features. Of course, this type of qualitative assessment is mostly based on a total reaction to the text.

On the other hand, linguistic analysis of the text based on systemic functional grammar is an approach to readability which focuses on mode as the factor contributing to text complexity. In this approach, differences in mode and its relationship to complexity are considered in determining the level of difficulty of texts. As stated by Martin (1992), mode "refers to the role language is playing in realizing social action." (pp.508-9). Spoken language is concerned with the process, language in action and, therefore, it is less complex. Written mode of language, on the other hand, is related to the product, i.e. language in reflection which makes this type of language more abstract and as a result more complex. According to systemisists, lexico-grammatical features of the text and their variations contribute to variations in complexity which is derived from some text features including: (1) lexical density which is the proportion of lexical items as a ratio of the number of clauses in a text, (2) grammatical intricacy which is the use of long and intricate clause complex patterns, (3) complex nominal groups, or embedding structure of nominal groups including a noun, pre and post modifiers consisting of embedded clauses, and (4) grammatical metaphor which is an atypical realization of process, participants and circumstance functions in the language system. For full details of how these features are operationalised in determining the difficulty level of the texts, refer to Shokrpour (2004). In a study done by Shokrpour (1998), it was found that a systemic functional approach to complexity is a better measure of difficulty than readability formulas.

Since reading difficulty has been and continues to be one of the most important aspects of reading comprehension, finding a good approach to readability assessment would be useful for both teachers and writers. Thus, this study aims at comparing three methods of estimating

difficulty, i.e. one classic (Fry) and two qualitative ones (Shokrpour and Chall, et al). There is an attempt in this study to determine whether there is a relation between judgment of difficulty by Fry's readability formula, Shokrpour's and Chall, et al's methods, and difficulty of the texts used as measured by cloze tests taken by first year university students.

Materials and methods

Materials: Four passages of Chall et al's science scale at different levels of difficulty (1, 4, 8, 16+) as determined by them were selected. The difficulty level of these passages was calculated by Fry's formula (1977) and also by systemic functional grammar criteria (Shokrpour 2004). The tests were changed into cloze tests deleting every 7th word.

Participants: The tests were administered to 114 first year medical students enrolling in General English I courses in Shiraz University of Medical Sciences who were at a comparable level of proficiency.

Procedure: The tests were administered during two consecutive weeks under standard conditions in 2004 academic year. After completing the tests, they were presented with the same four passages, this time with all the deletions intact and were asked to tell which of them they thought was the easiest, which was about in the middle and which was the hardest. Then the scores were calculated based on the total number of correctly answered blanks. The data were analyzed using descriptive analysis, correlation and t.test.

Results

Then tests were in an increasing level of difficulty based on Chall et al's scale (1,4,8,16+). The analysis of the text difficulty using Fry's formula gave the following results which show exactly the same order as that of Chall et al's, the tests being in an increasing order of difficulty.

Table 1: Difficulty level as determined by Fry's readability formula

Texts	Levels
1	1
2	4
3	7
4	13

The results of the linguistic analysis of the text using the method based on systemic functional criteria are displayed in the following Table:

Table 2: Difficulty level as determined by systemic functional grammar criteria

Text	Lexical Density	Grammatical Intricacy	Complex Nominal Group	Grammatical Metaphor
1	2.26	1.14	0	0.07
2	3.23	2.08	0.31	0,58
3	3.5	4	0.38	1
4	5.2	3	1.3	3.42

As shown in the Table, the order of difficulty as determined by systemic functional grammar agrees with that proposed by Chall et al with one exception. Based on systemic functional grammar the higher the grammatical intricacy of a text, the less abstract and, therefore, the easier the text. This accords with Chall et al's order of difficulty in tests 3 and 4 but not in 1 and 2 since the order of difficulty here is 4,3,1,2. As to the last two criteria, the order of the difficulty in this model confirms that of Chall et al, the tests being in an order of increasing difficulty.

The results of the descriptive analysis indicate that more students filled all the blanks correctly in test 1 while it decreases as we move from test 1 to 4 (38.6%, 24.6%, 7%, and 1.8%, respectively). The mean of the correct answers in test 1 is the highest (12.2) and the lowest in test 4 (4.25). Therefore the scores mostly accord with the levels determined by the three methods. Moreover, the results of the t.test between the students' scores in each test (Table 3) indicate significant differences in all tests (.001)

Table 3. Paired samples test

	Sig. (2-tailed)
TEST1-TEST2	.001
TEST2-TEST3	.001
TEST3-TEST4	.001
TEST1-TEST3	.006
TEST2-TEST4	.001
TEST1-TEST4	.001

To determine if there is a correlation between the students' scores in each test, a correlation test was performed between every two tests. (Table 4)

Table 4. Correlation between the tests

	N	Correlation	Sig.
TEST1-TEST2	114	.697	.001
TEST2-TEST3	114	.399	.001
TEST3-TEST4	114	.593	.001
TEST1-TEST3	114	.324	.001
TEST2-TEST4	114	.341	.001
TEST1-TEST4	114	.254	.006

As shown in the results, there is a higher correlation between tests 1 and 2 (.69) and tests 3 and 4 (.59) than between tests1 and 3 (.32) and tests 1 and 4 (.25). This shows that there is a higher correlation between two easy or two difficult tests than between an easy and a difficult one, confirming the orders proposed by these three methods of assessing difficulty. Therefore, based on these results, there is no significant difference between the three methods' proposed order of difficulty as shown in the scores.

