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Setting the Standards**



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Foreword

The December 2007 edition of the *Asian EFL Journal* presents the conference proceedings from our May EIL Congress held at Korea University in Seoul. It was a stimulating event for speakers and audience members since views on the role of English could be shared and analyzed from various contexts in Asia and beyond. In this sense, the true ethos of the *Asian EFL Journal* and its related journals, that of a community of researchers and teachers meeting to challenge existing dogma, was seen in practice over the course of the congress. Sincere thanks are extended to the authors who submitted their papers and the team of editors and proofreaders who have processed the submissions. The conference issue is divided into three sections: a summary of the talk by Professor Rod Ellis, papers which directly addressed the main conference EIL theme, and papers related to a variety of other Asian EFL topics.

It was again a privilege to enjoy the insights of Professor Rod Ellis as the main speaker at the congress. His paper entitled “Educational Settings and Second Language Learning” focuses on the foreign language learning setting and refers to the “neglect” of sociolinguistic research into this area compared to ESL settings as indicated by Rampton (2006). This analysis is framed by reference to studies by Skuttnab-Kangas (2000) into the concept of “settings” and Coupland’s (2001) differentiation between Type 1 and Type 2 sociolinguistics. Ellis then investigates the relationship between L2 learning and various educational settings involving submersion, segregation, mother tongue maintenance, immersion, and dual language. Importantly, the variance in learning outcomes is stressed not simply between these settings, but also within them. He concludes by outlining principles of successful language learning which draw upon the arguments outlined in his analysis.

EIL papers

The global development of English as an international language has many implications for English language teachers so it is hardly surprising that investigations into teaching English for international communication have long been an important focus of attention for AEJ culminating in a full conference dedicated to EIL. The 2007 conference papers have produced a variety of perspectives that we hope will stimulate future submissions to the journal on this theme.

The first paper presented in this edition comes from Rias van den Doel from Holland. His paper looks at international intelligibility in EIL and considers the standards and competence in EIL pedagogy, arguing that a “truly international English model” should not focus on native or non-native “local or parochial concerns”. Instead of this narrow perspective of EIL, a “broad view of communication” is necessary, embracing both L1 and L2 speaker needs, and a diversity of communicative situations. To achieve this admittedly “ambitious objective”, he proposes a pronunciation model which challenges Jenkin’s (2000) Lingua Franca and is more widely accepted and understood worldwide.

The second paper by Ahmet Acar from Turkey complements the first paper by considering how the global spread of English has led to the emergence of “varieties of English in different sociolinguistic and sociocultural contexts”. Acar argues that awareness of such varieties is essential. He also questions the feasibility of striving towards a single standard English for all English contexts and asks whether a variety of standards should be adopted in its place. The idea of “standards” in teaching EIL is investigated in relation to the native speaker model and competence in EIL pedagogy.

In the third paper, Rana Yildirim and Zuhal Okan consider the impact of globalization on English Language Teaching in Turkey. The paper looks at the general phenomenon of globalization and relates it to linguistic concerns, especially how the English language is viewed in terms of ownership, native speaker status, the cultural content of ELT, and methodological appropriateness in the Turkish context. Yildirim and Okan draw upon data from questionnaires and interviews with teacher trainers working at various Turkish universities.

In the paper by Rajabali Askarzadeh Torghabeh from Iran, the author argues that it is necessary to increase our awareness of EIL in terms of its variations, status as the norm, how it has been changing, and how it affects languages. If this is achieved, then we can be better equipped to plan its future and set its standards. Additionally, Torghabeh calls for a “common or international standard” set by literary scholars and language teachers alike.

Roger Nunn’s contribution follows on from his 2005 paper on the meaning of competence when English is used as an International Language. In this study, Nunn develops the 2005 definition of “speech community” by looking more at the concept of “community”. He does this by including discussions of ‘discourse’, ‘bi-lingual’, and ‘local’ and ‘international’ characterizations. He then contrasts ‘competence’ with ‘proficiency’ and discusses the five types of competence outlined in the 2005 paper in relation to five characteristics of International Communicative Competence (ICC). Data samples from

projects in Abu Dhabi and a Japanese university are used to illustrate the arguments concerning competence and community.

Anita Dewi's paper examines the shift in professional identity among Indonesian Non-Native English Speaking Teachers studying at an Australian university. Her study traces the changes in identity over a period of time: prior to university study, during their study, and upon leaving Australia. The influence of English and cultural immersion are seen as playing important roles in the transformation of professional identity among the participants in this small-scale research. Dewi's paper surely carries great resonance with those of us who have experienced long stays of study abroad.

The next piece by Seyyed Ayatollah Razmjoo investigates the nature of English language textbooks in Iranian High Schools and private language institutes. Specifically, Razmjoo analyzes the textbooks in terms of their methodological approach and asks to what extent they are based upon Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) principles. Issues concerning the seminal works of Canale and Swain (1980), Hymes (1972), and Bachman (1990) on communicative competence are raised in this study. Findings from Razmjoo's research indicate that private language school textbooks tend to better represent CLT principles, whilst High School textbooks are seen as being "not conducive to CLT implementation".

Saleh M. Al-Salman from Jordan looks at Global English and the role of translation. His study investigates this role and considers three aspects impacting upon it: firstly, setting standards for the globalization of EIL in light of competition from other languages; secondly, the future of English within a demographically and economically changing world; and, finally, the actual need for translation into and from English considering the role of other languages. Al-Salman's insightful study draws upon a wide range of perspectives in this debate.

Mingxu Liu and Limei Zhang's paper looks at the differences of attitude, methodologies and teaching results as perceived by their students between Native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and Non-Native English-speaking Teachers (NNESTs) at the university level in China. The authors point out the lack of "systematic studies" employed to investigate these areas of research among the two groups of teachers and attempts to meet this need in their research methodology. Li and Zhang's study provides an interesting example of a new perspective addressing a common issue in the Asian context.

As an alternative to other articles focusing upon the role of English as an International Language, Stuart Warrington and Peter Ilic, both based in Japan, focus upon the teacher's sense of professional development. They introduce an evaluation measure, The Annual Activities Survey for Language Teachers (AASLT), a survey for administrators to reveal a

teacher's weaknesses in professional development. Warrington and Ilic explore some of the current issues in professional development research playing a role in our working lives within institutions and describe the rationale and operation of AASLT as a means to create awareness and sustain healthy development among teaching staff. The authors' work-in-progress presents an innovative contribution to the field.

Julide Inozu, Seden Tuyan and Emine Cakir Surmeli from Turkey investigate the affective barriers in Continuous Language Learning. This longitudinal research employs an approach based on Emotional Intelligence Theory, Cooperative Learning and Neuro Linguistic Programming in order to improve foreign language students' social and emotional learning skills. The methodology is one which raises students' awareness of their own character traits to "fulfil their mental, emotional and social potentials for better language learning experience". Inozu, Tuyan and Surmeli's research has far-reaching potential for language learning beyond the Turkish context.

Thor May, based in Korea, examines fractional language learning. This paper provides fascinating insights into the production of language independently, often outside formal educational environments. May considers "how both the classroom teaching and evaluation can be adapted to give proper recognition to student achievements on a fractional scale", and how such "graduated recognition" should be more overtly integrated into curriculum design. This adaptation and integration has, May argues, "strong implications for assessment practices" and should evoke a healthy debate about language learning environments and assessment tools.

The final paper in this section comes from Roger Nunn and John Adamson, Senior Editor and Associate Editor of *Asian EFL Journal* respectively. Editing for the journal in light of an increasing number of submissions of an international nature has led Nunn and Adamson to reflect upon the creation of alternative criteria for evaluating submissions. They consider whether standardized, strict evaluation criteria in linear fashion "dictate an inflexible generic review structure to the detriment of promoting different cultural voices", for example, those representing local varieties of Asian Englishes, the "idiosyncratic voices of expatriates", Asian researchers with experience in non-Asian university contexts, the diversity of reviewers' expectations, and non-experimental research papers. Key extracts from papers accepted and rejected in the review procedure are presented, along with findings from questionnaires sent out to the journal's reviewers. The authors conclude that there is a diversity of opinion among reviewers about both the alternative genres of writing received in submissions, as well as stances towards roles and responsibilities in reviewing. This has led

the editorial management team to set up a project to identify “alternative voices” for publication in forthcoming journal editions.

Asian EFL-related papers

The EIL Congress also offered the opportunity to presenters to talk about research on non-EIL themes. For this part of the proceedings, we have six papers, the first of which by Li and Lin discusses the impact of revision and teacher feedback in a Chinese college. The study asks whether revision and teacher feedback have a positive effect upon student performance. Their results from this small-scale study point to the positive effect of a combination of revision and teacher feedback. Moreover, teacher feedback without revision is seen not to improve accuracy.

The second article by Fahim and Pishghadam from Iran looks into the role of emotional, psychometric and verbal intelligences in the academic achievement of university students in English and translation courses. The study matches data of emotional quotient (EQ), intelligence (IQ), and verbal intelligence (VI) with the academic results of second year university students and yields interesting results, for example, that academic achievement can be strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence such as intrapersonal, stress management and general mood competencies. Other conclusions suggest that academic achievement cannot be strongly correlated with IQ, but more so with VI.

John Baker, Yi-Wen Luo & Yun-Ying Hung present a practical article on helping “daunted” low level students in the Taiwanese college context to become more autonomous. The authors propose extensive reading based on Krashen’s model (2004) as a means to achieve this goal under two conditions: firstly, that Anderson’s (2002) “rate build up” (RBU) reading technique is employed to enhance automaticity, and in turn, their reading speed; secondly, that “teaching should be carefully organized both at the course level and in the presentation of the material so that students can enjoy and profit from the work both during the course and once they leave”. In order to show how these two conditions can be achieved, a classroom model is presented which illustrates the RBU technique integrating “cyclical application” of language based skills, reading literature for its content, and reading literature for “personal enrichment”.

The next paper by Julide Inozu & Gulden Ilin from Turkey investigates the perceptions of students towards e-language learning in consideration of the specific, local context in which such programs are offered. The research methodology of a combination of questionnaires and semi-structured interviews reveals that among the university students under investigation it

may be necessary to redesign e-learning programs to accommodate the requirements of local students. The authors' insightful study suggests that "modifications should be made towards a more learner-centered framework which would better match specific needs" in light of the previous instructional mode to which they have most likely been exposed.

In Akemi Katayama's study, the preferences of Japanese university students in Japan towards error correction is investigated. Katayama uses questionnaires to reveal that students preferred teacher correction of errors, and also, that they preferred pragmatic errors to be corrected more than other types. It is noted that the most favored type of teacher correction was that of giving a "hint" so that students could notice their error and then proceed to self-correction. Katayama's study presents us with useful insights into the expectations of teaching and learning practices in the Japanese context which could have implications for other contexts.

The final paper by Pham Phu Quynh Na based in Australia looks at her own experiences as an ESOL instructor of immigrants on a government-funded program. The author illustrates six practical strategies for dealing with such multi-level classes regardless of the students' nationalities in order to enhance their interest in language learning: giving project work related to the learner's interests; learning which challenges each student; preparing tasks with various levels of difficulty; taking away the pressure of error-free performance and competition; focusing on topics rather than language; and finally, the teacher's time management of the learning process. The use of these strategies is illustrated with tasks involving the practical and everyday necessities of life facing the students, for example, finding a job, taking forms of transport, and dealing with instructions.

We hope you enjoy the diversity of papers offered in this edition of conference proceedings, both in the EIL and Asian EFL-related sections, and look forward to your own contributions to the journal.

John Adamson
Associate Editor
Asian EFL Journal



Educational Settings and Second Language Learning

Rod Ellis

*Chang Jiang Scholar of Shanghai International Studies University
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Bio Data:

Professor Ellis, a renowned linguist, received his Doctorate from the University of London and his Master of Education from the University of Bristol. A former professor at Temple University both in Japan and the US, Prof. Ellis has taught in numerous positions in England, Japan, the US, Zambia and New Zealand. Dr. Ellis, who is known as the "Father of Second Language Acquisition", has served as the Director of the Institute of Language Teaching and Learning at the University of Auckland. Author of numerous student and teacher training textbooks for Prentice Hall and Oxford University Press, Prof. Ellis's textbooks on Second Language Acquisition and Grammar are core textbooks in TESOL and Linguistics programs around the world.

Introduction

A general distinction can be drawn between 'natural' and 'educational' settings. The former arise in the course of the learners' contact with other speakers of the L2 in a variety of situations—in the workplace, at home, through the media, at international conferences, in business meetings, etc. The latter are traditionally found in institutions such as schools and universities but, increasingly, in computer-mediated environments. There will be some learners who experience the L2 entirely in natural settings and others whose only contact with it is in educational settings. Many learners will experience the L2 in both natural and educational settings. The focus of this article is educational settings.

In considering the relationship between setting and language learning, it is important to clarify what is meant by 'setting'. In this respect, Coupland's (2001) distinction between two types of sociolinguistics is helpful. Type 1 sociolinguistics adopts the perspective of sociolinguistic realism, according to which social life is viewed as 'a structured set of social categories which, to some extent, control our social characteristics and opportunities' (p. 2). Type 2 sociolinguistics assumes that 'social life and our entire experience of society is best seen as structured through local actions and practices' (p. 2). Accordingly, we can view educational settings as both determining how successful learners are in learning an L2 and/or as constructed by the participants (the teacher and the learners) through the social actions that

they perform in a particular setting. In the discussion of the different settings that follows both perspectives will be drawn on.

Types of educational settings

Skuttnab-Kangas (2000) distinguished a number of different types of educational settings, which she divides into ‘non-forms’ (i.e. types that do not use two languages of the learner as the media of teaching and learning), ‘weak forms’ (i.e. types that have monolingualism, strong dominance of one language or limited bilingualism as their aim) and ‘strong forms’ (i.e. types that aim to promote high levels of bi- or multilingualism and multiliteracy for all participants). Table 1 summarizes the different types that Skuttnab-Kangas lists under these headings. However, for reasons of space, I will only consider the main ones in detail.

Category	Type	Description	Example
Non-forms	Language teaching	The language of the school curriculum is the learners' L1; the L2 is taught as a subject only.	Teaching of English as a foreign language in Japan.
	Submersion	Linguistic minority students with a low-status L1 are taught the school curriculum through the medium of a high status L2.	Use of English as a medium of instruction in Anglophone Africa.
	Segregation	Linguistic minority children with a low status L1 are taught the school curriculum through the medium of their L1. The L2 may be taught as a subject.	Mother tongue medium schools for the children of Turkish migrant workers in Germany.
Weak forms	Transitional	Linguistic minority children with a low status L1 are instructed through the medium of the L1 until they have acquired sufficient competence in the L2 for that to become the medium. Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) sees this as a more sophisticated version of submersion' (p. 592).	Use of students' L1 in early primary school in Anglophone Africa; L2 English takes over in late primary and secondary.

Strong forms	Mother tongue maintenance	Linguistic minority children with a lower status L1 receive instruction in their L1 with a view to maintaining and developing skills in this language.	The programme in Italian for children of Italian speaking parents in Bedford, UK (Tosi 1984).
	Immersion	Linguistic minority children with a high status language are instructed through the medium of a foreign/minority language in classes consisting entirely of L2 learners.	French immersion programmes in Canada.
	Dual language	A mixed group of linguistic minority and majority students are taught through the medium of the learners' L1 and L2, with the dominant language taught as a subject.	Two-way Spanish English programmes in the USA.
	Alternate days	A mixed group of linguistic minority and majority students are taught using their L1 and L2 on alternate days.	The alternate day programme in English and Spanish in Castiloga, California.
	Plural multilingual	Students with different L1s are taught the school curriculum through the medium of their L1 with an L2 taught as a foreign language in grade 1. This then increasingly becomes the medium of instruction in later years when other L2s are also offered as foreign languages.	The 10 European Union Schools in six countries.

Table 1: Educational settings

The language classroom setting

'The language classroom' is defined here as a setting where the target language is taught as a subject only and is not commonly used as a medium of communication outside the classroom. In this sense it includes both 'foreign' language classrooms (for example, Japanese classes in the United States or English classes in China) and 'second' language classrooms where the learners have no or minimal contact with the target language outside the language classroom (for example, 'ESL' classes in a francophone area of Canada).

Whereas the second language classroom has been the subject of a number of

sociolinguistic studies (see, for example, Miller, 2004 and Poole, 1992), the foreign language classroom has been largely neglected by sociolinguists. Rampton (2006) offered a number of reasons for this neglect. First, in accordance with Type 1 sociolinguistics, the social significance of the target language has been deemed minimal because its speakers are remote from the learners. Second, sociolinguistic enquiry has focused on the interface between the home language and the language of the nation-state (i.e. with language use in majority language settings) and such an interface does not arise in foreign language classrooms. Third, the overarching concern with ‘competence’ and with the tacit acquisition of language has led sociolinguists to view the ‘specialized languages’ of the foreign language classroom as of no real interest.

However, the distinction between Type 1 and Type 2 sociolinguistics affords a way of examining the language classroom setting from a social perspective. I will first adopt a Type 1 perspective by considering the differences between the foreign-language and second-language classroom in terms of choice of target, the different roles that teachers and students adopt, and parental support for language learning and the impact that these factors have on what and how well a learner learns. I will then draw on Rampton’s (2006) interesting study of how learners of German as a foreign language in an urban school in London appropriated ‘Deutsch’ for their own purposes as a way of exploring a Type 2 approach to the language classroom.

Foreign-language classroom contexts can be distinguished from second language classroom contexts in that native-like cultural and pragmatic competence is not a high priority in the former (Nayar, 1997). To make it so would constitute a threat to the learners’ own ethnic identities and also might not be favourably received by native speakers. Janicki (1985) commented:

It has been noticed that non-natives are likely to face social consequences when their linguistic behaviour complies with sociolinguistic rules saved (by some norm) for the natives. Examples are the usage of obscenities, slang expressions, or very formal pronunciation. It seems that there exists a set of as yet unidentified norms which proscribe the use of some forms on the part of the non-native speaker.
Preston (1981) suggests that an appropriate model for the L2 learner is that of ‘competent bilingual’ rather than a native-speaker model. This may well be the implicit model of many learners in foreign-language settings.

The role relationships between teacher and student influence learning in a classroom. In the case of traditional approaches to language teaching, where the target language is perceived primarily as an ‘object’ to be mastered by learning about its formal properties, the teacher typically acts as a ‘knower/informer’ and the learner as an ‘information seeker’

(Corder, 1977). In the case of innovative approaches (for example, communicative language teaching) where the emphasis is on the use of the target language in ‘social behaviour’ a number of different role relationships are possible, depending on whether the participants are ‘playing at talk’, as in role-play activities, or have a real-life purpose for communicating, as in information gap activities; the teacher can be ‘producer’ or ‘referee’ and the learner ‘actor’ or ‘player’. However, Corder noted that even ‘informal learning’ inside the classroom may differ from that found in natural settings.¹ As noted earlier, classroom learners often fail to develop much functional language ability, which may reflect the predominance of the knower/information seeker role set in classrooms.