The results of the interview with the students as to their impression about the difficulty of each text are displayed in the following Table:

Table 5. Students' impression about the difficulty of the texts

TEXT 1

Level	Frequency	Percent
1	87	76.3
2	23	20.2
3	4	3.5

TEXT 2

1	44	38.7
2	47	41.2
3	16	14
4	7	6.1

TEXT 3

1	13	11.4
2	31	27.2
3	46	40.4
4	24	21.0

TEXT 4

1	28	24.6
2	12	10.5
3	37	32.4
4	37	32.5

As shown in the Table, a higher percentage of students view text 1 as the easiest (76.3%) while this figure decreases as we move to text 4 (text2=38.6%, text3=11.4%, text4=24.6%). As to the most difficult texts, a lower percentage of the students see text 1 as the most difficult (35%) and this figure increases for text 2-4 (text2=14%, text3=21.1%, text4=32.5%). Therefore, it can be concluded that the order presented by our methods is confirmed by the students' impression about the difficulty of these four texts.

Discussion

Based on the results of this study, the students' mean scores in the easiest and the most difficult tests agree with the levels determined by the three methods. Various methods of assessing the readability of the text have been proposed so far. The most direct way is to measure it by administering a reading comprehension test based on related material to a group of readers with known abilities in language. It can also be measured by experts' judgment. And a third approach can be readability formulas. The first and second approaches are time consuming and costly. As to readability formulas, although recent studies show that they are valid to be used in the EFL context (Greenfield, 2003), many researchers have found that classic formulas are not very accurate predictors of EFL difficulty (Brown, 1998; Shokrpour & Gibbons, 1998). Although in this study there was a relationship between students' tested comprehension scores and Fry's readability formula, this is because in making their exemplars, Chall et al have used their own readability formula which focuses on characteristics such as other such formulas. In all, these

formulas are strictly text based and do not address the interactive nature of the reading process. Moreover, they do not distinguish between written and spoken discourse.

On the other hand, qualitative methods are more precise and more sensitive to the great variety of text variables that contribute to its difficulty. Chall et al's method is based on total impression rather than on the analysis of text features. They have claimed that the qualitative measure developed by them has the advantage of simplicity and time effectiveness. Although linguistic analysis of text requires some time to be spent on it, it is worth doing since it focuses on the differences between spoken and written language and its effect on the complexity of the text. Brown in his study (1998) came to the same conclusion, stating that the analysis of linguistic characteristics of the text is highly related to EFL difficulty.

As to the components of linguistic analysis of the text using the systemic functional grammar criteria, lexical density has been found to be highly related to EFL difficulty (Brown, 1998). This was confirmed in our study since the order of difficulty for lexical density was exactly the same as that of the mean scores of the students (1,2,3,4). Moreover, complex nominal groups including those with two or more modifying elements, with a prepositional phrase as qualifier, an embedded clause as modifier and a noun acting as a modifier contribute to the packing of information while adding to the structural complexity and carrying the main burden of the lexical content of the text. As to grammatical metaphor, in an atypical realization, a process may be realized as thing and circumstantial meaning as process, which are a metaphorical lexicogrammatical form of semantic configuration. These are more complex than non-metaphorical ones.

In systemic functional grammar it is proposed that spoken language is grammatically intricate but lexically sparse. Therefore, grammatical intricacy, the use of long sentences, is lower in written language since in this type of language more embedding which makes the sentences shorter is used. This was confirmed in two levels of Chall et al's method but not in tests 1 and 2. But according to a new readability formula called the Lexile Frame-work Software it is claimed that passages consisting of short sentences are assumed to be easier to read than passages consisting of longer sentences. This is the point that needs to be further investigated.

Some recent studies have proved to be in the same line as systemisists in regard to complexity. Shin (2002) reports that it is generally assumed that abstract texts will be more difficult to understand than texts describing real objects since the former requires more exacting referencing skills than the latter. This is exactly what systemic functional grammar claims to be the difference between spoken and written language. Research has also shown that lexical and syntactic knowledge in L2 are the strongest predictors in L2 reading performance among other

factors (Bernhardt and Kamil, 1995; Cooper, 1984). Similarly, Day (1994) considers lexical density and background knowledge as the two most important elements that contribute to the complexity of the text.

Conclusion

As qualitative assessments, both our methods focus on vocabulary difficulty, and idea density and difficulty while the approaches are different, one using readability formula and focusing on impression and the other using linguistic analysis of the text. In general, this study indicates that further studies are required to provide us with the best EFL readability index. In the course of this study, a number of questions occurred to me that need to be addressed in future by other researchers:

1. Would similar results be obtained if this study were repeated using other students in other EFL or ESL contexts?
2. Would similar results be obtained if other approaches to readability assessment were used?