Parents may play an active role by monitoring their children’s curricular activities. They may also play a more indirect role by modelling attitudes conducive to successful language learning. A number of studies have found a positive relationship between parental encouragement and achievement in L2 classroom learning (for example, Burstall, 1975; Gardner and Smythe, 1975). Gardner (1985) argues that parents’ influence on proficiency is mediated through the students’ motivation.

I will turn now to examine a Type 2 approach to examining language classroom settings. Rampton (2006), drawing on the techniques of interactional sociolinguistics, documented how foreign language learners of German in a London school used ‘Deutsch’ (i.e. their spontaneous improvisations of German) outside their German classes—in break time, in corridors, and in other subject lessons. Rampton found that the boys he studied made much greater use of Deutsch than the girls but put this down to differences in their interactional dispositions rather than their sex (i.e. the boys used it to show off). Rampton suggested that the use of German words and phrases served as a resource for the ‘voluntary “performance” of exuberant students intent on embellishing the curriculum discourse in whatever ways they could’ (p. 163), for making ‘music’ out of their linguistic resources and for ritual purposes (for example, thanking and apologizing). Rampton also noted that German did not belong to anyone and therefore served as a racially-neutral language that was ‘safe’ for linguistically heterogeneous students. Rampton noted however, that the use of Deutsch was a ‘passing fad’. In an interview some 18 months after the last classroom recording, the students who had been shown to use Deutsch said they no longer used it and expressed a dislike of their German classes. Thus, whereas Rampton’s study sheds light on how students can appropriate elements of a foreign language to enact their social lives in and out of the classroom, it also suggests that such use may not contribute much to their actual proficiency in the foreign language.

Skuttnab-Kangas (2000) noted that foreign language classroom settings are characterized by very varying degrees of success. In countries where the learners' L1 does not function as a lingua franca the teachers are well-qualified and the language curricula are well designed (for example, the Nordic countries and the Netherlands) high levels of proficiency are often achieved. In such countries, learners may also have exposure to some exposure to the target language outside the classroom (for example, through TV). In other countries (for example, the UK, France, Japan, and the USA) the results are less impressive. Ultimately, success in learning a language in a foreign language classroom may depend on to what extent the learners see the language playing a role in whatever identity they wish to construct for themselves.

Submersion

Skuttnab-Kangas (1988) defined a submersion programme as:

a programme where linguistic minority children with a low-status mother tongue are forced to accept instruction through the medium of a foreign majority language with high status, in classes where some children are native speakers of the language of the instruction, where the teacher does not understand the mother tongue of the minority children, and where the majority language constitutes a threat to their mother tongue—a subtractive language learning situation. (p. 40)

Submersion is common in Britain and the United States, where ethnic minority children are educated in mainstream classrooms. Skuttnab-Kangas (2000) also noted that deaf children also experience submersion education as there are very few schools in the world teaching deaf children through the medium of sign languages.

The characteristics of submersion settings are discussed by Cohen and Swain (1979) and Baker (2006). Right from the beginning, L2 learners are taught with native speakers. This can create communication problems and insecurity in the learners. If L1 support is provided, it is of the 'pull-out' kind, which stigmatizes the L2 child and also deprives learners of the opportunity to progress in content subjects. The language teachers are typically monolingual and thus unable to communicate with the learners in their L1. In some cases, the learners are actively discouraged from speaking in their L1. The students' low academic performance may reflect the low expectations that teachers often have of the students, particularly those from certain ethnic groups (for example, Mexican American students in the United States). Reading material and subject-matter instruction in the L1 are not available, resulting in increased insecurity in the learners. Parental involvement in the school programme is usually limited. There are often problems with the learner's social and emotional adjustment to school.

For many learners, the disjunction between L1 use in the home and L2 use at school constitutes a painful experience, as Rodriguez' (1982) autobiography illustrates. Rodriguez

was the son of a Mexican immigrant who settled in a mainly white locality of California. At school he was required to use English exclusively. At home Spanish was spoken, until his parents accepted the advice of the Catholic nun teachers at his school to speak English. Gradually, Rodriguez lost the ability to communicate in Spanish, signalling his rejection of his Spanish-Mexican identity. Although Rodriguez was ultimately successful in developing a high level of L2 proficiency, this was achieved at considerable personal and social cost. Rodriguez himself, however, while acknowledging the discomfort he experienced at both school and home, did not question the subtractive model of bilingualism to which he was exposed. In contrast, other learners, do question it and refuse to assimilate (for example, Skuttnab-Kangas (2000) mentioned two case studies of members of the Sami group in Nordic countries in Europe who made strenuous efforts to maintain their L1 and develop literacy skills in it).

Although submersion settings do not invariably result in lack of success in learning an L2 (as the Rodriguez example demonstrates), in general they do not facilitate it and they can lead to L1 attrition. Cummins (1988) identified three characteristics that are important for L2 acquisition; (1) a bilingual teacher who can understand students when they speak in their L1, (2) input that has been modified to make it comprehensible, and (3) effective promotion of L1 literacy skills. Submersion contexts have none of these. Baker (2006) argued that the basic assumption of submersion is assimilation, commenting that ‘the school has become a melting pot to help create common social, political and economic ideals’ (p. 196).

Segregation

Segregation occurs where the L2 learner is educated separately from the majority or a politically powerful minority, who speak the target language as their mother tongue. As Baker (2006) put it, it ‘forces a monolingual policy on the relative powerless’ (p. 198). Immigrants or migrant workers who are educated in special schools, centres, or units designed to cater for their language needs constitute an example of segregation in a majority setting. ‘Bantu education’ in Namibia prior to independence is an example of segregation in a setting where a powerful minority spoke the official language (Afrikaans) as a mother tongue.

Skuttnab-Kangas (1988) claimed that segregation settings produce poor results. She argued that the overall aim of education in these settings is the development of a limited L2 proficiency—sufficient to meet the needs of the majority or powerful minority and to ensure their continued political and economic control. Although some support for L1 development is provided, this is also usually limited. Negative L2-related factors identified by Skuttnab-Kangas include the poor quality of L2 instruction and the lack of opportunity to

practise the L2 in peer-group contexts.

However, the case against segregation is not as clear-cut as Skuttnab-Kangas makes out. In certain situations, the provision of separate educational facilities may have beneficial effects. For example, short-term programmes for refugee populations newly arrived in the United States or European countries can help them adjust socially, affectively, and linguistically to the demands of their new country. It can also be argued that the maintenance of minority languages requires at least some segregation. Magnet (1990), for example, drew on the Canadian experience to argue that a minority language will only be viable if its speakers enjoy a ‘degree of autonomy and segregation in order to develop in their own way’ (1990, p. 295). The advantages of segregation are also recognized by minority communities themselves, as illustrated by their attempts to set up separate schools for their children. In a later discussion of segregation, Skuttnab-Kangas (2000) acknowledged that it has ‘a somewhat better record than submersion’ (p. 592).

Segregation also has some advantages where L2 learning is concerned. In particular, because the learners are likely to be at the same level of development, it is possible to tailor input to their level. Where the learners have different L1s, the L2 is likely to serve as a language of classroom communication and not just as a learning target. This is likely to broaden the functions that it typically serves. For these reasons, segregation may facilitate the development of ‘survival skills’ in the L2. However, as Skuttnab-Kangas (2000) pointed out, it has a number of disadvantages, such as the failure to develop high levels of bilingualism and, in some contexts, negative societal consequences. She argued that, in contrast to mother tongue maintenance settings it is distinctly inferior.

Mother tongue maintenance

Skuttnab-Kangas pointed out that mother tongue maintenance can take two forms. In the weaker form, pupils are given classes in their mother tongue, directed at developing formal language skills, including full literacy. In the stronger form, pupils are educated through the medium of their mother tongue. Examples of the former are the programmes for Panjabi established in Bradford, UK (Fitzpatrick 1987) and the Heritage Language Program established in Ontario, Canada (Cummins, 1992). These programmes were all funded by government or regional agencies. However, there is often reluctance on the part of such agencies to pay for community language programmes. Saravanan (1995), for example, reports that it took several years of lobbying to persuade the Singaporean government to support community run classrooms in Hindi, Panjabi, Bengali, and Urdu. In the USA, Chinese heritage community language schools are funded through tuition and private

fund-raising (Wang 1996). Examples of programmes where learners are educated through the medium of their mother tongue can be found in the Finnish-medium classes for Finnish migrant workers in Sweden (Skuttnab-Kangas, 1988). Summing up national policies and practices regarding minority language maintenance in Western countries, Skuttnab-Kangas (2000) commented: ‘Despite the small recent improvements, it seems clear that Western countries have so far not respected what should be basic linguistic human rights, especially in education, and that the world so far does little to prevent linguistic and cultural genocide’ (p. 563).

Mother tongue maintenance programmes are based on enrichment theory, according to which high levels of bilingualism are seen as a cognitive and social advantage. This contrasts with deficit theory, which views bilingualism as a burden and as likely to result in cognitive disadvantage. The results of research strongly suggest that additive bilingualism (the goal of mother tongue maintenance) confers linguistic, perceptual, and intellectual advantages. (See Swain and Cummins, 1979 for a review.)

There is also evidence that mother tongue maintenance settings, particularly those of the strong kind, result in considerable educational success (Skuttnab-Kangas, 1988). They are characterized by positive organizational factors (for example, appropriate cultural content in teaching materials), positive affective factors (for example, low anxiety, high internal motivation, self-confidence in the learners), success in developing full control of the L1, metacultural awareness, and a high level of proficiency in the L2.

Mother tongue maintenance provides support for L2 learning in two main ways. First, it ensures that the L2 is an additional rather than a replacement language and thus results in learners developing a positive self-identity. As Spolsky noted, learning an L2 is intimately tied up with one’s personality and being forced to learn an L2 as a replacement for the L1 is a ‘direct assault on identity’ (1986, p. 188). Mother tongue maintenance, then, is more likely to result in the positive attitudes needed for successful L2 development.

The second way involves a consideration of Cummins’ *interdependency principle* (Cummins 1981). This claims that whereas basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) develop separately in the L1 and L2, cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) is common across languages.² Cummins noted that whereas L2 communicative skills are typically mastered by immigrant learners in about two years, it can take from five to seven years for the same learners to approach grade norms for L2 academic skills. The interdependency principle has been demonstrated in a number of studies. Studies of the Portuguese-Canadian community in Toronto (Cummins *et al.*, 1990), of Japanese immigrant

children in Canada (Cummins and Nakajima, 1987), and of Turkish immigrant children in Holland (Verhoeven, 1991) support the importance of L1 academic skills as a basis for successful development of L2 CALP. Swain and Lapkin (1991) also showed that literacy in a community language benefits the learning of a second L2 (in this case, French) as a result of the transfer of knowledge and learning processes. The notion of interdependency is an important one because it suggests that the development of full L1 proficiency confers not only cognitive and social advantages attendant on mother tongue use but also benefits the acquisition of L2 proficiency.

Immersion

Immersion programmes began with the St. Lambert Experiment (Lambert and Tucker, 1972), a French immersion programme for English-speaking children living in Quebec, Canada. Similar programmes were then started in other parts of Canada. Subsequently, immersion programmes sprang up in many different parts of the world, for example in Hungary (Duff 1997), Finland (Bjorklund, 1997), and Catalonia (Artigal, 1997).

The term ‘immersion’ has come to refer to a number of different contexts, which need to be clearly distinguished. Initially, in the context of the Canadian French immersion programmes, it referred to programmes where members of a majority group (native speakers of English) were educated through the medium of French, the language of a minority group. There are a number of variants of these programmes, depending on whether the programme begins early (for example, in kindergarten) or late (for example, in Grades 4 or 7), and whether it is full (more or less all instruction is conducted in the L2) or partial (only part of the curriculum is taught through the L2). However, as Cummins (1988) pointed out, the term ‘immersion’ is used to refer to a variety of programmes for minority students. He distinguishes ‘L2 monolingual immersion programs for minority students’ which provide English-only instruction directed at classes consisting entirely of L2 learners; ‘L1 bilingual immersion programs for minority students’, which begin with L1-medium instruction, introducing L2-medium instruction some time later; and ‘L2 bilingual immersion programs for minority students’, which emphasize instruction in and on the L2 but which also promote L1 skills. He also noted that, misleadingly, even submersion programmes have been referred to as ‘immersion’. Skuttnab-Kangas (2000) took the view that the term ‘immersion’ should be reserved for programmes where learners with a high-status L1 are taught through the medium of a low-status L2.

In an attempt to resolve definitional problems, Johnson and Swain (1997) identify a number of core features of immersion programmes. These are:

- 1 The L2 is the medium of instruction.
- 2 The immersion curriculum parallels the local L2 curriculum.
- 3 Overt support for the L1 exists.
- 4 The programme aims for additive bilingualism (a feature that Skuttnab-Kangas considers pivotal).
- 5 Exposure to the L2 is largely confined to the classroom.
- 6 Students enter with similar (and limited) levels of proficiency.
- 7 The teachers are bilingual.
- 8 The classroom culture is that of the local L1 community.

Swain and Lapkin (2005) reviewed these features in the light of the dramatic increase in ethnic diversity in Canada's urban centres, which make feature (8) problematic. They also revised their views about restricting the learners' use of the L1, acknowledging that 'judicious use' may be warranted.

The Canadian French immersion programmes have met with considerable success. Genesee (1987) and Swain and Lapkin (1982) reviewed the various programmes, reaching similar conclusions. English-speaking immersion students acquire normal English language proficiency and show the same or better level of general academic development. Furthermore, they tend to have less rigid ethnolinguistic stereotypes of the target-language community, and place greater value on the importance of inter-ethnic contact. These advantages are evident in 'disadvantaged' as well as 'advantaged' children. Evaluation of the different kinds of programmes shows that in general, total immersion produces better results than partial immersion, and also that early immersion does better than late.

The Canadian French immersion settings also lead to a high level of L2 French proficiency, particularly with regard to discourse and strategic competence, where learners achieve near-native-speaker levels (Swain, 1985). However, such levels are not usually reached in grammatical proficiency and, as Hammerley (1987) pointed out, in some cases a kind of 'classroom pidgin' can develop.³ Also, in comparison to younger immersion students (i.e. second graders), older immersion learners (i.e. fifth and sixth graders) have been observed to rely more on their L1 when interacting with each other. Tarone and Swain (1995) suggested that this is because, whereas change from above occurs in early immersion (i.e. learners are predominantly influenced by the superordinate style, represented in this case by L2 French), older learners experience increasing pressure for change from below to perform important interpersonal functions such as play, competition and positioning within their peer group and resort to L1 English because they do not have access to a vernacular style French. Swain and Tarone's argument is supported by Caldas and Caron-Caldas' (2002) study, which reported that two adolescent children in a French immersion programme in Louisiana resisted

using French when speaking outside class with their peers.

Overall, however, immersion programmes are very successful in promoting L2 acquisition. There are many reasons for this. One undoubtedly has to do with the fact that immersion settings ensure a plentiful supply of input that has been tailored to the learners' level and is therefore comprehensible. There are also social reasons. The learners' L1 and their ethnic identity are not threatened, so it is easy for the learners to adjust to the immersion setting. Furthermore, the immersion programmes are optional and, therefore, are well-supported by those parents who elect to send their children to them.

Dual language

Dual language programmes are often referred to as 'bilingual minority immersion programmes'. They are common in the United States, where they have been controversial. There has been considerable opposition to bilingual programmes for linguistic minorities, as reflected in the Official English Movement—the attempt to have English designated as the official language of the United States and to ensure that educational resources are directed towards teaching English rather than some other language—see Bingaman 1990. Cummins (1988) pointed out that the debate has centred on two arguments, both of which are mistaken. Supporters of minority bilingual programmes have advanced the 'linguistic-mismatch' argument, according to which minority children will be retarded academically if they are required to learn exclusively through the L2. This is mistaken because the French Canadian immersion programmes have shown conclusively that early instruction through the medium of the L2 has no negative effects. Critics of bilingual immersion programmes have also advanced the 'maximum exposure' argument, according to which bilingual education is detrimental because it deprives learners of the exposure to the L2 necessary for successful acquisition. This is refuted by programmes which show that minority children who spend less time on English while they are developing L1 literacy skills ultimately do just as well in L2 academic skills as those who are educated exclusively through the L2. Cummins argued that minority programmes that are designed in such a way that they reflect the interdependency principle and the comprehensible input hypothesis have been shown to be successful. Genesee, however, suggested that the success of minority immersion programmes also depends on 'changing the sociocultural fabric of the school' (1987: 168–9). He noted that ways are needed to upgrade the status and power attached to the minority language and to teachers and support personnel who speak it as an L1. Genesee's comment points to the need to consider social as well as organizational factors in immersion education.

Conclusion

In this article, I have considered the relationship between different educational settings and L2 learning. The aim has been to identify the potential learning outcomes associated with different types of settings, defined in very broad terms. It is important to note that there will be considerable variance in learning outcomes within settings as well as between settings. Research to date (with the exception of that investigating the immersion programmes) has focused more or less exclusively on identifying the actual or potential ‘learning opportunities’ that arise in the different settings rather than investigating ‘learning outcomes’.

It is possible to identify a set of general principles that underlie likely language learning success in educational settings. The following is a list of such principles.

- 1 L1 maintenance—ensuring that learners achieve a high level of both oracy and literacy in their L1 will promote learning of the L2.
- 2 Perceptions of L1—learning is enhanced when the setting confers status on both their L1 and the L2.
- 3 Social need—learners learn best when they have a clear social need for the L2. This social need is highly varied, however. (For example, it can derive from the desire for power and status, from the use of the L2 as a medium of instruction, from the importance learners attach to achieving social cohesion, or from the ‘gaming’ that takes place in peer groups.)
- 4 Target norms—success in L2 learning cannot always be measured in terms of a set of norms based on a standard form of the language. Learners may be targeted on a nativized variety of the language or on a local dialect. There may a conflict between the norms the students are targeted on and the norms the educational setting promotes.
- 5 Initial learning—initial L2 learning is more successful if learners have the opportunity to learn within an L1 speaking group (as opposed to a context where they are immersed in a group of native speakers).

Notes

1. This discussion of roles focuses on the interactional roles adopted by teachers and learners in the classroom. Such roles reflect the status of the participants as teachers and students. They reflect the positions which educational institutions expect them to adopt. These are socially and culturally determined. This may be why teachers in some African and Asian countries seem to find it especially difficult to abandon the traditional role of ‘knower’.
2. Contrary to Cummins’ claim, there is also some evidence that BICS is interdependent. Verhoeven (1991) showed that children’s ability to produce context-embedded language in an L2 matches their ability to do so in their L1.
3. Hammerley’s attack on the Canadian French immersion programmes has come in for

considerable criticism. Collier (1992, p. 87), for example, characterizes his 1989 book as an ‘emotional, polemical, one-sided account of his personal views … with scant research evidence cited to undergird his opinions’.

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International Intelligibility in EIL

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Abstract

If EIL is to be regarded as an efficient medium for communicating information to all interlocutors from widely diverging language backgrounds, rather than as a means of emphasising speakers' own linguistic identities, this should be reflected in EIL pronunciation norms. The need to preserve intelligibility is, of course, accepted even by those who see EIL fundamentally as a medium for communication between non-natives (Jenkins, 2006). If, like Jenkins, one then goes on to exclude native speakers when setting EIL standards, it is clearly difficult to define intelligibility in terms of the widely variant standards of non-native speech while eschewing recourse to native-speaker English. This could be why, despite its explicitly non-native orientation, Jenkins's EIL pronunciation model is essentially based on British RP and GA (Network American). Nevertheless, Jenkins eliminates certain phonological features of these two accents from her model, purportedly since these are either irrelevant, or 'unteachable', or because they are considered to be lacking in a number of native Englishes.

In fact, many non-natives might object to being denied access to a type of English that can be used easily with non-native and native speakers alike. Furthermore, a recent study (Van den Doel, 2006), based on a large-scale survey of well over 500 native-speaker judges from throughout the English-speaking world, shows that if students of English were indeed to follow Jenkins's recommendations, their resultant pronunciation could expose serious issues of intelligibility and acceptability. This paper will examine these findings and enlarge upon them, suggesting that (1) while intelligibility is obviously of prime significance for native speakers, they also regard acceptability as a major concern; (2) pronunciation features in non-native speech are likely to be notably downgraded when they are also stigmatised in local native Englishes. These findings indicate limitations in Jenkins's current position, and suggest that a truly international English pronunciation model requires account to be taken of the attitudes and needs of native speakers.

In discussions about the status of English as an international language, it is frequently claimed that most communication in English does not involve any native speakers. While this may be disputed (cf. Trudgill, 2005b, pp. 77–78 and Bruthiaux, 2003, p. 168), the idea of

non-native communication in English outstripping interaction with native has given rise to the notion of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). Jennifer Jenkins (2000) and her followers assert that in communication between non-native speakers, the English used is a clearly definable and describable entity in its own right.

As has been noted before (see Gibbon, 2005; Scheuer, 2005; Trudgill, 2005b; Wells, 2005), there are a number of paradoxical features about ELF. ELF is supposedly based on description of non-native interaction, but it also implicitly prescribes to non-natives how this interaction should take place. Moreover, the model sets out to ignore the concerns of native speakers, yet it is essentially “grounded”, by Jenkins’s (2000, p. 131) own admission, in native-speaker varieties. Finally, despite the non-native emphasis, it is ironical that some of its most famous supporters have been native speakers. Is it possibly an attempt on the part of English-speaking Western educators to control “what sort of English people should speak” – as Holliday (2005, p. 164) seems to imply?

In fact, there is a growing body of evidence (cf. Major *et al.*, 2002; Major *et al.*, 2005; Scheuer, 2005; Van den Doel, 2006) which suggests that a great many learners of English may be biased against non-native English and consequently do not appreciate being taught non-native models. Holliday (2005, p. 9) quotes a Taiwanese teacher, Kuo, who makes the following point:

Although I did feel comfortable to be told that I did not have to be native-speaker like, I would definitely feel upset if I could not reach my own expectation in pronunciation. ... If we take Jenkins’s view and tell them to stay where you are At some point we would terribly upset the learners because they might want to ... It’s been clear that I’m a language learner from the periphery and – listen to this – I prefer to speak for myself!

This non-native resistance presents a challenge to lingua franca researchers, some of whom have claimed that learners following native-speaker models are no different from people who want “to change the colour of their skin, the straightness of their hair, or the shape of their eyes to conform to other groups” (Cook, 1999, p. 196, as quoted in Jenkins 2006, p. 154). Non-native speakers (like me) are not necessarily motivated by linguistic insecurity; nor does choosing a native-like model of English obliterate speakers’ L1 identities, *pace* Jenkins (2000, p. 211). For most learners of English, their L1 is not an endangered heritage language (like Welsh or Basque) which they need to protect against the onslaught of English, but a system in which they habitually express an identity of their own outside of English. While Jenkins ascribes the wish to sound more native-like to the pressures of a native-speakerist language ideology (2006, pp. 154–155), she ignores the fact that non-natives may just want to make themselves as clear as possible not only to native speakers,

but also to those millions of non-natives who have made the same choice.

For English as an International Language to function as an efficient medium, it would be advisable to take a broad rather than a narrow view of intelligibility. This means that EIL speakers attempt to make themselves understood not only to other non-natives, but also to native speakers and also to those non-natives who favour a native-like model. This clearly goes beyond teaching non-natives to sound non-native (a target which, by definition, they must surely already have attained). The extent to which worldwide intelligibility can be achieved depends on the needs, attitudes and demographic profile of the individual learner; however, it cannot be stressed enough that pursuing this goal is certainly in the learner's own interest. Speech perception research shows (as cited in Trudgill, 2005a, p. 219) that non-natives find it harder than natives to understand other speakers of English – especially non-native speech containing far less of the crucial phonological information. Native speakers (like Jenkins) are better able to use contextual information, whereas non-native speakers of English (like me) find it tougher to process another speaker merging minimal pairs. When Dutch businessmen talk about their earning their *celery* rather than their *salary*, this may be harder for Japanese non-natives than for Americans, whereas I myself find it more difficult to deal with the confusion of *pork* and *fork* in Korean English.

Thus, learning to pronounce all crucial English phoneme contrasts is essential for improving the learner's ability to understand other speakers. Pitted against such a broad view of International English is a narrower view, which concentrates on non-native interaction only, and ignores the gravitational pull of native-speaker varieties. This kind of English as a Lingua Franca can afford to disregard native speakers, because it is hoped that, once it has drawn in enough adherents, the native speakers will simply follow suit and learn this slimmed-down version themselves. To quote Jenkins (2000, p. 227): “The perhaps unpalatable truth for ‘N[ative] S[peaker]s’ is that if they wish to participate in international communication in the 21st Century, they too will have to learn EIL.”

It is actually unclear why *native* speakers have to acquire a model which is, in fact, grounded in *native-speaker* speech. After all, if any of Jenkins's recommendations lead to increased intelligibility among non-native speakers, this is because many of the features of the Lingua Franca core are derived from native-speaker models. One example is Jenkins's recommendation to preserve most English consonant sounds (Jenkins, 2000, p. 132). Doubtless this improves intelligibility – but some of the details are unclear, like the questionable insistence on aspiration of initial fortis plosives. Jenkins (2000, p. 140) claims incorrectly that it is “particularly important” for non-proficient non-native speakers to

distinguish between [pæt] and [p^hæt], but this is simply not true. This surely holds only true for those whose L1s employ aspiration as an acoustic cue – speakers of Mandarin Chinese, for instance, as opposed to speakers of Malay, Indonesian, and the Dravidian languages of Southern Asia (Narasimhan, 2001, p. 245).

Certain other features recommended for exclusion are actually far more important, either because they could lead to phoneme confusion or because they are subject to stigmatisation. Examples include the dental fricatives /θ ð/, which Jenkins excludes from the Lingua Franca core, recommending their replacement by /f v/ or /t d/. As far as vowel sounds are concerned, the Lingua Franca core allows “L2 regional qualities ... if consistent” (Jenkins, 2000, p. 159), provided distinctions of vowel length are maintained. This disregards the potentially devastating effect of such common and consistent substitutions as the /æ/ vowel in TRAP by the /e/ vowel in DRESS, found in countless varieties of L2 English stretching all the way from Korea to Turkey and beyond. Other examples of non-native phoneme confusion sanctioned in the LFC are the failure to distinguish STRUT-LOT and FOOT-GOOSE. (See Wells, 1982, pp. 118–124 for these reference vowels.) These are certainly consistent “regional L2 qualities” in many parts of Europe.

An important rationale, Jenkins (2000, p. 27) suggests, for including or excluding certain features from the Lingua Franca core is whether or not these are also to be found in certain local native varieties of English. If, for instance, certain phonemic realisations also occur in local native varieties, it would seem “unreasonable”, as Jenkins (2000, p. 139) puts it, “to have ‘higher’ expectations of L2 speakers”. Nevertheless, if native-speaker norms were actually completely irrelevant, it should not matter whether some non-native variation is similar to native variation. Additionally, some of those features may be subject to considerable stigmatisation, not just from speakers of other varieties, but surprisingly also from those who are likely to use the stigmatised forms themselves. A good example is the use of schwa epenthesis, resulting in *film* being pronounced *fillum*. My recent research (Van den Doel, 2006) shows that, while this feature is characteristically attributed to speakers of Irish English, it is fact strongly stigmatised even in the Irish Republic itself.

A curious suggestion of Jenkins’s is to give low priority given to weak forms, that is, to allow /tə/ (‘to’) to be pronounced as /tu:/ (‘to’), even in unstressed positions, as in: *Are you travelling to Korea?* She claims, incorrectly, that weak forms are also absent in the speech of native speakers from as far afield as South Africa and Scotland (Jenkins, 2000, pp. 146–147; cf. Trudgill, 2005b, p. 82). Even if this were the case, a strong realisation of *to* would still run the risk, in this context, of being interpreted contrastively.

While Jenkins may invoke empirical evidence to show that her recommendations for the Lingua Franca core nonetheless help to streamline non-native interaction, my own research (Van den Doel, 2006) proves that certain of these actually impede interaction with native speakers - even though such interaction is, in my view, an important aspect of any communication in English as an International Language.

My study employed a large-scale Internet survey to investigate priorities in English pronunciation training. Well over 500 native speakers from throughout the English-speaking world, including North America, the British Isles, Australia and New Zealand, were asked to detect and evaluate non-native pronunciation features in sentences read by bilingual actors. Respondents were free to choose which of the two models of English supplied (RP and GA) they felt most competent to judge, and were subsequently provided with 32 recordings of Dutch pronunciation errors in what was otherwise native-sounding English. Respondents were able to access each recording from a separate Internet page, presented to them in random order, from which they could listen to the recording and evaluate the error. A sample page is provided in Fig. 1. By clicking on hyperlinked letters or letter combinations, judges could select the phoneme which they thought contained the error, without needing any knowledge of phonetics or linguistics. There was also a facility to indicate suprasegmental problems. Respondents were then required to indicate its gravity, before being allowed to go on to the next Web page. They were also encouraged to provide additional comments. Thus, for every pronunciation feature it was possible to record (a) whether or not it had been detected and (b) how it had been assessed.

A number of interesting results emerged. Firstly, it turned out that participants' success in detecting an error is not necessarily linked to their assessment of its severity. For instance, British, Irish and Australian judges report more errors than North Americans, but diagnose fewer of those as serious. Conversely, North American respondents detect fewer errors, but evaluate those errors as being more serious. This was noticeably true of the replacement of dental fricatives by dental stops, which was considerably more stigmatised by North Americans than by other natives. Secondly, it was possible to construct a hierarchy of error for all groups by collating the data on detection and evaluation. This revealed that stress errors were generally considered by far the most significant.

You have no authority over any of us.

Does this sentence contain a clearly detectable error?

No -> please continue with the next sentence
 Yes -> please select the error below

You have no authority over any of us.

Pronunciation of [] in the word []
 Word stress
 Sentence intonation

How serious is this error?

Very serious Serious Not very serious Relatively unimportant

Space for extra comments:

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Figure 1. A sample page from the Internet survey held by Van den Doel (2006).

The results also suggested that, while native speakers tended to prioritise errors that demonstrably impeded intelligibility, in some cases they also attached great importance to those errors which did not lead to an actual breakdown in communication but nevertheless caused irritation or amusement. The fact that many participants volunteered additional information on the errors in question reinforces the notion that such foreign pronunciation errors are severely stigmatised, especially if they were similar to pronunciations heard in native-speaker varieties. This suggests that, where non-native realisations are “on a par” with native realisations (as Jenkins, 2000, p. 27 herself puts it), this may reinforce rather than reduce the negative evaluations associated with them. An informal assessment of the severity of schwa epenthesis as an error by Irish respondents is provided in Figs. 2 and 3 (cf. Van den Doel, 2006, pp. 182–183).

Subject	Accent self-identification	Comment
152	Northwestern Irish	Inserted schwa, acceptable in my own variety of English, some other people say it also, so it [doesn't ??] impede understanding really.
156	Southern Irish	Fil-um
525	British Standard (Irish)	Sounds like “fillin”
657	Southern Irish	Fillum instead of “film”, one of the most common errors committed by Irish people.

980	Southern Irish	Fil-lum: common among native speakers too...
987	Irish (south)	The pronunciation filum is normal in Ireland anyway, so does not seem foreign.
994	Southern Irish	But common pronu[n]ciation among southern Irish plebs
995	Southern Irish	The use of l-m in film as separate sounds is common in Ireland but not attractive

Figure 2. Comments on schwa epenthesis volunteered by respondents from Northern Ireland and the Irish Republic.

Subject	Accent self-identification	Comment
159	American - West Coast	I actually hear this here, and it bugs me to no end. There should be no shadow vowel after the l in “film”.
160	American – Standard	Film is pronounced “filum” and sounds uneducated.
320	Standard British, RP	/fil@m/ is a stigmatized dialectal pronunciation. Does that make it more serious or less serious?
396	American Southern	Sounds like “fillum” adding a syllable to the word. This is the mark of an uneducated speaker
464	RP	Has the “fillum” found only in irish! VERY VERY serious
585	Upper Midwest	Film indicates low level of education.
604	British (RP)	Because I've been known to say “fillum” for a joke, and people do.
717	British Rec[ei]ved Pronu[n]ciation	Sounded like filum... but I have h[ea]rd the word said this way when English folk are fooling around.
757	more or less Standard American	I is more or less ok, but epenthetic schwa is totally impossible for English (it's cute in Dutch, however).
763	New Zealand	ughhh! “ilm” is one syllable not two
852	Scottish Gaelic English	Class indicator
1019	British London	There are some English people who [woul]d say filim for film, but usually they are considered Yorkshire bumpkins.

Figure 3. Negative comments on schwa epenthesis volunteered by respondents other than from Northern Ireland and the Irish Republic.

A comparison of Jenkins's recommendations with the effect they may have on native-speaker audiences is certainly instructive. If the pronunciation features discussed

earlier are listed in a native-speaker hierarchy of error, there are certain striking differences, as may be seen in Fig. 4. Interestingly, th-substitutions tend to rank among the more serious errors, especially those involving /θ/ in *thin* and *author* – but with the notable exception of /ð ~ d/ confusion in the high-frequency function word *that*, where it was often not detected.

This clearly suggests that stop realisations of /θ/ and to a lesser extent /ð/ are evaluated negatively by native speakers, especially, as it turns out, by North Americans. Vowel errors tend also to rank highly, especially the widespread confusion of TRAP and DRESS. Note how the apparently trivial error of schwa epenthesis greatly outranks lack of aspiration (considered a vital error by Jenkins) and also the error in vowel length. It should be realised, however, that it was mainly the Americans and Canadians who considered aspiration insignificant.

Another interesting result is the disparity between the two different cases of weak form avoidance. In the second instance, the strong form cannot be taken contrastively, whereas this interpretation is more likely in the first instance.

- (1) We're going to Wales for a long relaxing holiday.
- (2) They all said that that may be done very differently.

This suggests giving a higher priority to the role of weak and strong forms in EIL, particularly in those instances where this affects stress patterning. Finally, the very low priority given to overdark /l/ should be noted. This was in fact entirely in keeping with Jenkins's recommendations – although, again, this error was considered much more serious by North Americans.

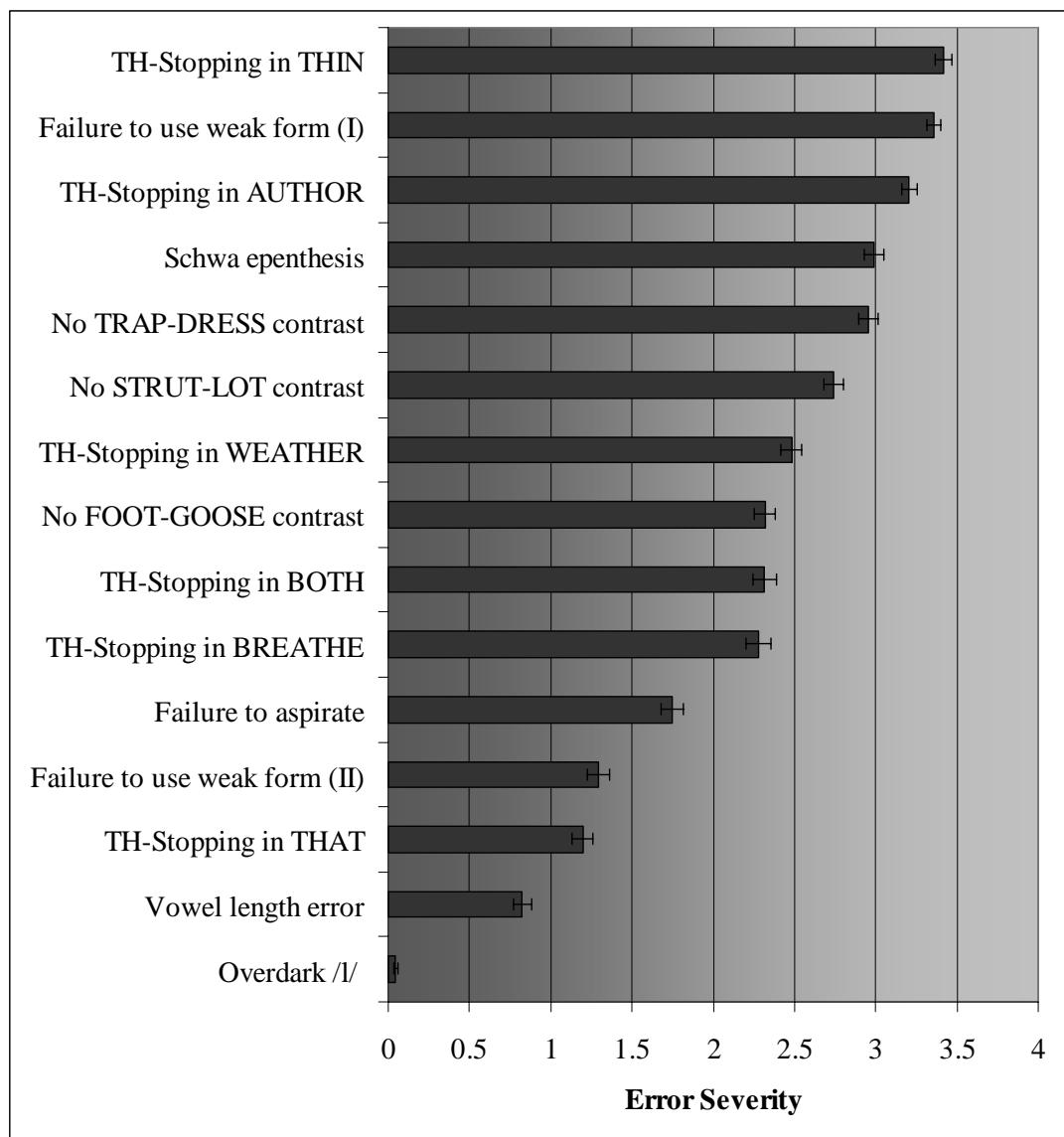


Figure 4. Bar chart with error bars showing overall error severity and standard errors for a selected number of tokens.