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Article Title

'Negative Capability'; A Successful Indicator of Second Language Learner Aptitude

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Abstract

In this research article, I shall attempt to prove that the literary concept first coined by the English romantic poet, John Keats is a successful indicator of second learner aptitude. In recent years this concept, 'negative capability' has become increasingly popular in such areas as psychoanalysis and leadership training for corporate executives. In order to simplify this concept as much as possible, I have broken it down into three main characteristics or qualities: ambiguity tolerance, perseverance, and empathy. This literary concept matches up extremely well with the outstanding characteristics of the so-called 'good learners' of a second language as explained in the book, The Good Language Learner. In order to further simplify and sharpen the focus of my comparison, I make the third characteristic of empathy point to a feeling toward the culture of the second language. This positive feeling or positive association toward the target language culture is one area that serves as an essential aid to the intrinsic motivation of the second language learner. With the help of some classroom-based research conducted with my university students, I believe I have revealed the possible validity of this theory. I have included the survey that I used with an answer key in the hope that this article will be beneficial to other teachers and students of the applied linguistic research being conducted in the EFL field at this time. I hope the data provided will stimulate others to test this theory with their EFL students in the hope that this knowledge could be used in the most beneficial way.

Introduction

In this article, I will present a tightly wrapped package of applied linguistic inquiry, which I hope will be a significant gift to the EFL community in Asia. This 'diamond in the rough,' was a serendipitous discovery that I made as a result of reading a pivotal treatise. It is my theory that 'negative capability', the literary concept first coined by the English romantic poet, John Keats, is

a tool to point out the three main personality characteristics of a successful language learner. I hope to show by some classroom-based research conducted with my grade two Oral English students, that this literary concept, distilled to its essence (with a slight adjustment in focus), is indeed, a successful indicator of second language aptitude.

The story of how this discovery came about is somewhat intriguing. I had long been an admirer of the poetry of John Keats, and I was familiar with the concept 'negative capability'. Since I enjoy a challenge, I decided to teach this concept to my grade three literature class here at Hunan University of Science and Technology. In order to help them prepare for the numerous exams they take requiring writing skills, I composed a short essay about the concept entitled, "Negative Capability; A Practical and Far-Reaching Concept". While writing this essay, mainly for the purpose of simplification, I broke this dynamic, multifaceted concept into three main parts. Six months later, while reading the pivotal treatise entitled, Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching by H. H. Stern, I made the discovery that is the source of this article.

I will begin this article with an overview of the background of the literary term, "negative capability". I shall try to simplify it into three main characteristics which I will compare with the past research on characteristics of 'good learners' of a second language. From here I explain my own particular research using this concept with my own students in a survey. Finally, I will share some advice and hope to create further investigations. I am optimistic that the theory I propose in this article is a fresh approach that could prove valuable to the EFL community.

Background Information

Before bringing the entire picture into focus, I will now give some background information to help explain this somewhat complicated term. Keats first coined this paradoxical phrase in a letter to his brothers, wherein he proposed a tentative definition as, "that is when a man is capable of being in uncertainties, mysteries, doubts without any irritable reaching after fact or reason." (Keats, 1970: 43). In other explanations, 'negative capability' has been compared to keeping a fresh perspective on life to the extent that one takes on a challenging situation with a 'beginner's mind'…not allowing oneself to hold preconceived ideas or judgments that would cause a stale or stagnant attitude (Ferguson, 1990: 119). This particular aspect of negative capability gives a person the determination needed to overcome any obstacle that might stand in the way of success. A good example is the famous American inventor, Thomas A. Edison, who after trying 899 filaments, finally found one that would work, and, thus we have the discovery of the light bulb (Josephson, 1996).

Also, 'negative capability' was a term which described a person with a fairly sensitive nature. This sensitivity would enable a person (like Keats himself) to observe any object with such passive awareness and focused concentration as to be able to "become one with that object (Bennis, 1998: 151-154). A good example of this ability is revealed when reading Keats' poem entitled " Ode on a Grecian Urn". It does, indeed seem that Keats had 'become one' with this ancient object. It is amazing that Keats actually coined this term when he was only twenty-two years old. He was trying to describe the prime essentials of a great poet. By 'negative capability' Keats meant the lack of personal identity, of preconceived certainty, which he believed to mark all great poets (Shakespeare was his main inspiration when conceiving this concept). It was necessary, Keats believed, for the poet to be, above all, open to impressions, sensations, or whatever (Scott,1969: 15).

Now let us bring this concept into sharp focus in regard to the discovery I made while reading H. H. Stern's work, the aforementioned Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching. From this book, I learned that a mature and mentally healthy individual who is detached, self-critical, and has a sense of humour, can cope with the demand of language learning better than a rigid or status-conscious individual who lacks self-awareness or humour (Stern, 1983: 382). I also learned that 'tolerance of ambiguity' has been considered a useful characteristic of a good language learner. To quote directly from the book:

"The learner who is capable of accepting with tolerance and patience the frustrations of ambiguity that second language learning inevitably involves is emotionally in a better position to cope with them in a problem-solving frame of mind than a student who feels frustrated or angry in ambiguous situations. Intolerance of ambiguity appears in association with a high level of dogmatism and authoritarianism." (Stern: 382).

Some of the uncertainties and discomforts that second language learners experience are clearly understood by anyone who has attempted to learn another language. In investigations of second language learning that we (Stern was on the team) undertook in the seventies, tolerance of ambiguity was found to be a good predictor of success (Naiman, N., Frohlich, M., Stern, H. H. and Todesco, A. 1978: 100 and Stern: 383). Negative capability indicates the capacity to live with ambiguity and paradox, to hold or contain rather than just react (Symons, 1901: 1627). The concept seems to match up well with what I feel we will discover are the outstanding characteristics of good learners described in the very reliable research conducted by Stern's team which produced the book entitled, The Good Language Learner. I feel certain that the research

conducted by the Ontario center in the late seventies has withstood the test of time, and therefore I feel confident to use it as a springboard to launch my own study.

At this point, I wish to quote from a pertinent work by Christopher M. Ely of Ball State University where he states, "As much uncertainty as ESL learners face in the 'receptive' areas of listening or reading, this lack of determinacy is dwarfed by that inherent in the 'productive' skills of speaking and writing. What makes this enormous linguistic uncertainty particularly problematic is that there is no real escape from it in the L2 environment." (Ely, C. 1989). I believe these statements and the studies from which they originated help to amplify the importance of ambiguity tolerance for the ESL learner.

Characteristics

In recent years, this concept, 'negative capability' has becoming increasingly more popular in such diverse endeavors as psychoanalysis and leadership training for corporate executives. There has been a growing awareness of the importance of 'ambiguity tolerance' in our daily lives, especially for leaders faced with many difficult 'on the spot' decisions everyday. Although it may come naturally to some people, negative capability can also be learned (Ryan, 1976: 157). In the competitive environment of our modern world, many businesses have felt the need to have to provide their employees and executives with training in the effective use of 'negative capability.

In order to simplify this fairly complex concept, I have broken it into three main characteristics or qualities namely: ambiguity tolerance (maintaining your poise while not reaching after facts and reason), perseverance (maintaining a fresh perspective so you can keep trying though you might fail again and again), and ,finally, empathy toward the target language culture(since this is reasonable for this language learning focus). I would like to point out that empathy should be shown in all areas of the language learning process.

In this research I focused my study on the empathy of the students toward the second language culture, but through this process I have gained much needed empathy toward the complex task faced by my students. The concept of empathy can be easily extended. So, to repeat in simple form and try to distill 'negative capability' to its essence the three main characteristics are: ambiguity tolerance, perseverance, and empathy. It is my theory that these three main qualities of 'negative capability' will successfully indicate the traits needed and exemplified by the best second language learners.

Now I will continue to point out the distinct parallels between negative capability and the traits of good language learners as discovered by Stern's research team.

I will now take another direct quote from what has been called the 'red bible' of applied linguistics:

> "Language learning requires other qualities of personality. Good language learners are not necessarily those to whom a language comes easily; but they have persevered, have overcome frustrations, and have, after many trials and errors, achieved a satisfactory level of proficiency. One group of personality variables that distinguishes successful from unsuccessful learners is likely to be such characteristics as positive task orientation, ego-involvement, need achievement, high level of aspiration, goal orientation, and perseverance (Naiman et al. 1978 and Stern, 1983: 380)."

Advice to Teachers

Although the first two main characteristics of negative capability match up well with those of the good language learners, I'm sure much discussion and research is needed to confirm their places in the hearts and minds of EFL teachers and curriculum directors. Be that as it may, however, it is my hope and strong desire that the third main characteristic (empathy specifically toward the target language culture) will have immediate resonance all over the EFL community in Asia! While visiting a wonderful school, Yaley Middle School in Changsha (Capital of Hunan Province), a friend and I admired the calligraphy in the halls and noticed in particular the famous quote, "Time waits for no one." To the teachers and academic leaders who read this article, I want to express that it is now time to give the 'cultural imperative' the place it deserves in the curriculum. I think the validity of this concept in regard to its importance, especially on the affective domain of students deserves further investigation.

Now I echo the thoughts of many former scholars and applied linguistic experts that have documented in countless articles and essays that culture has an immediate effect. So let me delve deeper into my discoveries. The concept of 'empathy'- the willingness and capacity to identify with others-which has been used in clinical and personality psychology has been applied to the ability of the language learner to identify with the communicative behavior of users of the target language (Stern, 1983: 381). In one series of studies (Guora 1972 et al. 1972) an attempt was made to relate empathy to the capacity to pronounce the language in a native-like manner. But the empathic capacity, it has been pointed out is best regarded as 'an essential factor in the overall ability to acquire a second language rather than simply in the ability to acquire an authentic pronunciation' (Schumann, 1975: 226). Empathy as a personality variable is allied to the

integrative orientation and , negatively, to the concept of ethnocentrism and authoritarianism (not to mention the negative aspects of prejudicial or stereotypical thinking).

It would be difficult to imagine an empathic individual who is strongly ethnocentric (Naiman et al. 1978). In our modern era, the world has become more of a global village than at any time in history. Modern technology, in particular, the internet, has helped to break down racial and cultural barriers. I feel this modern trend is a positive force that has allowed countries to cooperate and, thus, make the world a better place to live and learn.