There seems to be a noticeable British bias to Jenkins's English as a Lingua Franca – especially her prioritisation of th-stopping, aspiration and overdark-l. This would mean that the priorities given to these features by native-speaker judges from Britain have been given undue significance. Any such bias would be most significant, especially in view of Holliday's (2005, p. 164) reference to the Lingua Franca project as being seen as a plot from the centre "to control what sort of English people should speak" – in this case a variety that is acceptable in the main to British judges. In any event, it is clear that Jenkins's prioritisations do not factor in the attitudes which different groups of native speakers may have to potentially stigmatised pronunciation features.

Setting the standards for a truly international English model should not be based on local

or parochial concerns, no matter whether these are native or non-native, but on a broad view of communication that takes in the needs of both L1 and L2 speakers, and on the widest possible range of communicative situations. This ambitious objective can only be realised if a pronunciation model is adopted which results in maximum intelligibility and acceptability worldwide. The results of my investigation suggest that Jenkins's Lingua Franca falls short of this ideal.

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Standards and Competence in English as an International Language Pedagogy

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Abstract

The global spread of English has resulted in varieties of English in different sociolinguistic and sociocultural contexts. The emergence of varieties of English in diverse settings has raised the issue of whether to adopt a single standard English for all English contexts or to recognize a variety of standards. This paper aims to investigate the issue of standards in teaching English as an international language. While the native standard English is advocated as the model in the expanding circle, it is argued that raising the students' awareness of varieties of English should also be recognized in EIL pedagogy. The issue of standards is furthermore discussed in relation to the concept of competence in English as an international language pedagogy.

Introduction

The global spread of English has brought English to new un-English sociolinguistic and sociocultural contexts. With the development of new norms in these sociolinguistic contexts the current discussions have begun to revolve around the issues of English language standards and defining proficiency in the English language. While some (Quirk, 1985) argue that a single standard English (American or British English) should be promoted the whole world over, others (e.g. Kachru, 1985) argue that new standard Englishes have arisen in new sociolinguistic and sociocultural contexts and these sociolinguistic reality of English should be recognized. While the former defines proficiency in terms of the native speaker, the latter argues that "the native speaker is not always a valid yardstick for the global uses of English" (Kachru, 1992, p.358) and focuses on non-natives' proficiency in the light of bilingualism or multilingualism. The discussions on the issues of standards and proficiency, however, are not restricted to these two opposing camps but extend to several other models of English labeled by different terminologies such as 'English as a Lingua Franca' (Jenkins, 2000, 2006; Seidlhofer,

2001, 2004), ‘World Standard Spoken English’ (Crystal, 2003), ‘English as an International Language’ (Modiano, 1999a, 1999b), ‘English as an International Auxiliary Language’ (Smith, 1983), ‘Nuclear English’ (Quirk, 1982), ‘General English’ (Ahulu, 1997) and ‘English as a Family of Languages’ (Canagarajah, 2006). This paper aims to present different definitions of EIL, focuses on diverse discussions on the English language standards, and on defining competence in relation to English as an international language.

1. Defining terminologies

The term “English as an International Language” does not refer to a single phenomenon but is used by different researchers to refer to a different entity. Furthermore, there are other terminologies circling around within the discussions of the status of English in the global context among which are ‘World Englishes’, ‘World English’ (in the singular), ‘International English(es)’, ‘World Standard Spoken English’, ‘English as a Lingua Franca’, ‘English as an International Auxiliary Language’, ‘Nuclear English’, ‘General English’, ‘English as a Family of Languages’ etc.

Some (e.g. Kachru, 1991) makes a distinction between English as an intranational language (the use of English in countries traditionally referred to as ESL countries, where English is used for internal purposes) and English as an international language (the use of English across different nations traditionally referred to as EFL countries, where English is used for external purposes), still others (e.g. McKay, 2002) do not make such a distinction and use the term English as an international language to refer to the uses of English in both contexts.

Smith (1976), for example, defines the term ‘international language’ as “one which is used by people of different nations to communicate with one another” (p. 38, in McKay, 2002, p.11). EIL, in this definition, is used in a global sense rather than a local one. McKay (2002), on the other hand, uses the term EIL both in a global and a local sense as it is used by speakers from both the outer and the expanding circle speakers as she notes that

In examining the use of English as an international language, an important question is whether or not the use of English within multilingual countries like South Africa and Kenya is an example of the use of English as an international language. I would argue that in some sense it is. If one assumes that one of the essential characteristics of English as an international language is that English is used to communicate across linguistic and cultural boundaries, often in more formal contexts, then there seems little reason to require that these boundaries must coincide with national borders (p. 38).

McKay (2002), however, notes that the use of EIL in a local sense in the outer circle countries “has not become de-nationalized but rather its ownership has become

re-nationalized” (p. 12).

Kachru (1985), on the other hand, seems to use the term EIL to refer to the function of English in the expanding circle countries:

The third circle, termed the expanding circle, brings to English yet another dimension. Understanding the function of English in this circle requires a recognition of the fact that English is an international language and that it has already won the race in this respect with linguistic rivals such as French, Russian and Esperanto, to name just two natural languages and one artificial one” (p. 12).

Kachru, furthermore, presents the global spread of English under the general term world Englishes as depicted with his three concentric circles of world Englishes. Thus while McKay uses the term EIL as an umbrella term to cover both the global and the local uses of English in the world, Kachru depicts this situation with the term world Englishes.

Jenkins (2003, 2006a) and Seidlhofer (2001, 2004), on the other hand, use the term world Englishes in a strict sense to refer to the outer circle Englishes, and English as a lingua franca (ELF) to refer to the use of English in the expanding circle. It is also important to note that both authors also use the terms EIL and ELF interchangably to refer to the same entity.

More recently, Jenkins (2006a) citing Bolton (2004) has presented three possible interpretations of the term world Englishes:

Firstly, it serves as an “umbrella label” covering all varieties of English worldwide and the different approaches used to describe and analyse them. Secondly, it is used in a narrower sense to refer to the so called new Englishes in Africa, Asia and the Caribbean (Kachru’s outer circle)... Thirdly, it is used to represent the pluricentric approach to the study of English associated with Kachru and his colleagues, and often referred to as the Kachruvian approach, although there is considerable overlap between this and the second interpretation of the term. The first use is also sometimes represented by other terms, including World English (i.e., in the singular), international English(es), and global Englishes, while the second is in fact more commonly represented by the terms nativised, indigenised, institutionalised, and new Englishes or English as a second language (p. 159).

There are still other terminologies used by different researchers to denote different entities. Smith (1983), for example, uses the term “English as an International Auxiliary Language” to refer to a type of English which is formed of features of world Englishes of the outer circle and the native speaker standard English and Quirk (1982) proposes the concept of “Nuclear English” to refer to what may be called a simplified form of native speaker standard English.

Crystal (2003), on the other hand, uses the term “World Standard Spoken English” to refer to a global standard English which he believes will develop above the current local Englishes. This concept is somewhat similar to Modiano’s (1999a, 1999b) use of the term “English as an International Language” which refers to a global standard for English which

comprises the features of English which can be easily understood by both native and non-native speakers.

2. Standards for English in the outer circle

The most famous debate over standards was between Randolph Quirk and Braj Kachru, first at a conference held in London in 1984 to mark the fifteenth anniversary of the British Council and then in the pages of the English Today, which is known as the English Today debate.

In the discussions on the issue of standards, Quirk (1985) argues that

The relatively narrow range of purposes for which the non-native needs to use English (even in ESL Countries) is arguably well catered for by a single monochrome form that looks good on paper as it sounds in speech. There are only the most dubious advantages in exposing the learner to a great variety of usage, no part of which he will have time to master properly, little of which he will be called upon to exercise, all of which is embedded in a controversial sociolinguistic matrix he cannot be expected to understand" (p. 6).

Quirk's position mainly indicates a view of variation (in the non-natives' use of English) from the native standard English as mistake or error, and of non-native varieties of English as interlanguage on the way to native speaker standard usage and accordingly as inappropriate pedagogical models in non-native contexts. Thus, for Quirk, a common Standard of use is warranted in all contexts of English language use" (McKay, 2002, p. 50).

Kachru (1985), on the other hand, presents the sociolinguistic profile of English in terms of three concentric circles "representing the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition and the functional domains in which English is used across cultures and languages" (p. 12). These are labelled as the inner circle, the outer circle and the expanding circle. The inner circle comprises the countries where English is the primary language such as the USA, UK, Canada, Australia etc., the outer circle comprises the institutionalized non-native varieties of English in such countries as India, Nigeria and Singapore, and the expanding circle comprises such countries as Russia, Israel and China, where performance varieties are used.

Kachru (1985) also classifies the English-using speech fellowships in the three circles as norm providing, norm developing and norm dependent. While native speaker Englishes (inner circle Englishes) are classified as norm providing, outer circle Englishes are argued to be norm developing and expanding circle Englishes are classified as norm dependent. In Jenkins' (2003, p.16) words:

English-language standards are determined by speakers of ENL, but while the ESL varieties of English have become institutionalized and are developing their own standards, the EFL varieties are regarded, in this model, as 'performance' varieties without any official status and therefore dependent on the standards set by native speakers in the Inner circle.

Thus, while Quirk rejects the endocentric norms for English in the outer circle and hence the legitimacy of outer circle Englishes, Kachru argues for the recognition of variations (in the use of English in the outer circle) from the native standard English as innovations rather than mistakes or errors, of outer circle Englishes as local standard Englishes rather than interlanguages and ultimately urges for these Englishes to be taken as pedagogical models in these local contexts. In this sense, the notions of “ambilingualism” (in the sense of native speaker proficiency), “interlanguage” and “fossilization” are irrelevant in the consideration of the proficiency of the non-native speakers and their Englishes in the outer circle.

While Quirk (1985) and Kachru (1985) put forward diverse views on the legitimacy of non-native Englishes in the outer circle, they are in agreement on the issue of standards for English in the expanding circle and argue that expanding circle countries are dependent on the norms set by the native speakers. This position, however, is rejected by some ELF researchers (e.g., Jenkins, 2006a and Seidlhofer, 2001) who claim that expanding cirlce Englishes are also norm developing just the same as the outer circle Englishes.

3. Standards for English in the expanding circle: English as a lingua franca

The study of English as a lingua franca in the expanding circle has arisen as a new research area in applied linguistics. With its emphasis on the existence of ELF varieties such as Euro-English and East Asian English, and other specific varieties such as Korean English, China English and German English, ELF research is argued to be an alternative approach to English as a foreign language. When making the distinction between EFL and ELF Jenkins (2005) argues that

Speakers of EFL use their English chiefly to communicate with NSs of English, often in NS settings. They need at the very least to be intelligible to NSs, to understand them, and often to blend in with them. Their learning goal is therefore to approximate as closely as possible a NS variety of English, generally Standard British or American English. The norms of EFL, then, are NS norms. Speakers of ELF, on the other hand, use their English primarily (or entirely if one takes the ‘purist’ interpretation of ELF) to communicate with other NNSs of English, usually from first languages other than their own and typically in NNS settings. They need therefore to be intelligible to, and to understand, other NNSs rather than to blend in with NSs and approximate a NS variety of English. Instead, ELF speakers have their own emerging norms (retrieved from <http://www.hltmag.co.uk/mar05/idea.htm>).

Thus, what this research field suggests is that variations in the use of English in this circle should not be considered as mistakes or errors but rather as innovations or legitimate English usages, that expanding circle Englishes should not be considered as interlanguages but rather as ELF varieties in their own right, that native speaker standard English should not be taken as the only model of correctness and native speaker proficiency should not be the ultimate

level of achievement for the English learners in the expanding circle.

The two most widely known ELF research projects are that of Jenkins (2000) on phonology and Seidlhofer (2001) on lexicogrammar. Jenkins (2003) proposes the Lingua Franca Core, with her own words, “the most fully researched and detailed attempt that has as yet been made to provide EIL speakers with a core intended to guarantee the intelligibility of their accents” (p. 126) Some of these core features are as follows:

- some substitutions of /θ/ and /ð/ are acceptable (because they are intelligible in EIL)
- rhotic ‘r’ rather than non-rhotic varieties of ‘r’
- British English /t/ between vowels in words such as ‘letter’, ‘water’ rather than American English flapped /r/
- allophonic variation within phonemes permissible as long as the pronunciation does not overlap onto another phoneme, e.g. Spanish pronunciation of /v/ as /β/ leads in word-initial positions to its being heard as /b/ (so ‘vowels’ is heard as ‘bowels’ etc.) (Jenkins, 2003, p.126).

Seidlhofer’s corpus study, VOICE (Vienna Oxford International Corpus of English) aims to “find out which items are used systematically and frequently, but differently from native speaker use and without causing communication problems, by expert speakers of English from a wide range of L1s” (Jenkins, 2006, p. 169).

Some of these items that Seidlhofer (2004, p. 220) has specified in her corpus study VOICE are:

- non-use of the third person present tense –s (“she look very sad”)
- interchangeable use of the relative pronouns *who* and *which* (“a book who,” “a person which”)
- omission of the definite and indefinite articles which are obligatory in native speaker English and insertion where they do not occur in native speaker English
- use of an all-purpose question tag such as *isn’t it?* or *no?* instead of *shouldn’t they?* (“They should arrive soon, isn’t it?”)
- increasing of redundancy by adding prepositions (“We have to study about...” and “can we discuss about...?”, or by increasing explicitness (“black colour” vs. “black” and “How long time?” vs. “How long?”)
- heavy reliance on certain verbs of high semantic generality, such as *do*, *have*, *make*, *put*, *take*
- pluralisation of nouns which are considered uncountable in native speaker English (“informations”, “staff”, “advices”)
- use of that-clauses instead of infinitive constructions (“I want that we discuss about my dissertation”) (Jenkins, 2006, p.170).

Thus, Jenkins (2000) argues that some sounds that are often found in native speakers’

speech but that are difficult for non-native speakers to produce are not necessary for international intelligibility and similarly Seidlhofer (2004) maintains that some lexicogrammatical features that are present in native standard Englishes but that are absent in nonnative English use such as the third person singular present tense ‘-s’ marking are not necessary for international intelligibility through English as a lingua franca.

3. Beyond the three circle model of English:

The discussions on the issue of standards for English in the global context extend beyond the three circle model of English and lead to different proposals as to what constitutes the nature of English as a global language. These proposals range from the concept of a global standard English for the entire world (e.g. Crystal, 2003; Modiano, 1999a, 1999b; Smith, 1983; Quirk, 1982) to the notions of “General English” (Ahulu, 1997) and “English as a Family of Languages” (Canagarajah, 2006).

Towards a global standard English

There has been efforts to conceptualize a global standard English to be used among native and non-native English speakers, and different proposals have been put forward as to what constitutes the nature of this code resulting in different labels to characterize it e.g. “Nuclear English” (Quirk, 1982), “English as an International Auxiliary Language” (Smith, 1983), “English as an International Language” (Modiano, 1999a, 1999b), “World Standard Spoken English” (Crystal, 1997), “Global English” (Languapedia, 2007).

Quirk (1982) proposes the concept of Nuclear English for international communication. Quirk’s Nuclear English, however, is not a new global standard English covering new norms used by non-native speakers in non-native settings but rather is a simplified form of native standard English which would be easier to learn and use as an international language. Thus, Nuclear English is the native standard English which is stripped of features which can be dispensable such as:

-items which are ‘disproportionately burdensome’ such as question tags, e.g. ‘I’m late, aren’t I? ‘She used to work here, didn’t she’?

-items which are ‘semantically inexplicit’ such as non-defining relative clauses, e.g. ‘I chatted with the captain, who was later reprimanded’ (= and he was later reprimanded or as a result he was later reprimanded?);

-items which are completely ambiguous such as many modal verbs, e.g. ‘Able Baker 123 may land at O’Hare in five minutes’ (= the flight will possibly land or has permission to land?). (Jenkins, 2003, p. 129).

Smith (1983), on the other hand, proposes the concept of English as an International

Auxiliary Language, which would serve as a neutral means of communication in English in a global context. This form of English is formed of features of world Englishes of the outer circle and the native speaker standard English and it is not tied to the native speaker standard English nor to the native speaker cultures. Thus both native and non-native speakers would need special training to use English as an international language.

Crystal (2003) predicts that a ‘World Standard Spoken English’ will develop above the local varieties of English as he argues that

If Englishes did become increasingly different, as years went by, the consequences for world English would not necessarily be fatal. A likely scenario is that our current ability to use more than one dialect would simply extend to meet the fresh demands of the international situation. A new form of English- let us think of it as ‘World Standard spoken English’ (WSSE)- would almost certainly arise. Indeed, the foundation for such a development is already being laid around us. (p. 185)

Crystal (2003) furthermore hypothesises that to involve in international communication the speakers of local varieties of English will need to switch into the World Standard Spoken English.

A similar argument is also made by Modiano (1999a, 1999b), who proposes the concept of ‘English as an International Language’ in place of native standard English for international communication. To Modiano (1999a, p. 27) “EIL is by definition a composite of the features of English which are easily understood by a broad cross-section of native and non-native speakers”. Modiano suggests that speakers of local varieties of English will be considered EIL speakers if they can code-switch into EIL.

One project to be mentioned in this context is the Languapedia Project (Global English Project) set up by Paul Robertson (as an initiative of the Global EIL Congress) and designed by Chris Patch. The aim of the project has direct resemblance to Modiano’s (1999a, 1999b) theoretical framework since it attempts to find out the forms of English common to all the varieties of English in the world but it is an empirical realization of such a framework. As expressed in its web page, “the Global English project seeks to uncover a core of the English language that can be considered international. The purpose of uncovering a Global English is to develop a standardized version of the language that can be taught internationally.” (“Languapedia,” 2007, retrieved from http://www.languapedia.com/index.php?title=Main_Page). Since the project is currently in its early phase we are yet to see the development of it.

General English

Another viewpoint to the issue of standards for English in the global context is that of Ahulu’s (1997) “General English”. Ahulu (1997) takes up the issue of Standard English /New

Englishes debate that occurred between Kachru (1985) and Quirk (1985) as described earlier in this paper and concludes that neither Quirk's 'Standard English' perspective nor Kachru's 'New Englishes' perspective reflects the real nature of English as an international language. Thus, Ahulu (1997) aims to redefine the concept of 'Standard English' or 'correctness' by "looking at the limitations of both the concept of 'Standard English' and the concept of 'New Englishes'" (p. 17). Ahulu, on the one hand, considers Kachru's viewpoint that nonnative varieties are legitimate varieties in their own right unrealistic. On the other hand, he criticizes the Standard English perspective for its consideration of any divergence from native standard English as an error. What the 'General English' framework suggests is that the divergent forms in the non-natives' use of English would better be explained as modifications of standard English or styles of standard English and not as errors as Quirk views them nor as different national varieties of English as Kachru suggests. Thus Ahulu is against the discrimination between native speaker usage and nonnative speaker usage as reflected by Kachru & Quirk debate and considers them to be within the realm of possibility of each other. Thus "the concept of 'Standard English' that encapsulates such international variability will reflect the grammar of 'General English'" (Ahulu, 1997, p.21).