Proposed Methodology

I hope it is now clear that 'negative capability' is a relevant and useful tool for teachers and academic leaders. The research I conducted was an classroom-based study using a survey. I built the three main concepts of negative capability into the survey in a random and effective way. Eight statements dealt with ambiguity tolerance, four dealt with the issue of perseverance, and I also had eight statements that addressed the issue of empathy toward the target language culture. I gave this survey to 308 grade two Oral English students at Hunan University of Science and Technology located in Xiangtan, Hunan Province, P.R. China. The 308 students represented nine different classes with an average class size of approximately 35 students each. In the first graph, I am comparing the total Oral English grade received in the prior term to the score calculated on the Second Language Learner Survey. I propose that this methodology could be adopted by other EFL teachers for verification of my findings which I shall now give.

Findings

The results were fairly accurate with a less than 3% differential. In the next graph, I took a small sample of only ten students and this time averaged three English classes (Basic English, Grammar, and Oral English) together before comparing this average to the group Survey Average. The results were impressive with a less than 1% differential! Since collecting this data, I have made a slight adjustment on the second page of the survey which I believe will make it even more effective. I would like to invite all EFL teachers to try this survey with your students. It is my sincere hope that you will be pleasantly surprised by the discoveries you find. Also, you might want to compare three English classes to the Survey average, as I did in the sample to get more conclusive data. (Please see Appendix 1-3)

Conclusions and Implications

I think the fact that negative capability matches up with the characteristics of the best learners is more than a coincidence. In this paper, I have pointed out the interesting relationship between the literary concept first coined by John Keats called 'negative capability' and the use of its three main characteristics as an indicator of second language acquisition ability. I hope to spark further research on ambiguity tolerance and its importance in the language learning process. I hope to build bridges to break down any existing stereotypes that prevent cultural sharing and a free flow of communication among educational peers. What will be the impact of these findings on the EFL community? Of course, this is difficult to predict.

As I have previously stated, I hope the awareness of the importance of the students' feelings toward the target culture will improve the way leaders of English departments go about instructing their teachers to conduct culture classes. These classes should be made as easy to understand as possible. Perhaps a foreign teacher will be given the responsibility of teaching the culture class. I hope they realize the importance and long range effects of the impressions they make on their second language students. Of course, the concept of empathy can be applied to many areas of second language learning besides just the cultural imperative which I focused on in this study. I can see a similar survey being given to freshman students coming into a university, so that their language learning aptitude could be predicted. I can see this as a needed supplement to many counseling situations.

This particular survey is aimed at grade one and two university students, but a similar (somewhat simplified version) could be easily made for middle school students. I would like to challenge my fellow teachers to test these results with your students. For further investigations of the concepts touched on in this article, please see Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching by H. H. Stern and also, Context and Culture in Language Teaching by Claire Kramsch. I hope that one day in the future I will be able to say that the discovery I made and the research I conducted was viable and useful and it stood strong against the test of time. As a teacher, one's life is continually enriched by sharing our daily discoveries with others, by reaching out to our students in so many unique ways, and by taking time to reflect on the entire process of education. As Lao Tzu put it, "Just remain in the center watching and then, forget that you are there."

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Appendix 1

Second Language Learner Survey

I am trying to determine some of the qualities of a person who is learning a second language. Please answer the questions as honestly as possible. This survey will help me with my research and could possible help many second language learners in the future. (Be sure your name and class number is on your answer sheet.)

Please read the statement and then decide whether you

(1)completely agree,
(2) somewhat agree,

(3) neither agree nor disagree,

(4)somewhat disagree, or

(5)completely disagree.

Please number 1-20 and put the correct answer in number form…(eg. if you completely agree just put 1)…thanks for your cooperation.

I would like to live in a foreign(English speaking) country for awhile.

1.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

I enjoy taking on a challenging situation and will stay with it until I succeed.

2.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

I don't like having too many choices.

3.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

It makes me happy when things stay the same.

4.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

When I start a new project, I sometimes get tired of it and give up.

5.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

I think failure really is the mother of success in many situations.

6.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

I like to follow the same routine almost every day.

7.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

I really enjoy trying new adventures.

8.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

I enjoy watching movies from foreign cultures.

9.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

I would live in another country if the job was good enough, and it was necessary. 10.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

Learning about other countries and their culture is very interesting to me.

11.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

I think time is precious, so I like to plan each minute of the day.

12.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

If I give a wrong answer in class, it really bothers me for a long time.

13.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

It is sometimes okay to guess on a test.

14.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

In sports, it does not really matter who wins, rather it is how you play the game that is most important!

15.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

I sometimes do not mind losing face, if it helps me grow as a person.

16.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

I never enjoy solving problems.

16.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

If I have prepared myself thoroughly, I sometimes enjoy taking a test!

18.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

If I first experience failure, I will keep trying until I succeed!

19.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

All things are possible, if you work hard and believe in yourself!

20.1ca 2sa 3nad 4sd 5cd

Thanks for your cooperation!

Answer Key for the Second Language Learner Survey

1. 1= 5 (2=4,etc.)
2. 1=5
3. 5=5 (4=2,etc.)
4. 5=5
5. 5=5
6. 1=5
7. 5=5
8. 1=5
9. 1=5
10. 1=5
11. 1=5
12. 5=5
13. 5=5
14. 1=5

15. 1=5

16. 1=5

17. 5=5

18. 1=5

19. 1=5

20. 1=5

Ask students to avoid using too many 3's…this does not really help much. After you get a total, I believe you will be surprised at what a good indicator of second language learning talent this survey is!

Appendix 2

First Excel graph
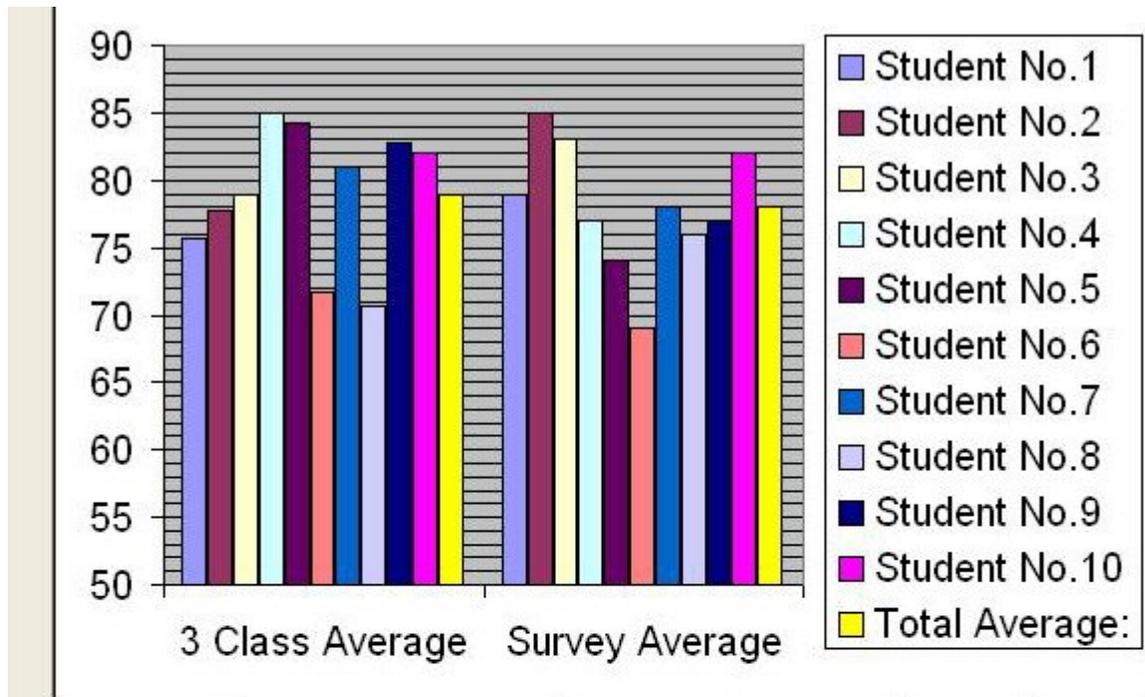
	3 Class Average	Survey Average		
Student No.1	75.7	79		
Student No.2	77.7	85		
Student No.3	79	83		
Student No.4	85	77		
Student No.5	84.3	74		
Student No.6	71.7	69		
Student No.7	81	78		
Student No.8	70.7	76		
Student No.9	82.7	77		
Student No.10	82	82		
Total Average:	78.98	78		

Class 2 / Class 1 / Sheet3 /

Article

The Importance Teaching   Pronunciation to Adult Learners

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Abstract

If the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) is valid, what can be gained from attempting to teach pronunciation at the college level?   According to Vitanova and Miller (2002), students were excited about their improvement in segmentals, supra-segmentals, self-monitoring and self-correction.   Improvement is important and attainable even though native speaker like pronunciation may be impossible after a certain age.   So while younger learners may have the advantage of being able to achieve such pronunciation proficiency, adult learners are able to use their cognitive abilities to improve through self-monitoring and self-correction.

Introduction

Those of us who teach English as a second language to adults might be tempted to avoid teaching pronunciation since the Critical Period Hypothesis suggests that adults won't be able to achieve native-like fluency.   This is reinforced by the current language learning methodology, namely Communicative Language Teaching, failing to know what to do with the teaching of pronunciation (Krashen and Terrell, 1983, pp. 89-91; Terrell, 1989, p. 197) What, then, is to be gained by pursuing pronunciation instruction in our adult classes?   The answer is quite a lot.

While adult students may never be able to pass as native-speakers, improving pronunciation can improve learners' confidence and motivation.   Adults stand to improve their fluency and comprehension levels in both the segmental and supra-segmental areas of pronunciation as well as learn to self-monitor and self-correct.   After all, one of the major advantages adult students possess is the ability to self examine how they learn. Hammond (1995) notes that we must also take into account the importance of handling both sound and meaning in the pursuit of the linguistic goals of our students (p.294). To do any less is to short -change our learners.