English as a family of languages

The other new orientation to the issue of standards for English that go beyond the Kachru & Quirk debate is that of Canagarajah's conceptualization of English as a family of languages. Canagarajah (2006) questions the relevance of the debate whether the norm for testing should be the inner circle norms (Quirk, 1985) or world Englishes norms (Kachru, 1985) and argues that in today's society we need a "both and more" perspective rather than an "either / or" perspective. While Canagarajah finds the Kachru's three circle model of English useful for legitimizing outer circle Englishes, he argues that some features of postmodern globalization requires us to question the assumptions behind the Kachruvian model and he puts forward a set of arguments in favor of a new orientation towards a notion of "English as a Family of Languages". Firstly, while Kachru argues for the legitimacy of outer circle Englishes in local contexts (e.g. Indian English is valid for India, Nigerian English is valid for Nigeria) Canagarajah (2006) argues that in today's world speakers of local varieties of English as well as speakers of inner circle and expanding circle countries need to develop an awareness of each other's varieties of English. Thus Indian English is also necessary for Americans, American English is also necessary for Indians etc. Secondly, to Canagarajah (2006), speakers of English in the expanding circle do not use English solely for international purposes but they also use English for intranational purposes in such countries as China,

Vietnam, Brazil etc., which calls into question the ESL/ EFL distinction. Thirdly, Canagarajah indicates that the speech community in the expanding circle would better be classified as norm developing as they use English as a lingua franca contrary to Kachru's view of these communities as norm dependent, and lastly, he maintains that while Kachru's classification of speech communities as norm providing, norm developing and norm dependent leads to a core and periphery distinction designating the inner circle as the core and the outer and expanding circle as the periphery, the current statistics of number of English users (e.g. Graddol, 1999; Crystal, 1997) questions the periphery status of the outer and expanding circles and gives them a central position in the development of English.

Based on these assumptions, Canagarajah (2006, p. 232) calls for a need to view English as “a heterogeneous language with multiple norms and diverse grammars”, which would be a model of “English as a family of languages”, where the varieties of English in the world relate to each other on a single level rather than on three hierarchies as in Kachru's three circle model of English.

4. Local versus international uses of English and the issue of EIL competence

Given the diverse views on the issue of standards in EIL, the issue of competence becomes a complex matter in the consideration of English as an international language leading some (e.g. Nunn, 2005) to call for a need to define competence in relation to EIL. Defining competence in EIL depends a lot on the conceptualization of the nature of English as an international language and the context of cross cultural communication in English in today's world. At one point the issue is whether a single standard English will emerge above the local standard Englishes as some (e.g. Modiano, 1999a, 1999b and Crystal, 2003) argue. In such a conceptualization speakers of local varieties of English will need to be proficient in two varieties of English: their local variety and an international variety, and they should also have the ability to code switch from their local varieties to an international one. The point, however, is that while Crystal (2003) already acknowledges that “it is too early to be definite about the way this variety (WSSE) will develop” (p.186) Modiano's (1999a, 1999b) concept of English as an international language as the core features of the English language “which are used and are comprehensible to the majority of native and competent nonnative speakers of English” (p. 11) is still problematical as some (e.g. Jenkins, 2003) indicate that “the difficulty of distinguishing between core and non-core varieties remain” (p. 21). Such a theoretical concept needs to be supported by an empirical study like the Languapedia Project to find out the common core of English as a global language.

At another point the issue is whether Ahulu's “General English” framework with its

assumption that native and nonnative norms should be considered to be within the realm of the possibility of each other would be a valid conceptualization for the nature of English as an international language. Thus proficiency in English would be proficiency in “General English”. This would make the case rather pessimistic in terms of proficiency since being proficient in EIL would mean being competent in the native standard English with all its styles and registers, which would be a burden for the learners of EIL.

Canagarajah’s conceptualization of “English as a family of languages” where the varieties of English in the world relate to each other on a single level rather than on three hierarchies as in Kachru’s three circle model of English requires a different view of proficiency in EIL. From this point of view, “to be really proficient in English today, one has to be multidialectical” (Canagarajah 2006, p.133). This view of proficiency however does not mean being proficient in all the varieties of English in the world. What Canagarajah stresses is the importance of raising the students’ awareness of different varieties of English as well as developing the negotiation skills for shuttling between different varieties of English. The conceptualization of expanding circle speech communities as norm developing in this model, however, does not meet a common consensus among the researchers. Thus whether testing in this circle should include local norms (English as a lingua franca) or not is not yet definite.

Jenkins’ and Seidlhofer’s conceptualization of English as an international language in the expanding circle or English as a lingua franca argues for the existence of new standard forms in this circle and proficiency in EIL would mean having such forms in one’s linguistic repertoire for use when the need arises, having language awareness (awareness of the diversity in English) and accommodation skills to cope with the variability in English. Jenkins (2006) stresses that “instead of speaking a monolithic variety of English, it is considered more important for speakers of WEs and ELF to be able to adjunct their speech in order to be intelligible to interlocutors from a wide range of L1 backgrounds, most of whom are not inner circle native speakers. (p. 174)

One important point in these considerations is whether the use of English in what Kachru labels as outer circle should be considered as the use of EIL. I assume that a distinction between English as an intranational language and English as an international language is a valid one and I define EIL in a global sense as a language of wider communication between countries largely but not exclusively in Kachru’s expanding circle. One issue to be discussed in this context is whether the speech community in the expanding circle should be norm developing or norm dependent, an issue which is crucial for the choice of a pedagogical model and for defining proficiency in EIL.

While the ELF studies (Seidlhofer, 2001 and Jenkins, 2006) suggest that new norms are

emerging in the expanding circle the case cannot be generalized to the whole expanding circle countries. While we will be able to talk about the emergence of EuroEnglish if English is being used intensively and extensively in the European Union (a future configuration) there is however certainly not a distinct variety called Turkish English which would find place in the educational setting in Turkey. Expanding circle Englishes thus should be better classified as norm dependent (dependent on the native Standard Englishes e.g. American English and British English) for the reason that English has no intranational function in many countries of the expanding circle and hence it is far away from having established local norms. Thus native standard English(es) should serve as the model for teaching in this circle. The other point is that taking inner circle varieties as a model in this circle does not necessarily mean the students should achieve native like proficiency at all levels of language. Pragmatic and discourse variation in the expanding circle speaker's English use will better be considered as a natural consequence of the sociocultural context of these speakers since such norms are strongly shaped by the cultures of these speech communities.

The other important point in the consideration of competence in EIL is the context of cross cultural communication. As Canagarajah (2006) points out in the post modern globalization borders become less important and we often see that the speakers of outer circle, expanding circle and inner circle countries often involve in cross cultural communication in English among them. Such being the case, Indian English is also relevant for Americans and American English is also relevant for Indians etc. Expanding circle speakers also do not need just inner circle English but they also need to be familiar with other varieties of English. Thus raising the students' awareness of the varieties of English (Language awareness) is gaining importance. The same is also true of the inner circle and outer circle speakers. As Canagarajah (2006) points out "postmodern globalization requires that students should strive for competence in a repertoire of English varieties as they shuttle between multilingual communities" (p. 229). The passive competence to understand new varieties is part of this multidialectical competence (Canagarajah, 2006, p. 233).

Another relevant point about the issue of proficiency in the postmodern globalization is the importance of accommodation skills. Kubota (2001, p. 50) argues that

In a community that promotes monoculturalism and monolingualism, the dominant group forces the dominated group to accommodate and acquire the dominant way of life. However, a multicultural society affirms cultural and linguistic differences and rejects a one-way accommodation. In communication between inner circle mainstream speakers and other We speakers, the accommodation should be mutual with both parties exploring ways to establish effective communication.

Thus, the speakers of EIL should also have the necessary skills to cope with variability in English in today's world, a point also shared by both Canagarajah (2006) and English as a

Lingua Franca researchers (Seidlhofer, 2001; Jenkins, 2006). Jenkins (2006), for instance, argues that “instead of speaking a monolithic variety of English, it is considered more important for speakers of WEs and ELF to be able to adjust their speech in order to be intelligible to interlocutors from a wide range of L1 backgrounds, most of whom are not inner circle native speakers (p.174)

Thus, along the line of Canagarajah (2006), I argue that proficiency in the postmodern globalization would better be explained as being multidialecticism. This would mean competency in EIL would require being proficient in at least one variety of English, to be able to understand different varieties, and to be able to accommodate one’s speech to be intelligible to the speakers of other varieties of English. For the expanding circle speakers, for example, competency would mean being proficient in the linguistic norms of the inner circle native speakers, making use of their own pragmatic and discourse norms, having the ability to understand local varieties of English and to be able to accommodate their speech to be intelligible to the other speakers of English from different countries. The application of this paradigm shift in proficiency is yet to be seen in the assessment objectives in the ELT profession.

Conclusion

This paper aimed to present some of the recent approaches to the issue of standards in English as an international language and to discuss the issue of defining competence in relation to EIL. EIL is defined in a global sense as a language of wider communication between countries largely but not exclusively in Kachru’s expanding circle. It is argued that while the inner circle native speaker standard English should still serve as the pedagogical model in this circle there must be allowance for pragmatic and discourse variations in these English users’ speech since these levels of language are strongly shaped by the cultural contexts of these speakers. Moreover it is indicated that expanding circle speakers do not need just inner circle English but also need to be familiar with other varieties of English as a requirement of post modern globalization (Canagarajah, 2006). Thus it is argued that raising the students’ awareness of the diversity in English (Language awareness) is gaining importance. This would also require that the speakers of EIL should also have the necessary skills to cope with variability in English, that is, accommodation skills. Such assumptions lead us to conclude that competency in EIL would require being proficient in at least one variety of English, to be able to understand different varieties, and to be able to accommodate one’s speech to be able to intelligible to the speakers of other varieties of English. Whether these requirements will find application in the testing of English as an international language

is yet to be seen in different educational contexts.

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The Question of Global English-Language Teaching: A Turkish Perspective

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Abstract

Much has been written on globalisation. It arouses different reactions in different people. Some regard it as an insidious way of penetration into cultures thus adopt a hostile attitude while others see it as an inescapable reality of modern times. This paper looks at the effects of globalisation in the area of English Language Teaching (ELT) with specific reference to Turkey. It begins with a conceptualization of the globalisation phenomenon in general. We then move to how it relates to linguistic concerns and its impact on how the English language is conceived. Here we deal with issues such as English as an international language (EIL), the question of ownership of such a language, the status of the native speaker as opposed to that of the non-native speaker of English, cultural content of ELT, appropriateness of methods and materials developed by Inner Circle for Turkish students. Where necessary, we refer to linguistic, cultural and teaching environment of English language teaching in Turkey, and the possible impact of the English language on the Turkish culture. In order to gain insights into the above mentioned issues in Turkish context, a questionnaire with ten open-ended questions has elicited teacher trainers' perspectives working at ELT Departments of 12 different universities in Turkey. Additionally, 10 teacher trainers at Çukurova University have been interviewed. The paper presents the data together with pedagogical, ethical and methodological considerations that are suggested with reference to Turkish context.

Globalisation

Globalisation has been defined by Giddens (1990:64) as 'the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa'. It is perceived in different ways, some tracing it back to the 15th century when Europeans began to map and colonize the world; others

believe it began in the latter part of the 20th century. Some see it as an extension of an American imperialism while others reject the idea that globalisation is a question of Western dominance over ‘the rest’ (Block, 2004).

Globalisation, as a predominantly loan term from the science of economics, raises the interrelationship of economic (e.g. the impact of global capitalism over local financial institutions and business); political (e.g. the threat against national governance); and, most importantly, cultural (e.g. the effects of globalisation on the vivacity and viability of divergent cultures) issues. There are different interpretations of whether globalisation has beneficial or detrimental effects on these issues although there seems to be a consensus that language is intrinsic to this phenomenon as the primary means of human interaction (Block and Cameron, 2002).

For many the term globalisation is crucially linked with the rise of the English language (Yano, 2001; Salverda, 2002). It is not surprising therefore, in the light of the inseparable association established between English and globalisation, to hear this language referred to as *world English, international English* and *global English*. Globalisation and the ubiquity of English raise many questions for those active in language teaching such as “communication skills” taking on a new importance, languages being economic commodities and also led to an intellectual shift in applied linguistics that began in the 1990s. Anderson (2003) sees the publication of Linguistic Imperialism by Phillipson as its symbolic birth. To him, before this intellectual shift, there were certain unquestioned givens associated with the global spread of English produced and reproduced by professional organizations such as IATEFL and TESOL.

The first given sees English as a neutral vehicle of communication, an empty structural system that does not carry with it cultural, political and ideological baggage. It not only brings benefits in business, cultural exchanges, education and development to nation-states but can benefit individuals as they will have greater career opportunities. To Phillipson (1992), the global spread of English, particularly through English Language Teaching, is a part of linguistic imperialism. He argues that this is one of the ‘inflated claims’ about English and divorce ELT from political, social and cultural issues. Toh (2003) also argues that viewing ELT purely imparting a technical skill warrants scrutiny since it does not encourage learners and practitioners to ponder over implications concerning the presence of English and the claims about English.

According to the second given, the best teaching methods, materials and expertise come from countries in the Inner Circle. However, the transfer of pedagogic expertise and personnel from the developed English-speaking countries to other contexts is highly problematic according to Canagarajah, Pennycook and Phillipson especially when it comes under the

banner of ‘technical assistance’ (Toh, 2003, p. 553). Cameron (2002) for example, argues that a discourse of ‘communication skills’ is being exported as something universal. In fact, it is originated in the USA and its interactional norms, genres and speech styles are socioculturally located. Block (2002) criticizes task-based language learning as the pedagogical outcome of McCommunication in which people are becoming progressively more Americanised, over-rationalised and dehumanised as seen in American chain of fast food restaurants.

Third, the ideal teacher is the English ‘native speaker’ from one of the English speaking countries. Therefore, educational institutions would benefit from employing these people. If this is not possible, the teacher should have ‘near-native’ oral competence in one of the standard varieties of these countries. Terming this ‘native speaker fallacy’, Phillipson (1992) argues that it aims to maintain relations of dominance by the Centre. It reinforces the linguistic norms of the Centre, creating an ideological dependence (p.199). In recent years, many ELT professionals have critiqued NS-NNS dichotomy for being more of a social construction than a linguistically based parameter. To move beyond this dichotomy, some scholars have employed the concept of ‘ownership’ (Widdowson, 1994). They take the view that speakers in the Outer Circle may appropriate English at the grammatical level for their own contexts, thus owning the language by altering it to suit their own local purposes, divorced from the norms of the centre. Taking a more critical perspective, Norton (1997) argues that learners claim ownership of a language if they can access the material and symbolic resources associated with knowing the language.

ELT in Turkey

English has always been an elite language, of benefit to the small middle classes and viewed as a prerequisite for access to the best educational opportunities (often abroad) and the most favoured professions, or top government positions in Turkey. Enormous resources are deployed by parents for their children to be educated in a foreign language despite the fact that most of the students are automatically excluded from realizing this dream by failing in one of the numerous exams they have to take. Although English has been introduced to 4th and 5th grades as a compulsory subject since 1997-1998, the pressure is so great that even these primary students are forced to take private courses in the hope that this will improve their chances of gaining access to an English-medium school. This struggle continues right up to the university entrance exam when students once more have to take private courses in a bid to obtain a place in one of the so-called “privileged” universities which supposedly guarantee their graduates a more prestigious position in life than regular universities can offer.

Behind such a huge enthusiasm for learning of English lie economic and political reasons.

In Turkey, like in many other underdeveloped countries, the usual rationalization to promote English in the educational system is that we need scientific and technological development urgently. Since our own language is not developed enough to express highly sophisticated technical and scientific processes, the knowledge a major world language is a prerequisite for scientific and technological development.

Relation with the West, Europe in particular, has always been an important issue on the political agenda of Turkey. In fact, she looks at Europe as a deliberate choice of identity in foreign affairs. While Brussels is still dithering over Turkey's request for full membership, Turkey anticipates joining the European Union soon. And if that ever happens, it is said that Turkey will need civil servants who are competent in English, which is on its way to becoming the most dominant official language of the Union. Therefore, learning English has been promoted wholeheartedly by successive Turkish governments.

The Study

The study elicited teacher trainers' perspectives working at ELT Departments of 12 different universities in Turkey on issues such as

1. English as an international language (EIL),
2. the question of ownership of such a language,
3. the status of the native speaker as opposed to that of the non-native speaker of English,
4. cultural content of ELT,
5. appropriateness of methods and materials developed by Inner Circle for Turkish students.

To do this, a twenty-two item Likert-scaled questionnaire was prepared by the researchers themselves. Before the actual administration of the questionnaire, it was piloted with the members of ELT Department, Çukurova University in order for the purposes of content and linguistic validity. On the basis of the feedback obtained, several modifications were done. The final version has been sent to the Universities through either e-mail or post. Teacher trainers at Çukurova University have been contacted personally.

In order to gain more insights into the responses given to the questionnaires, semi-structured interviews were conducted with ten teacher trainers working at Çukurova University. All the interviews were taped and transcribed for data analysis purposes.

118 teacher trainers working at ELT Departments of 12 different universities in Turkey participated in the study. As seen Table 1 below, the ages of more than half of the

participants ranged from 22 to 46, 19 were between 47-55 and only 4 were 56 and above. As for their teaching experience, 40 of the participants reported to have 11-22 years of teaching experience, 38 had 6-10 years, 19 had 23-30 years, 13 had 1-5 years, 3 had 31-40 years while only 2 had 41 years. Most of the teacher trainers participated (73) were females. Half of the participants reported having a master's degree while 43 stated having a doctorate. Another 23 reported having only a bachelor's degree.

Table 1. Participants

AGE				EXPERIENCE								GENDER		LAST DEGREE RECEIVED		
22-35	36-46	47-55	56-	1-5	6-10	11-22	23-30	31-40	41-	M	F	BA	MA	PhD		
54	39	19	4	13	38	40	19	3	2	43	73	23	50	43		

Findings

In this section, findings acquired from the questionnaires and interviews are presented. The results of the questionnaire were classified and analyzed under five headings:

1. English as a global language
2. Ownership of language
3. Native speaker vs. non-native speaker
4. Culture and Language
5. Methods and materials

Thus, presentation of the findings obtained from the questionnaires will be done on the basis of this categorization, and findings obtained from the interviews will be presented to support the questionnaire data.