The paper will begin with an overview of the Critical Period Hypothesis.   Segmental and supra-segmental aspects of pronunciation will be discussed and it will be shown that adults, specifically Koreans, can improve in these areas.   Finally, self-monitoring and self-correction will be examined as tools for adults to improve their pronunciation skills. Korean language learners will be used as examples.

The Critical Period Hypothesis

The Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) posits that after a certain period of time our language learning abilities decrease significantly.   Scientists say that as we get older and our brains begin to mature, lateralization occurs as certain functions are assigned to either the left or right side of the brain. Children's brains, which have not lateralized yet, are able to use both hemispheres for language learning.   But once lateralization is complete, research suggests that we rely solely on our left hemisphere for language skills.   Therefore, we have a critical period of time before we lose this ability to use both hemispheres simultaneously for language learning (Brown 2000).

There is a solid body of evidence supporting the CPH.   Jayeon Lim (2003) cites Johnson & Newport (1991) who connect L2 proficiency with the age of exposure.   Proficiency

goes down as the age increases (Lim, p.1).   Gina La Porta (2000) cites Patkosky's (1980) point which "found that learners under the age of fifteen achieved higher syntactic proficiency than those who were over the age of fifteen at the onset of exposure" (p.1).   The concept of a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) also adds weight to the Critical Period Hypothesis because if the LAD does exist inside us, could it not shut off and cause a diminished ability to acquire languages?

Thomas Scovel (1969), cited in Brown (2000), spoke out strongly against the CPH. He pointed out that adults are superior learners in areas such as literacy, vocabulary and syntax. Accent was the only advantage that children possessed as language learners (Brown, 2000). Therefore, we can no longer expect our adult students to improve to what Guiora, Beit-Hallami, Brannon, Dull and Scovel (1972), cited in (Brown, 2000),   called "authentic" pronunciation (p. 55). Teachers should help students improve in their weakest areas as well as areas that might hinder them from being understood.

Belief in the CPH -especially the wholesale kind- can cause an adult language teacher to lose heart.   Why are we bothering to teach a second language to people who have lost the ability to learn the language well?   However, if we take a closer look at the CPH, we see that it doesn't state that adults can't learn an L2.   It doesn't even say that adults can't improve their pronunciation.   What it states is that after lateralization occurs at a certain age (i.e. puberty) learners' accents are directly effected (Lenneberg, 1967, p.9), and thus their pronunciation. Having said that, the inference is that adults aren't able to acquire a perfect accent and pronunciation while acquiring a language.   While that may be true, there is still a great deal that they *can* learn and work towards in their language acquisition goals.

Segmentals

Hansen (1995) notes that segmental techniques, like drilling minimal pairs, have lost favor in the current pedagogical climes of CLT (p. 289). As often happens older methodologies and approaches that offer students something worthwhile are discarded in favor of more ideologically appropriate methodologies.

Yet one area where adult learners can improve rapidly is the pronunciation of segmentals. Segmentals are the individual sounds that can be broken down in a language and focused on individually. Hammond (1995) notes that adults learning a second language are capable of "perceiving and articulating subtle" differences. However, the inference is that these must be made explicit (p.300). Segmentals don't need to be taught technically, although a background in phonetics would be useful. Tricks such as telling students to make a rabbit face to correctly produce an /f/ sound can help them to remember longer.

Korean students can be taught to identify the differences between the sounds that aren't present in the Korean Hangul alphabet. Learning to distinguish differences aurally can help students recognize individual, distinct sounds so they are better able to focus on producing them. Fraser (1999) points out that there can be a sizeable gap between "what people think they are saying, a phonetic description of the sounds they are actually producing, and how someone from a different language background describes their speech" (p.2). Students may not realize that they sound different from the teacher or an audio tape. Dalton (1997) suggests that students will convert unclear input into a similar sound in their own language. Since the Korean alphabet doesn't have an /f/ sound, Koreans will substitute /p/ or even /hw/. Through the use of contrastive analysis students can develop a better understanding of the differences between their L1 and English.

Improvement with segmentals can lead to a feeling of accomplishment and increased motivation. Vitanova and Miller (2002) cite a student who wrote:

"I changed my wrong consonant sounds likes F, P, B, V and RL sounds into correct enunciation. I was very happy to hear that my American friends told me, 'Your pronunciation is getting better'" (Vitanova & Miller, p.2). Conversely, segmental pronunciation mistakes can also lead to embarrassing misunderstandings such as asking for a cap but receiving a cup.

Supra-segmentals

The supra-segmental aspects of pronunciation can also be improved by adult learners. Supra-segmentals are comprised of language stress, rhythm, intonation, pitch, duration and loudness. Students whose first language is syllable timed, like Korean, will inevitably find mastering a stress timed language, such as English, a very daunting task (Bell, 1996). By placing more or less stress on certain words the speaker's context can change completely. Therefore, the differences in supra-segmentals between Korean students' L1 and English are topics that our students should not only be aware of but should make a conscious effort to study and focus on. Fortunately, intonation can be learned as a set of rules similar to grammar (Wennerstrom, 1999). Cognitive learning, such as this, is generally easier for adult learners.

In order to help students improve what could be considered the musical aspect of pronunciation, teachers must start with the basics. Can your students identify the number of syllables in words? Many students aren't aware that most dictionaries show syllabic divisions. The ways that words are broken down vary between languages. The Korean language, for example, requires that a vowel sound be present between consonants. Therefore, one syllable words such as 'stress' or 'school' become 'suh-tuh-re-suh' and 'suh-kool'. Students can practice counting syllables with clapping or underlining drills. Teachers should keep in mind that, as with segmentals, "the learners actually hear speech very differently than the teachers themselves do" (Fraser, 1999, p. 4). Therefore, what might sound like one syllable to a native speaker might sound like two or even three syllables to a student and be reproduced incorrectly.

After students have mastered English syllables, teachers should discuss word stress. Students should be aware that by stressing certain words in a sentence the context will change. Let's consider a sentence like: He is driving to the beach.   By stressing the word "He" we are ruling out other people.   By stressing the word "driving" we are ruling out other forms of transportation.   By stressing the word "beach" we are ruling out other locations for him to go to.

Vitanova and Miller (2002) mention a student who achieved positive results by focusing on suprasegmentals.   The student wrote:

> Before I took this course, my speech tone was very flat.   The most important thing is I didn't realize it, but now, I know a lot of how to divide thought groups, and where I should make an emphasis when I read sentences.   I really think I made a big progress on it (p. 3).

Self-Monitoring and Self-Correction

Research has shown (Vitanova & Miller, 2002) that adults can see improvement in both segmental and supra-segmental areas of pronunciation.   However, once students have mastered the basic sounds of English and identified some of the supra-segmental differences between their L1 and English, it is time to help them learn some strategies so that they can study more effectively on their own.   The advantage of advanced cognitive awareness is something that adults possess but children do not.   Self-monitoring is the conscious action of listening to one's own speech in order to find errors.   Self-correction is the process of fixing one's errors after they have occurred by repeating the word or phrase correctly.   By teaching our adult students to self-monitor and self-correct, we enable them to make their learning more personal and hopefully more meaningful.

Some strategies for helping students improve self-monitoring and self-correction include: critical listening, compiling learning portfolios, utilizing CALL resources and studying

in pronunciation-specific classes.   Critical listening can be very useful for enabling students to recognize and correct their own errors (Fraser, 1999).   Once students recognize that a long /i/ sound requires that the mouth be stretched widely, they can feel the difference when they speak or watch others speak.   Watching others serves to reinforce the forms that they have been taught.

Effective self-monitoring requires that students take control of their learning.   Students can become more autonomous learners by compiling pronunciation portfolios and keeping records of their progress (Thompson, Taylor & Gray, 2001).   Pronunciation portfolios could contain tongue twisters, diagrams of mouth and tongue positions or any activity that pertains to pronunciation.   Students can also keep learning journals, which outline their feelings or concerns while improving their pronunciation.   This allows them to go back and think about their mistakes as well as monitor their own progress.

CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) can also be an important tool when attempting to help students become more autonomous by allowing them to hear their own mistakes and see both segmental and supra-segmental graphic representations.   CALL benefits students by letting them study at their own pace in a semi-private environment as well as allowing them to build profiles which enable teachers to monitor their improvement (Nari, Cucchiarni & Strik, 2001). Molholt, Lane, Tanner and Fischer (1988) point out that when students see and hear similar words they are more able to differentiate both segmental and supra-segmental aspects of the language and thus self-correct their own pronunciation difficulties.

Pronunciation classes can also be an effective way for students to improve self-assessment skills.   Rajadurai (2001) writes about Malaysian students who took pronunciation classes saying, "… students felt that pronunciation classes had helped make them more conscious of their own pronunciation and aware of ways in which their pronunciation differed from the model offered (p. 14)."

Helping our students take more control of their learning is an important "next step" in the learning process.   We, however, must remember that students need a solid understanding of phonetics and phonology before they can be expected to monitor their own speech or utilize self-

evaluation effectively (Vitanova & Miller, 2002). Research by Jones, Rusmin and Evans, (1994) cited in Jones (1997), showed that by teaching phonological rules, we can help students become better equipped to listen to their own speech and catch their own mistakes.

Conclusion

Adult ESL and EFL learners may never sound like native speaks. Therefore many language teachers read to reevaluate their teachers' goals in respect to pronunciation. Educators must focus on helping students improve their pronunciation and their ability to monitor and correct their own pronunciation. Robertson (2003) quotes Morley (1991) in saying that "intelligible pronunciation is an essential component of communicative competence" (p. 4). Hammond (1995) suggests that this can be done in a CLT environment, but the best method is to provide explicit classroom pronunciation instruction. Language teachers can improve their students' pronunciation markedly drilling minimal pairs in order to help them improve their intelligibility (Hansen, 1995). By raising our students' awareness of supra-segmental aspects such as connected speech and word stress and helping them to become more autonomous learners, we can take advantage of the positive aspects of teaching adults instead of simply assuming that's it's too late to improve their pronunciation. We need to change our goals from expecting our students to speak like native speakers to having them make strides in different areas of pronunciation and helping them to identify, understand, and overcome their weaknesses.

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