English as a global language

In this category, participating teacher trainers were asked 7 questions, two of which were added for content validity, therefore eliminated during analysis. These include questions such as "We need a global language", "The rise of English in the world will continue." The main purpose here is to elicit teachers' perceptions as to the status of English at present and at the same time their predictions about the future of English in the world.

In response to the first question, all (only 2 of the teacher trainers disagreed) of the participants are of the opinion that English has become a global language (see Table 2 below).

But when we asked if we need a global language, the number of disagreeing teacher trainers rises to 22 (18.8%). Yet, those who agree with the statement constitutes and overwhelming majority. As for the Item 4, participants seem to be uncertain since about 46% of them believe that there are drawbacks to having English as a global language while 47% of them disagree with the statement.

Table 2. English as a Global Language

		I totally agree		I agree		I am not sure		I don't agree		I don't agree at all	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	English has become a global language	83	70,9	33	28	0	0	2	1,7	0	0
2	We need a global language.	35	29,9	59	50,0	2	1,7	15	12,8	7	6,0
4	There are drawbacks to having English as a global language	7	6,0	47	40,2	8	6,8	51	43,2	5	4,3
11	The rise of English in the world will continue	23	19,7	80	67,8	0	0	15	12,8	0	0
17	A global language is useful in:										
	communication	60	51,3	53	44,9	0	0	5	4,3	0	0
	economic relations	50	42,7	58	49,2	1	0,9	8	6,8	1	0,9
	political relations	46	39,3	58	49,2	1	0,9	12	10,3	1	0,9
	educational settings	38	32,5	62	52,5	0	0	16	13,7	2	1,7

One of those who thinks that there are drawbacks to having English as a global language claimed in the interviews that having a global language would cause a particular language and culture to lose its features. She stated

“We talk about language, culture, and thought. We believe that each has its own distinctive features. I believe if there is a global language then these differences will diminish and we will have only one culture, one life style, and one way of thinking. I personally do not want this because I think variety is richness.”

While one participant complained about the exaggerated and unconscious use of English in the Turkish context, another opined that having a global language, in this case English,

constitutes a threat to the Turkish identity, language, and culture:

“I believe the use of English is exaggerated in our context. It was the same with French in the past....Some uneducated people are using it to show off.”

“I believe this is like a time bomb for Turkey. Interaction between cultures is inevitable. However, if this means the imposition of one culture on another then it constitutes a threat, especially for the underdeveloped countries like us....I feel so upset when I see that 70% of the shop names in the streets where wealthy people live are in English. Look at our students! They talk in the language of TV series and American movies. They have started to lose their own identity and language. Why hamburger? Why “elegant hairdresser’s?”

Ownership of language

Table 3 below presents the participants’ views about ownership of language, i.e. English. As for item 3, more than half of the participants (about 57%) claim that English is a neutral tool and nobody owns it anymore while about 41% of them think the opposite. Regarding item 4, the picture is much clearer as an overwhelming majority of the participants (about 82%) think that English does not belong to native English-speaking countries.

Table 3. Ownership of language

		I totally agree		I agree		I am not sure		I don't agree		I don't agree at all	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
3	Nobody owns English anymore	8	6,8	40	33,9	4	3,4	54	46,2	12	10,3
4	English belongs to native English-speaking countries	0	0	17	14,5	4	3,4	81	68,6	16	13,7

Findings acquired from the interviews seem to support this finding. Most teacher trainers interviewed stated that English is no longer the property of the inner world, but it has a status of world language. However, when asked if they themselves feel to own English they are cautious in saying that their own native language always has the priority and their ownership of English does not go beyond teaching it. The following extracts clearly illustrate this:

“English is no longer the property of the English speaking countries....It has now universal values. Does it belong to me? Yes and no. Yes, because I know this language and teach it. No, because it is not my property.”

“Nobody can deny the fact that English has gained the status of world language....My ownership of English has to do with the fact that I am a competent

user of it, I adopt it as a profession and as a part of myself."

"Everybody now speaks English. So they feel as if they owned the language. Though I teach English I still say long live Turkish as I never see English as an indispensable part of myself."

Native speaker vs. non-native speaker

It is a common belief that having native English speakers as teachers makes the teaching program more attractive and of better quality. Thus, teacher trainers were also asked their views about the dichotomy of native speaker versus non-native speaker. Table 4 below presents their views. Concerning Item 5, a great majority (about 92%) claim to be aware of their own strengths and weaknesses in relation to native English-speaking teachers. As for Item 6 which asks whether or not they support hiring native English speaking teachers to come and teach alongside them, another overwhelming majority (about 80%) agrees.

Table 4. Native speaker vs. non-native speaker

		I totally agree		I agree		I am not sure		I don't agree		I don't agree at all	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
5	As a Turkish English teacher, I am aware of my own strengths & weaknesses in relation to native English-speaking teachers.	42	35,9	67	56,8	4	3,4	5	4,3	0	0
6	It is necessary to introduce native English speakers to my university.	31	26,5	70	59,3	1	0,9	15	12,8	1	0,9

Most of the teachers participated in the interviews also believe the necessity of employing native speakers in their university. They put forward various reasons for this. Some think that they might be good models in terms of speaking with the accurate pronunciation and accent. However, they are also cautious that not all the native speakers can be considered as eligible to work at the universities. They should be qualified in teaching English and also become involved in research. There is also a strong feeling of resentment that native English-speaking teachers are paid more than their Turkish counterparts.

Culture and language

Regarding the relationship between culture and language, the majority of teacher trainers (almost 89%) do not perceive culture existing independent of language. Almost half of the teachers point to the negative influence of English on the Turkish culture (49%) and language

(49%) while the rest believes the opposite. The responses given to item 14 and 19 seem to be in line with their claims on the negative impact of English on the Turkish language and culture. A great majority of the participants (73%) think that English has no positive influence on the Turkish culture and another vast majority (71%) is of the opinion that English does not have any positive impact on the Turkish language.

Table 5. Culture and Language

		I totally agree		I agree		I am not sure		I don't agree		I don't agree at all	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
9	Culture exists independent of language	6	5,1	6	5,1	2	1,7	67	57,3	37	31,4
7	English has a negative impact on the Turkish language	15	12,7	42	35,9	3	2,6	49	41,9	9	7,7
14	English has a positive influence on the Turkish culture	0	0	27	23,1	5	4,3	62	52,5	24	20,5
16	English has a negative influence on the Turkish culture.	17	14,5	41	34,7	4	3,4	51	43,6	5	4,3
19	English has a positive impact on the Turkish language	1	0,9	27	23,1	7	6,0	67	56,8	16	13,7

The participants also emphasized in the interviews the negative influence of English on the Turkish language and culture as in the following:

“In 20 years or so, Turkish words will be replaced with the English ones.”

“This is how target culture penetrates into our own culture. This is what I term as cultural imperialism.”

“I am very disturbed by the fact that Turkish is being negatively influenced by such phrases as “hey dostum” (Hi mate!) and over use of “I love you” which is so unusual in our own culture. This is what I call the degeneration of our language and culture.”

However, one participant pointed out that the impact does not necessarily have to be negative. He stated

“I do not believe it has a negative influence on Turkish because I see it as an issue of diversity. One language can contribute to another by introducing new concepts. So it is a plus.”

Materials and methods

Concerning the participants' views about the appropriateness of the materials and methods

developed in native English-speaking countries, Table 6 below shows that more than half of the teacher trainers (57%) object to the use of materials produced in the native English-speaking countries.

Table 6. Materials and Methods

		I totally agree		I agree		I am not sure		I don't agree		I don't agree at all	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
10	Teaching materials developed in native English-speaking countries are appropriate for Turkish students.	8	6,8	42	35,9	2	1,7	56	47,5	10	8,5
13	Teaching methods developed in native English-speaking countries are appropriate for Turkish students.	4	3,4	56	47,9	3	2,6	50	42,4	5	4,3

Two participants expressed their objections in the following manner:

“This is the way we were taught English. “Mr. and Mrs. Brown went to the seaside.” For God sake, how many of us could go to the sea resorts? Please let’s put a stop to that and produce our own materials.”

“Those materials are not a must. If we work hard we can produce our own materials. It is the only way to reduce our dependency on the Western market....All we see in those materials are popular culture like Coca-cola and hamburger. In fact, culture as a concept should be defined first. Why do we celebrate New Year as they do with pine trees and presents underneath?”

On the other hand, almost 43% of the participants do not see any harm in using these materials provided that they are adapted and used by the teacher with caution.

“I do not see any reason why we should not use authentic materials. If there is any need we might adapt them to the needs of our students.”

“The materials might come from those countries but the teacher has the responsibility to make comparisons between the native and target culture.”

As for the methods, less than half of the teachers (47%) do not think the methods developed in the native English-speaking countries are appropriate for Turkish students. They stated their reservations in the following:

“We recommend our students to use communicative approach in their classrooms. How possible is it to use it in a class of 60 students? When they see it is not applicable, they come back to us with frustration.”

“We need to be aware of our students’ learning preferences. In my classes, for example, pair and group work are not preferred by my students as they are inclined to work on their own. I know that it is not limited to my students.”

Conclusions and implications

The findings acquired for the purpose of this study suggest that there is a growing recognition of English as a global language among Turkish ELT teacher trainers. Almost all the teachers accept the current status of English as a global language and they predict that its rise will continue in the future. However, their responses related to the drawbacks of having English as a global language to their own language and culture also call for a foreign-language pedagogy which promotes ‘critical language awareness’, i.e. an understanding of how language shapes and is shaped by society. Teachers should adopt a critical stance and be aware of the cultural and linguistic ‘threats’ of English with regard to the mother tongue of the country they work in. Such reflective awareness would enable them to deal critically with the globalisation challenges of EIL (Pennycook, 1996).

To us, all these considerations accentuate the need for a more critical orientation to ELT profession. So, what do we do? Troudi (2005) points out that teachers should be in a constant mode of questioning their knowledge about the subject matter, English, and its role in the global community. Sifakis and Sougari (2003) also suggest taking into serious consideration the defining characteristics of each specific situation such as learners’ age and level, purpose and affective factors. Kumaravadivelu (2003) proposes a post method pedagogy seeking to empower practicing teachers in their attempt to develop an appropriate pedagogy based on their local knowledge and local understanding. Similarly, Toh (2003) believes that teachers need to create environments where students themselves raise questions as to the role of English in the world and discuss them. For example, learners may be urged to reflect on such issues as why English is deemed to be useful, on who benefits most from English, on the possible detrimental effects of English on their mother tongue. For Turkish learners of English, the sociolinguistic effects of the use of English in different domains of Turkey, which has never been colonized, can be contrasted with the situation in former colonies.

However, we are of the opinion that critical awareness should first start with questioning the common conception of English as a neutral tool; in fact even tools are not neutral because they are designed for a specific purpose, which cannot be divorced from its cultural, political and ideological dynamics.

As Sweeney (2006) argues,

English has by no means divested itself of a cultural hinterland. On the contrary,

it embraces a huge range of messages, icons and brands that together constitute a cultural hegemony far greater than the British Empire ever achieved, and greater even than that implied by Americanisation. This force is globalisation itself.

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EIL, Variations and the Native Speaker's Model

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Introduction

English language is widely spoken and taught in the world. It is considered a lingua franca and is also considered by many to be the universal and the international language. This language is widely distributed and is currently the primary language of a number of countries. It is extensively used and taught as a second language around the world in countries like India, Pakistan, and South Africa and is also used by more people as a foreign language in a country like Iran and so many other countries.

The primacy of some English speaking countries has spread English language throughout the globe and this language is now the prominent international language in communications, science, technology, business, aviation, and other areas including the Internet. That is why it has often been referred to as a global language. As a global means of communications, English language has inevitably changed in order to suit specific contexts or needs (Crystal, 1997). It has been one of the official languages of the United Nations since its founding in 1945. In 1997, the Science Citation Index reported that 95% of its articles were written in English, even though only half of them came from authors in English-speaking countries. In many countries around the world that English is not the first language but is used as a second or foreign language, books, magazines, and newspapers written in English are available in the society.

English language is the one that is also most often studied as a foreign language in the European Union. It is also the most studied language in countries like Iran, People's Republic of China, Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, and many other countries. Because of this global spread, English language has developed lots of many dialects, variations, English-based creoles and pidgins.

Many people speak English as their first language and as David Crystal (1997) states: "the majority of these English speakers (67 to 70%) live in the United States." When combining native and non-native speakers, it is probably the most commonly spoken language in the world, though possibly second behind a combination of the Chinese languages that have more than one billion speakers. English language may have a limited number of native speakers compared to Hindi, Mandarin Chinese, and Spanish, but the geographical distribution of these languages as first, second, and foreign language is more limited than that of English. Spanish, although more widespread than Mandarin and Hindi, is not much present in Asia or Africa as English is as an international language.

There are some who claim that non-native speakers now outnumber native speakers by a ratio of 3 to 1. Considering the number of English speakers who use the language as their second or foreign language, this is true. English language is used as an international language and is the most widely learned and spoken foreign language and as such some linguists believe that it is no longer the exclusive cultural sign of "native English speakers," but is rather a language that is absorbing aspects of cultures worldwide as it continues to grow.

Variations and NS's model

International English is the concept of English language as a global means of communication in numerous variations and dialects. It is also referred to as Global English, World English, Common English, General English, or Standard English. It seems that sometimes these numerous terms refer simply to the array of varieties of English spoken throughout the world. International English sometimes refers to English as it is actually being used and developed in the world; as a language owned not just by native speakers, but by all those who come to use it. "Basically, it covers the English language at large, often (but not always or necessarily) implicitly seen as standard. It is certainly also commonly used in connection with the acquisition, use, and study of English as the world's lingua franca and especially when the language is considered as a whole in contrast with American English, British English, South African English, and the like" (McArthur, 2002, pp. 444-45). It especially means English words and phrases generally understood throughout the English-speaking world as opposed to localisms and native languages.

The international form of English language naturally differs from the accepted native speakers' norms, dominated by British and American English. Although these variations of English are taught and tested in many parts of the world, there are also variations of English with which people manage to communicate, though many want to be accurate too (according to the norms of the native speakers) which is similar to Jennifer Jenkins' idea that we should

focus “far more on intercultural communication and far less on what native speakers do.”

As English has spread all over the world, there are many variations of English in the world. These variations are often categorized into different groups. Braj Kachru (1985), for example, describes the varieties of English in the form of a set of circles: the “inner circle” countries including Australia, United Kingdom, and The United States of America where English is considered the first language, and the “outer circle” consisting of countries like India and South Africa that adopted English as lingua franca because of the multilingual nature of their society.

The “center” and the “periphery” are the other two terms used to refer to the variations of English language. The term “center” refers to native variations of English language, something what Holliday (1994) mentions as Britain, Australia, and North America. Although the term “periphery” should naturally refer to non-native varieties of English language, this term does not always stand for non-native variations of this language. If we consider the term “native” to mean people whose first language is English, many people in countries of Asia and other parts of the world as Prodromou (1997) may be recognized as native-speakers of English.

The term “periphery” is also divided into different groups. Quirk (1990) for example, divides this term into two groups, the “outer circle” and the “expanding circle.” The “outer circle” refers to English language where it is spoken as a first language in multilingual societies or English as a second language. The example for this case is Indian English. The second term refers to English language where it is spoken as a foreign language like Iran. The term “periphery” covers English as an international language and that is the reason why many consider the number of non-native speakers higher than native speakers.

Migration from the “inner circle” countries to the rest of the world has caused many variations of English language. It is interesting to note that all these variations have norms and are codified, and that they have gained acceptance. In non-native countries speakers of English language use it more as a lingua franca for communication, thus this language as Barber (1968), Widdowson (1994) and Jenkins (1998) believe, cannot be considered the property of the native speakers of English.

In many countries of the “outer circle,” the speakers of English language who are actually bilingual are using English along with their native languages. The point that the kinds of “Englishes” used by the speakers of these countries are naturally influenced by their native languages should be considered here. In this way, these speakers of English language add some items from their native languages to English or delete some items and naturally change it. These items can be in the area of phonetics and pronunciation, lexicon or syntax.

It comes to mind that these changes seem quite natural. When a language is used as an international language and at the same time used along with the native languages, there is no escape from change. Because these languages are used in one social context, they naturally affect each other. Considering the inner circle countries, one can surely say that changes (which are something natural) happen in the language of these countries as well.

When considering the changes in the “inner circle” countries and the changes in the “outer circle” countries, some believe that the changes in the first group are natural but the changes in the second group as not acceptable or sometimes even not permitted. This sense of not acceptability of the changes is because they consider one form of English language as an international language and the only standard form, and suppose that this standard form is deviating from the norms they have in mind. English language seems to be flexible enough to absorb changes without disintegrating.

As many linguists believe, it will not be the right idea to consider a specific dialect or accent as a Standard English. Leonard Bloomfield’s dictum that “the standard language is most definite and best observed in its written form, the literary language” shows that associating Standard English with writing and the written form of language did not seem unnatural. Richards, Platt, and Weber in their dictionary also say of Standard English: “The variety of a language which has the highest status in a community or nation and which is usually based on the speech and writing of educated speakers of the language.” They then add: “A standard variety is generally: (a) used in the news media and literature (b) described in dictionaries and grammars (c) taught in schools and taught to non-native speakers when they learn language as a foreign language” (1985, p.271).

After carefully studying these definitions, it comes to mind whether or not language remains unchanged. If it does not, why are the variations not considered as usual and instead are considered as damaging or threatening? Kachru (1985) believes that the increasing growth of English language as an international language has brought a need to reconsider the traditional notion of standardization, norms, and models that are related to the speakers of the “outer circle” countries. He then states: “The global diffusion of English has taken an interesting turn: The native speakers of this language seem to have lost the exclusive prerogative to control its standardization; in fact, if current statistics are any indication, they have become a minority.” The author then adds: “This sociolinguistic fact must be accepted and its implication recognized. What we need now are new paradigms and perspective for linguistic and pedagogical research and for understanding the linguistic creativity in multi lingual situations across cultures” (1985, p.30). It seems that Kachru is considering the norms in which English is used in a certain area, whether “inner” or “outer circle.”

As a spreading language, English has developed many variations and there is no question about that. But each of these varieties has a norm for itself. If we consider a bilingual speaker who is learning English as a second a language or a student who is learning it as a foreign language, both learn the language in a situation that is based on certain standards and norms and this creates the unifying norms.

According to this point, we may say that if English is to be used as an international language, these unifying norms are needed and should be considered. Widdowson (1994) writes that when “English serves the communicative and communal needs of different communities, it follows logically that it must be diverse. An international language has to be an independent language. It does not follow logically, however, that the language will disperse into mutually unintelligible varieties.” He then continues: “For it will naturally stabilize into standard form to the extent required to meet the needs of communities concerned. Thus it is clearly vital to the interests of the international community...(to) preserve a common standard of English in order to keep up standards of communicative effectiveness” (p. 385).

Kachru (1985) considers “inner circle” countries as “norm providing communities” and the “outer circle” countries as “norm developing communities.” In this way, all innovations in “outer circle” countries in which English is used as second or foreign language becomes “institutionalized,” because these variations are based on the norms in the inner circle countries.

The other point that should be noticed is the background each country has for English language and it seems that this background, which is unique for each “outer circle” country, is an important element in the different variations existing in this countries. For example, the historical background of English language in Iran is not the same as that of India. In Iran, English language is used as a foreign language but in India it is used as a second language and a lingua franca. The conclusion that can be drawn from this point is that the variations of English in these two countries are unique.

If we compare and contrast the kinds of Englishes that are used in Iran and in India, we will realize that these two variations of the English language are different and each kind develops its “institutionalized” or “nativized” variations. Because of differences of these two languages, each develops its variety of English and the syntactical and phonological rules of these languages are to a great extent influencing these different kinds of “Englishes.” As a result, these variations can be considered as legal and correct and they are actually a part of the identity of these countries. So the job of the institutions and the authorities is to standardize these different variations.

The reason why American and British dialects are considered as standard is not a matter of linguistics but more a matter of social status, prestige, and power. If we consider this point as true, then we will have many terms such as bad English, non-standard English, sub-standard English, or corrupted English. All these terms may refer to those kinds of Englishes spoken by lower classes of the society or variations spoken by non-native speakers.

In the case of a country like Iran, I may say that English language is actually norm dependent. This language is used as a foreign language in the country and it does not have an official role in the society. Iran is included in the “expanding circle” countries and English is taught at schools (guidance schools and high schools, but not in primary schools) and universities. There are many private teaching centers and institutes in the country that teach English and many parents send their children from the age of six onwards to learn English in these teaching centers.

Private teaching centers have their own specific norms in the country. In some of these centers one can see the norms of British English and in other centers the norms of American English. But the reality is that some of the teachers of these centers do not stick to the specific norm used in the center. Most of the English teachers in Iran if they teach British or American English are not consistent in their dialects or accents and they actually use a combination of British or American English. In some cases even the teacher does not know which dialect he/she is speaking.

Another problem remains with the English books. Most of the books that are taught in the private teaching centers in Iran are written for a society other than Iranian society but these teaching centers, regardless of the cultural or social differences, may use the texts for teaching English. Even some of these institutes and teaching centers present and identify themselves with the books they have chosen to appear as different centers and attract students.

In Iranian schools, the situation remains the same, except for the books that are specifically designed and written by the ministry of education, but the problem is still present in the area of teaching, pronunciation, and accent. One year a teacher with an American dialect and accent goes into a class, next year another teacher with a British dialect goes to the same class, and the other year the class has a teacher who has neither American nor British dialect or has a dialect that is a mixture of both. In this case of having different variations of a language in a class, linguistic rules of the native language intervene and the pronunciations follow the phonetic and phonological rules of the native language in addition to the syllabic system that plays an important role in this situation.

In teaching and learning English as an international language, a contrastive statement of

linguistic relationships can be of great value. Behind such an analysis stands the theory of transfer. This theory claims, for instance, that an Iranian student would tend to transfer the patterns of his native language and ultimately culture to the English language, aware to some extent of similarities but unaware or sometimes ignoring the differences. In this case many errors happen. Some of these errors are caused because of the differences between the two languages, but others originate because the native speaker applies his/her native language rules and regulations on English language.

To have a very brief account of the errors caused from this situation, I can divide them as follows:

1-Orthographic errors are caused by the inconsistency of the English spelling system. In English, there is no one-to-one correspondence between letters and the sound they represent (oo in too and ou in soup, for example). In the same way, some letters of English language may have different pronunciations (a in ate /eɪ/ and a in car /a/ for instance). In this area again we can talk of homonyms (bee and be for example). In the area of orthographic errors we can see the student's ignorance of doubling the final consonants in monosyllabic words before adding a suffix beginning with a vowel (swimmer becomes swimer, for example).

2-phonological errors happen (a) due to lack of certain target language phonemes, whether consonants or vowels. Persian language lacks /l/, /θ/ and /ð/ phonemes that exist in English, so native phonemes from Persian language are replaced (/t/ or /s/ for /θ/ and /d/ or /z/ for /ð/).

(b) Some errors are caused by the differences in the syllabic structure of English and Persian language. Initial consonant clusters are not permitted in Persian, so each consonant of the cluster is either preceded or followed by a vowel. The word school /skʊl/ becomes /eskʊl/ or /sekʊl/ and fresh /fresʃ/ becomes /feresʃ/.

(c)-Other errors are spelling pronunciations, which make the speaker pronounce the words as they are spelled. The word kitchen, for example, is pronounced /kit-tʃen/ or the word skull becomes /eskʊl/ or /sekʊl/ or /eskəl/ or /sekəl/.

(d)-Persian speakers sometimes do not consider silent letters in English and pronounce them. The word knife for example becomes /kenɪf/, /kenife/ or /kenaif/.

3-Other kinds of errors happen in the area of semantics and lexicon.

(a)-My father works twenty four *o'clock* (hours) each week.

(b)-My father *learned* (taught) me English.

4-Other errors are caused in the area of syntax and morphology.

- (a)-They *left* (had left) before I arrived. (Simple past instead of past perfect).
- (b)-My brother *is working* twenty four hours a week. (Present continuous instead of simple present tense).

Other processes of errors are:

- (a)- Omission (I have---apple).
- (b)- Addition (he answered *to* my letter).
- (c)- Substitution (I am not afraid *from* (of) dogs).
- (d)- Wrong ordering or permutation (He *last night* broke the window).

Conclusion

It seems that Standard English can not just be the language used in Britain or the one used in America. Instead, the English language used by the speakers of other languages based on the norms is also accepted. Each language represents and shows the real situation of its speakers and users. In this way, it is not right to say that the identity of international English can be identified with British or American English as the native languages or other kinds of English as non-native variations of the language. It means that English and its different variations as a native language, as a second language, and as a foreign language should be considered.

A true international English might put aside both current American and British English as a variety of English for international communication, leaving these as local dialects, or would rise from a merger of American and British English with a mixture of other varieties of English and would generally replace all these varieties of English. The real purpose of English as an international language and its different variations is in making bridges between people and bringing different communities close to each other. Therefore, it seems that in order to have a better understanding of English language as international English we should focus on the international norms of these different variations rather than the differences.

Charles Barber in his book, *The flux of language*, clearly states the point he when says:

The English language is not the monopoly of the inhabitants of Britain: we have no sole proprietary rights in it, which would entitle us to dictate usage to the rest of English speaking world. Nor is it the monopoly of the Americans, or the Australians, or any other group: it belongs to us all. It would be reasonable to give parity of esteem to all educated forms of English speech, whatever country they have found in, and in whatever region of that country (1968, p. 35).

In the case of Iran, I may say that we should better understand the norms of English as an

international language and make our students aware of these norms to avoid the different errors they make in their speaking of English. Although two different variations of English are spoken and taught in Iran, there is no unique plan for directing them. Therefore the authorities or the private institutions should feel responsible for canalizing these variations so that the students do not feel that the American accent is better than the British one or vice versa.

If we have a better realization of English language as an international language and understand its different variations and the effect of the native languages on them, considering the changing nature of them and also considering them as the accepted forms of English language, then we can have a better plan for future consideration of the language and setting the standards for it. Therefore, it seems reasonable to plan and support the idea of a common or international standard that everyone in every country of the world can use and understand. For this purpose, literary scholars must join the language teachers in a common concern for setting the standards in English.

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Redefining Communicative Competence for International and Local Communities

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Abstract

This paper is a follow-up paper to Nunn (2005). In combination, these two papers consider the meaning of competence when English is used as an International Language (EIL). This second paper focuses on definitions and concludes with a global definition of competence. ‘Competence’ is partially defined in relation to the communities in which individual members apply it. In this paper, the meaning of ‘community’ is considerably developed from the discussion of ‘speech community’ in the first paper, to include ‘discourse’, ‘bi-lingual’, ‘local’ and ‘international’ characterizations. ‘Competence’ is then contrasted with other related concepts, such as ‘proficiency’. Discussion of the holistic, interlocking nature of five different types of competence is developed from the first paper and five characteristics of International Communicative Competence (ICC) are outlined.

International/global aspects of competence are always applied in specific, ‘local’ contexts. The middle section of this paper considers just two local educational contexts in Asia. The discussion is supported by a few data samples from projects reported elsewhere, including a full report of a sponsored project conducted at the Petroleum Institute in Abu Dhabi, a university that aims to produce engineers from the local community who are able to perform to international standards and to communicate in English within a multi-national organization (full report available electronically on request). Members of local institutions that aspire to educational excellence in an international field need to learn to interact with various kinds of ‘communities’ in order to achieve an appropriate balance between international and local conceptions of competence. As a comparison, a very different academic community will be described in a Japanese university where a general English course teaches skills for international communication to all first-year students regardless of academic discipline.

I. The meaning of competence

While it is common to *begin* a paper with ‘definitions’, characterizing the global, holistic and complex nature of the concept of International Communicative Competence is one of the

final aims of this paper. A detailed definition will therefore be provided only in the conclusion. One approach to reading this very long paper would therefore be to start with the conclusion and then to read back to see how the definition was arrived at. The paper is also to be read as a follow up to Nunn (2005) in which it was argued, through a review of the literature on EIL, that competence has yet to be adequately addressed in recent considerations of EIL. The earlier paper first discussed the need to reconsider the scope of 'communicative competence' and then considered types of competence relevant to EIL including linguistic competence. It critically examined demographic descriptions of World English use in relation to competence and discussed the kinds of competence that are embodied in the corpora that are currently being used for the development of teaching materials.

This paper considerably develops the arguments presented in that paper with a view to attempting a definition of EIL competence. Traditional definitions of competence are often based on native use, whereas EIL students in local academic communities are using English as a second language, and might normally be expected to achieve competence in relation to broad but inclusive international and global criteria. Local institutions that aspire to educational excellence in an international field such as engineering automatically belong to an 'international community' and need to aim for a balance between international and local definitions of competence. The notion of 'community' is important in this respect. As 'communicative competence' has often been defined in relation to monolingual 'speech communities' (see Nunn, 2005), this paper will first consider whether there is an equivalent notion of 'international community' and how this notion links up to the 'local communities' such as the PI community in which English is taught.

Competence and 'community'

Before even attempting to 'characterize' competence – for it is far too complex a concept to allow simple 'definition' – it is important to consider where it is actually located and where it is used. A common assumption is that it is a resource available to individuals and exists in the individual. However, competence in the various research disciplines related to language and communication is often defined in relation to a notion of 'community'. Competence is then related to what needs to be known by individuals within a particular community in order to function as a member in relation to certain shared values and norms. In this respect, some kind of ideal community is sometimes evoked. In attempting to characterize competence in our age of international communication within and across disciplines, it is difficult to propose a clear-cut characterization of 'international community'. The competent international English user will need to move between or operate within various kinds of communities.

Some commonly used characterizations of community are considered below in relation to EIL.

Speech community

It was suggested in Nunn (2005) that 'Speech Community' was a term that usually refers to homogenous communities of native speakers. EIL competence needs for students in some local contexts might involve the need to communicate with or even within such monolingual English speaking communities. This could be for long- or short-term study purposes or for long-term academic and professional relationships. Trudgill (2003) is not alone in characterizing 'communicative' competence in terms of native norms within speech communities. "All native speakers of a language also have to know how to *use* that language appropriately in the society in which they live" (p. 24). He adds, "Non-native speakers also have to acquire communicative as well as linguistic competence when learning a foreign language, if they are to be able to use that language effectively and appropriately and to participate in cross-cultural communication". Here the definition does not specifically relate to English and one implication could be that cross-cultural communication requires the non-native to adapt to the native norms, which is not always the case. In organizations such as ADNOC (Abu Dhabi National Oil Company) in Abu Dhabi for example, where students from one local context referred to in this research will eventually work, the norms used in relation to English are very diverse, but native speaker norms do not dominate.

Trudgill (*Ibid.*) goes on (p.49) to define speech acts as "acts of identity" within *speech communities*. Importantly for EIL communication, he distinguishes "diffuse" and "focused" speech communities. In focused communities, "only a narrow range of identities is available for enactment". EIL communication is more easily associated with the other pole, being potentially very diffuse, given the potentially broad differences within and between varieties of English. Trudgill does not define a speech community only in terms of native speakers, defining it also as "a community of speakers who share the same verbal repertoire, and who also share the same verbal norms of behaviour" (p.126). This definition would still not fit EIL use easily as norms of behaviour are unlikely to be shared. The idea of membership is also problematic.

Speech community is also used in socio-linguistics to refer to multiple memberships of sub-communities such as student communities, cricket-playing communities, classical-music communities, etc. In this view, we all belong to multiple communities within a parent community. Members of sub-communities have communication possibilities in common with other sub-communities across national boundaries and these may be stronger than the

possibilities available with co-‘members’ within the parent speech community. Being a member of a cricketing speech community within one’s own culture makes communication across cultures with members of cricketing communities possible. Members of a parent speech community, for example, listening to a cricket commentary and hearing discussions of key cricketing phenomena such as ‘LBW’, may understand very little. Cases of ‘LBW’ can be very complicated. (When the ball hits the batsman’s pad in front of the wicket he might be given out ‘Leg Before Wicket’.) While ‘LBW’ is incomprehensible to non-cricketers even within a mono-cultural speech community, it is more easily discussed between cricket-playing sub-communities from totally different national and cultural backgrounds.

Linguistic competence and speech community

‘Linguistic’ competence is often linked to the seminal work of Noam Chomsky. It is often pointed out that Chomsky’s concern is with a universal innate language faculty of the brain and that Chomsky does not refer to any specific notion of an actual community. Indeed, Chomsky is normally associated with ideal use within a non-existent ‘ideal speech’ community. However, while Thompson (2004) and others suggest that Chomsky has nothing to say about language use, in “New Horizons in the Study of Language and Mind”, Chomsky does address the issue (2000, pp.19-45). It is true that Chomsky suggests that there is reason to believe that the I-languages (‘grammatical competence’) are distinct from conceptual organization and ‘pragmatic competence’ and that these systems can be “selectively impaired and developmentally dissociated” (p. 26). However, there is also evidence that Chomsky (2000, p.27) sees I-language as part of an integrated communication system: “We are studying a real object, the language faculty of the brain, which has assumed the form of a full I-language and is integrated into performance systems that play a role in articulation, interpretation, expression of beliefs and desires, referring, telling stories, and so on.” Chomsky (2000) still refers to his traditional distinction between ‘competence’ and ‘performance’ but does not necessarily dismiss the latter as unworthy of scrutiny, conceding that “I –languages are embedded in performance systems” (p. 34).

Of relevance to the notion of EIL competence is Chomsky’s challenge to the view that communities own languages as fixed common entities. According to Chomsky, (2000, p.31) “...the notion of “community” or “common language” makes as much sense as the notion “nearby city” or “look alike” without further specification of interests, leaving the analysis vacuous.” One view expressed by Chomsky (2000) is not dissimilar to Sperber and Wilson’s (1995) challenge of another notion often used to characterize communities, the notion of “shared knowledge”, when he argues that, “Successful communication between

Peter and Mary does not entail the existence of shared meanings or shared pronunciations in a public language (or a common treasure of thoughts or articulations of them)...” (p. 30).

This argument is interesting in that it can allow for the notion of individually different, or culturally different, knowledge between speakers of the ‘same’ language. Chomsky (op. cit. p.30) challenges the idea that “the basic function of a natural language is to mediate communication”. He does not argue that a language does not do this; only that “it is unclear what sense can be given to an absolute notion of “basic function” for any biological system”. Chomsky concludes that the notion of “conforming to the practice of a community” is problematic whether a community is defined as homogeneous or heterogeneous (p.31). The argument that individuals regardless of origin have the innate ability to create and can adjust their innate ability regardless of community constraints is a powerful, if problematic, concept with international potential.

While it is common to dismiss such claims as unverifiable, the question is whether such a view is just a question of faith. It can also be seen as the result, if not of conclusive evidence, of rigorous argumentation based on our undeniable common experience that distinguishes humans from other species. We may decide to exclude views of ‘internal’ competence from certain approaches to research, because they are difficult to investigate, but it is nonetheless, difficult to dismiss the existence of internal competence in the form of an I-language and attempts at global definitions cannot definitively exclude perspectives just because they appear to be incompatible with other perspectives. In relation to language learners, Chomsky (2000) argues that, “we gain no insight into what they are doing by supposing that there is a fixed entity they are approaching, even if some sense can be made of this mysterious notion” (p. 32).

Chomsky is also linked to a key idea that is arguably neglected in language teaching, the notion of linguistic creativity. Creativity in this sense is the ability to create an infinite number of utterances from the finite linguistic resources available. Utterances are not simply learnt and regurgitated. Humans have the ability to create utterances that are unique and have never been generated in quite that form before. There is still an assumption of limitation to this creative aspect of language. The original view seems to have been that the limits are related to what is deemed acceptable by the educated native speaker. This view is no longer workable in our age of international communities and the preponderance of actual English use by and often between non-native speakers.

Gomez (2006) suggests that, in spite of the publicity given to Chomsky's view, "the key concept of linguistic creativity has only been minimally dealt with in the specialized literature of linguistics" (p. 50). (But see Crystal, 1998, on Language Play.) While the creative aspect

of competence may appear to have been neglected recently, it has seen something of a revival as a response to over rigid advocacy of corpora as the only source of acceptable language use and in works in which native-speaker dominance is no longer accepted as an arbitrator of creative use, such as in Carter (2004). Gomez highlights the point made by Carter (2004), namely that linguistic creativity is not limited to the native speaker, and needs to be considered more carefully in relation to language learners. Zheng (2007) develops the idea beyond just linguistic aspects, suggesting that the current definition of creativity "is an ability to produce work that is novel and appropriate" (p. 6). Linguistic creativity is subtly related to this broader view in that it contributes to creative content within genres.

To sum up, 'speech community' is a problematic concept for EIL, but this does not mean that it is not a useful or adaptable concept. Students have very diverse reasons for using English and some of these may be for study and extended residence within a so-called native 'speech community', however heterogeneous this may prove to be. It will be argued below that some notions linked to 'speech communities' such as appropriateness can be disassociated from a narrow view of 'speech communities' and put to use to help define competence from a broader perspective.

Discourse community

In relation to education, EIL competence needs might also include the need to participate in some kind of academic or professional 'discourse community'. (See Nunn and Adamson, this volume, for further discussion.) A discourse community is characterized as a specialized community with relatively exclusive membership requirements in relation to a particular academic or vocational field such as a chemical engineering community. A paradoxical further characterization of discourse communities is that membership can be viewed as peripheral (Flowerdew, 2000, p.129) by a relatively large number of its so-called members. Flowerdew's membership criteria (2000, p.127) based on Swales (1990) include the following:

1. Common goals,
2. participatory mechanisms,
3. information exchange,
4. community-specific genres,
5. highly specialized terminology,
6. high general level of expertise.

Lave and Wenger's (1991) notion of "legitimate peripheral participation" as evoked by Flowerdew (2000, p.131) makes legitimate membership less exclusive in that peripheral participation (publishing an article in a journal, for example, or writing a lab report) is

legitimate. Aspirant members may therefore attempt to participate in the community of practice of a discourse community and “even experienced scholars need to continually negotiate their position as members of the discourse community as that position is ratified by the acceptance of their writing for publication” (p.131).

Local community

Canagarajah (2006) points out that “local Englishes are now traveling” (p.590). Local characterizations of ‘community’ can no longer be opposed to international characterizations, as few local communities where English is used are now impervious to outside influence. Canagarajah (2005) provides a detailed characterization of the relationship between the global and the local. The way local communities absorb, reject, incorporate or resist outside influence is a complex phenomenon. Canagarajah (2006) argues that, “English should be treated as a multi-national language, one that belongs to diverse communities and not owned only by the metropolitan communities” (p. 589). The diverse communities compose a “heterogeneous system of Global English”. He coins the phrase “code meshing” for the relationship between local varieties of English and a so-called standard. John Adamson (2007 - personal correspondence) puts this as follows:

Recent work by Canagarajah looks at the interface between national policies/globalization and local practices/knowledge. What strikes me as particularly resonant is that there is a discomfort in the interface between perceived speech community, national policy, globalized EIL and local realities especially in terms of what 'competence(s)' mean.

International community - A community of local and hybrid communities

We soon notice when processing international news that ‘International Community’ has become an example of convenient media speak and is most commonly used to serve narrow partisan national interests. Former American ambassador to the UN, John Bolton, is even quoted as saying, “there is no such thing as the United Nations. There is only the international community, which can only be led by the only remaining superpower, which is the United States.” (<http://www.timesonline.co.uk/article/0,,11069-1515816,00.html> in a Times Online article). For a more global perspective, we must turn to international jurists such as Antonio Cassesse (2003) who refers to ‘fundamental standards of ‘the world community’ according to which individuals may to be held to account.

For linguists it is difficult to accept a singular conceptualization of ‘International Community’, unless it is used as a global umbrella term for some kind of ‘community of communities’. In this sense, it is a pluralized, multi-glossic concept that interacts with all the

other concepts of community previously characterized. International communities may range from temporary communities that form and dissolve in relation to particular events (such as attendance at a conference) to semi-permanent more stable communities that share long-term goals, such as the Asian EFL Journal editorial group. To be called communities we might minimally specify (1) some form of common goal even if the details remain to be negotiated. (2) Some mechanisms of participation specifying things like attendance (whether through physical or online presence – such as skyping other members). Membership might be relatively unstable involving forming, dissolving, reforming. (3) Some need to exchange information also seems to be a pre-requisite to participate in a community. (4) Some common purposes and norms, while open to negotiation, might also be specified, although the extent to which these become 'genres' might not be rigidly defined. Temporary and evolving generic conventions might be the norm. No communities are permanent, but we may assume that the strains on maintaining membership in internationally oriented communities might be greater and it might be physically easier to stop being a member. (5) Linguistic and pragmatic negotiations of meanings are likely to be central activities of international communities. (This does not mean that mono-cultural communities do not also need these, but they might not be aware of language issues to the same extent, even if evidence shows that they might need to be). The way that competence is defined in a local community will need to consider all the characterizations outlined above as membership of the community will also involve communication with or within different combinations of all these kinds of community.

II. Competence and related concepts

Competence is an abstract concept and as such difficult to define in a simple way. It is best seen as part of a network of concepts which might sometimes be used as synonyms, sometimes overlap, sometimes stand in contrast to each other. In the EFL domain some of these are: 'proficiency', 'ability', 'skills', 'achievement', 'knowledge', and 'performance'. In EFL writing, 'competence' still most commonly co-occurs with 'communicative' but is also commonly found in the company of such words as 'pragmatic', 'linguistic', 'academic', 'intercultural'. Partly depending on the collocational company it is keeping, it is subject to connotational layers of meaning that can be negative. Certain collocations, such as 'communicative competence' might also have outlived their usefulness due to overuse and their associations with particular ideologies of teaching that provoke polemical rather than balanced discussion.

The consequences of competence being a broad, holistic concept can easily be underestimated. As a global concept, it can be provisionally defined as *the total available*

range of (multi-cultural) abilities, skills, knowledge and experience that can be drawn upon for any particular performance by an individual or group of individuals to address a real-world task or set of tasks. When competence is used as a local rather than as a global concept, it is then commonly redefined to focus on a local situation. A local definition is always only partial, consisting of *those aspects of global competence that are brought to bear on a particular real-world task in a local context*. Naturally ‘local competence’ does not exist in isolation, either from the global definition or from other local competences.

As a global concept that is always put into practice in specific local contexts it follows that competence can never be achieved or even comprehended fully by one individual or totally applied even by a group of individuals in any local constituency. Each of us has only a partial view of the whole. The metaphor of a globe is useful here. We can only see a small part of the surface of the globe at any one time and cannot easily look below the surface.

In local institutions such as the Petroleum Institute in the UAE it is possible to view competence needs along a cline from local to international. On the one hand, the Petroleum Institute is a university with the aim of providing engineers for ADNOC, the national oil company. This is a relatively local issue. At the same time, the new university has the long-term ambition of competing internationally in terms of excellence. In such a situation, locally sponsored research has a clear two-sided need to consider both local and global definitions of competence. The dynamic tension between these two different motivations can lead to progress in both local and global definitions.

As an even broader concept, it then follows that ‘international communication competence’ cannot be fully displayed or possessed by mono-cultural individuals, or indeed in any total sense, by individuals even from multi-cultural backgrounds. It is likely to be most holistically displayed by groups of individuals working together synergistically from a variety of backgrounds.

Definitions of related concepts

In her detailed discussion on the problems of competence-related concepts, Iyldyz (2007) underlines the need for careful definition of the proficiency/competence concept within EIL. While ‘**competence**’ and ‘**proficiency**’ are sometimes used interchangeably, competence’ will be contrasted with ‘proficiency’ in this paper, the former being a global concept, the latter being defined here only in relation to particular task specifications for tests (such as an essay-writing test), learning tasks (such as decision-making conversations) or communication genres (such as research report writing for engineering students). As mentioned above, characterizing ‘competence’ as a *global* concept is a useful metaphor, as rather like a globe,

we can only see some parts of it at one time and do not easily see below the surface. In contrast, ‘proficiency’ is defined for this report in relation to the *levels* of ability or abilities actually demonstrated when performing particular academic tasks. It can be measured in relation to particular performances by using rating scales. Such scales are a partial summary of knowledge and behaviours in the form of banded descriptions of particular behaviours for different levels of performance on a task. These descriptions reflect global definitions of competence. Where ‘proficiency’ alone is used, the result may become a purely utilitarian and often arbitrary evaluation of behaviours associated only with one task or one context, detached from any coherent global view of what constitutes ‘competence’ and even detached from a candidate’s underlying ability. Measuring proficiency on a particular task might nonetheless be effective, but measurements of single performances are difficult to generalize across settings so proficiency is best measured using a variety of tasks. Furthermore, there is likely to be some unstated underlying lay concept of ‘competence’ that is difficult to identify or defend as it has not been made explicit.

‘Performance’ is used here only to mean a unique spoken or written outcome produced at one particular time and in one particular place in a particular set of circumstances. Proficiency is normally measured on a range of tasks which therefore encompasses several performances. In assessing levels of ‘proficiency’ on particular tasks, we need to appeal to a super-ordinate global concept of ‘competence’, as a holistic, multidimensional construct. Competence is seen as *a combination of the knowledge and the ability to use the knowledge that underlies every performance*. This implies that a competent person will normally be expected to perform well, but may sometimes perform badly in a particular situation without allowing a valid long-term judgment to be made on that person’s competence.

One further construct, ‘**achievement**’, is used here to refer to particular courses. We might ideally expect achievement over time to reflect competence, but achievement is a limited concept. It is associated only with the requirements of particular courses or tests or parts of courses or tests. These might highlight quite limited aspects of competence. It is possible to achieve a very high pass in an achievement test on limited components such as the form of past tenses of English verbs without being able to use these meaningfully beyond the test or beyond the course.

Compensation

These definitions imply that evaluating ‘levels’ of proficiency that reflect competence using over-specific criteria needs particular care. Two students evaluated as having equal levels may have a very different profile. No two students can be assumed to be equally proficient in

all aspects of competence. Assuming each student is more proficient in different aspects, it is assumed that each one can compensate for those aspects which are less developed, the end result being a similar level of proficiency in a particular performance. Compensation between components of a multidimensional construct makes it difficult to determine a fixed system of evaluating competence in terms of the categories chosen, as high ability in one might reduce the need for high ability in another.

Even when using common scales or rubrics, it cannot be assumed that two teachers are actually using the same criteria or will evaluate the same performance in the same way. Attempts are made in rubrics or rating scales to *summarize* a global concept, rather than describe it in a definitive way. In evaluating students during and at the end of a course, the complex relationship between ‘competence’, ‘proficiency’, ‘performance’ and ‘achievement’ needs careful consideration.

Appropriateness and EIL

As a key concept of communicative competence (Hymes, 1972), and originally used in relation to mono-cultural speech communities, ‘appropriateness’ has commonly been used to refer to the norms and values that help to determine what would be appropriate in a given situation within each community. In this study, a more diverse range of communities has been evoked. ‘Appropriateness’ will therefore be disassociated from any exclusive link to monolingual speech communities.

Standard dictionary definitions of ‘appropriate’ usually refer to ‘situation’, ‘context’ or ‘circumstances’. Collins Cobuild (1988), for example, defines appropriate as meaning “suitable and acceptable for a particular situation” (p.35). OALD (2000) suggests: “suitable, acceptable or correct for the particular circumstances” (p.50). Roget’s International Thesaurus (1988) provides the following synonyms: apt, expedient, relevant, right, timely, useful, well-chosen...” (p.812). Such non-specialized definitions leave several questions unanswered. Crystal (2003), in his specialized dictionary, links appropriateness to “a linguistic variety or form which is considered suitable or possible in a given social situation” (p. 30). Crystal’s definition also takes issue with the inclusion of ‘correct’ as a synonym as ‘appropriateness’ is not a prescriptive term concerned with correctness, but one that admits ‘different expectations of different situations’. Crystal goes on to suggest that, to be appropriate, certain criteria must be met, a potentially useful explanation for designing and interpreting rating scales.

‘Appropriateness’ for Spitzberg (1994) is defined as “enacting behavior in a manner that is fitting to the context, thereby avoiding the violation of valued rules, expectancies, or

norms" (p.31). Spitzberg usefully disassociates competence from conformity or even politeness, arguing that "there are novel situations in which there are no norms to conform to, and because one of the more competent maneuvers may be to renegotiate the existing norms or rules" (p.32). Spitzberg points out that one can be appropriate but ineffective and vice versa but that any definition of the elusive 'ideal' communication might need to include both. For EIL, many situations may be novel so interim norms will need to be developed. Where there are no common norms or norms are familiar to only one interlocutor, some form of negotiation of communication norms will be needed to be 'effective'. This means that 'appropriateness' will sometimes need to be dissociated from the notion of 'speech community'. An appropriate contribution can be made in intercultural situations in which the norms of just one particular speech community would be 'inappropriate'.

An appropriate contribution is then one that considers the circumstances, the setting, the background of the interlocutors and the purposes of the communication. In academic communication it would include criteria such as audience, genre, task specifications and discourse community norms. It would consider feasibility and an awareness of what might be needed to be effective, although there is no guarantee of success even when a contributor makes every effort to behave appropriately.

III. Language holistically defined

Competence is defined for many different purposes and these purposes will influence the scope of each definition. Pedagogical definitions will highlight competence in terms of skills, such as literacy skills encompassing both reading and writing skills or spoken language skills encompassing speaking and listening skills. They will also highlight lexico-grammatical ability, including systemic notions such as collocation and colligation. Some approaches to language teaching emphasize multi-skill approaches. Other ways of viewing competence focus on what is needed to acquire it both in a first or second language context. Sometimes the most usable definitions come from the field of assessment, in which case, the attempt is to determine those aspects that should be tested.

The recent work of Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) and Thompson (2004) in systemic linguistics also points to the holistic nature of competence. The overriding implication of systemic linguistics is that the competent user has acquired knowledge of a complex set of interlocking systems and that he is able to put this knowledge to use. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) note that systemic theory attempts to be comprehensive: "it is concerned with language in its entirety, so that whatever is said about one aspect is to be understood always with reference to the total picture" (p.3). They provide this holistic framework as a

representation of the kind of knowledge that underpins competent use of a language. A systemic explanation of language implies that the knowledge required for competent use acts as a holistic resource available to the user. Users create text and "a text is the product of ongoing selection in a very large network of systems – a system network" (p.23). "We cannot explain why a text means what it does, with all the various readings and values that may be given it except by relating it to the linguistic system as a whole" (p.3). A user makes appropriate local choices and selections in particular contexts based on the limitations of his or her systemic knowledge. "A language is a resource for making meaning, and meaning resides in systemic patterns of choice."

The systemic network can be divided into three components, 'ideational', 'interpersonal' and 'textual'. At each level, choices are made from within the three systems simultaneously for any utterance. Any utterance is hence multi-functional and the structure or form of the utterance is the *product* resulting from the *process* of making systemic choices at these three levels. While Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) concede that systemic linguistics provides a very complex explanation of language knowledge, they justify this by stating, "if the account seems complex, this is because the grammar is complex" (p.5).

Although the notion of systemic 'competence' relates to a user's whole knowledge (which is inevitably partial) not all aspects of this competence will be called upon in all situations. Conversely, certain aspects will need to be present in given situations. Another implication is that to demonstrate competence, students need to be assessed when handling substantial stretches of text. At the same time, demonstrating competence means the ability to make possible and appropriate choices from a finite linguistic system within the context that the choices are made in. These appropriate contextual choices are related to participation in the various kinds of community that individuals communicate in, as outlined in this section.

Evaluating individual competence

While competence is defined in terms of community membership, it is individuals who take exams, graduate, apply and are recruited for jobs. It is no simple task to evaluate individual competence in relation to team competence in such a complex area as academic writing. Flowerdew (2000, p. 19) suggests there are normal legitimate limits to the individual nature of academic writing citing Prior (1998). Prior describes academic writing as mediated. It is not normally an individual competence, as academic writing "does not emanate from a single author, but [is] jointly constructed by various parties in addition to the actual writer, as he or she reads, discusses, revises collaboratively, and so on" (p.22).

This implies that to assess competence a variety of different genres need to be envisaged.

In the Petroleum Institute context, at one end of the cline is an individual diagnostic piece in which the student writes unassisted with a strict time limit on an unknown topic with no documents or reference aids such as dictionaries. At the other end, a team written research report is evaluated which is written through collaborative multiple drafting, with full academic resources including consultation and feedback on the first draft from tutors. It is, however, unrealistic and too simple to conclude that it is the first kind of text which reflects the student's competence. To consider the second type as a measure of individual competence is also problematic. Various intermediate stages can also be envisaged and need to be considered carefully.

Some inherent problems of defining communicative competence both locally and internationally can be addressed by using competent students' work as one a way of defining targets rather than just using an external model, which may be perceived locally as being irrelevant and unattainable. In this way, global aspects of competence are balanced with local realities. To illustrate how different 'local realities' can be, a very different academic community will be briefly described within a Japanese University where a general English course taught to all first-year students regardless of academic discipline develops skills for international communication.

IV. Comparison of two local contexts

The holistic, global concept of competence, while relevant to all contexts, can never be totally applied in local contexts. Certain aspects of competence described in this section were identified to respond to a local need at a national university in Japan, where a course in English Conversation had recently become compulsory for all first-year students. Students at this level have diverse competence needs. Science students and International Studies students have potential membership needs in both monolingual English speech communities and in specialized international discourse communities. However, the majority of students are unlikely to develop a relationship with any kind of English 'community' and most students can be primarily identified as members of a monolingual Japanese speaking community. It is difficult to predict a common set of future needs for all students, although all must take the same course.

Observation of English classes in local secondary schools and initial assessment by university instructors indicated that students had had little experience in participating in conversations. The development of interactive skills was therefore identified as an appropriate general aim for first-year university classes.

The simple ability to keep a basic conversation going was identified as lacking in around

60% of students during placement tests for streaming students. 60% of students were identified as beginner, or elementary level speakers of English in a conversational context. Teachers' own subsequent evaluation at the start of classes with streamed students did not contradict this finding. While this was a compulsory course, it can be argued that many of these students would never use even the kind of basic lingua franca skills taught in this course in the future. But this is a somewhat circular argument as only students who have developed competence are able to use it. It is difficult to exclude the possibility that students will at some time, within their own country or when traveling or communicating online, need at least spontaneous lingua franca survival skills.

Why teach small-group interactive competence?

Assuming the need is correctly identified, sometimes in spite of the students' own perception, we might then make appeal to appropriate global theory to identify and conceptualize the competence required. The example below, which is perfectly understandable to the interlocutors, illustrates the problem of small-group interaction in impervious, mono-cultural groups:

- Where would you like to go?
- Maybe Italia.
- Oh, do you like Hide?
- Yes, of course.
- I see.

The solution found for this type of outcome was role-play involving students in researching foreign countries and playing the role of foreigners. Students must then realize the need to negotiate meaning as outsiders: "What or who is 'Hide'?" (Hidetoshi Nakata, at the time of this conversation, was a famous Japanese footballer playing for an Italian team.)

Summary of needs

Lingua franca skills	Based on immediate local "needs" in terms of perceived weaknesses
Immediate returns	Basic "lingua franca" conversation skills of global applicability in temporary international communities
Focus on intelligibility	Adaptive intercultural skills for international communication
Supported by concepts and practices from global models	Turn-taking, negotiation of meaning

Conversational analysis is a useful resource for the kind of course that needs to develop an

awareness that conversation is a participant-managed system. Active attention to the obtention and distribution of turns to speak is a key aspect of competence (Sacks and Schegloff, 1974, p. 234). But students in this local context are often extremely reluctant to either self-select or to take the responsibility for nominating the next speaker ("current speaker select next") in a formal classroom context. Engaging in the "here-and-now" process of adjusting to other participants' contributions (Coulthard 1992; Tsui, 1994) and negotiating real understanding (Bygate, 1987, pp.22-41) are necessary skills in terms of interaction in a foreign language, and worthwhile in terms of promoting truly intercultural exchange.

A comparison of rating scales developed for two different contexts will be used here to illustrate how the global notion of competence can lead to the targeting of very local aspects in particular contexts. In the Japanese context, for the general education course in spoken communication skills, the following scales were developed based on competence criteria largely drawn from conversation analysis after analysis of the local context.

Four scales were used covering (1) the ability to keep a conversation going, (2) the content of contributions, (3) lexico-grammatical intelligibility, (4) intelligibility of pronunciation. Only the first two scales will be illustrated here. These cover the interactive ability (1) to participate in keeping a conversation going in terms of turn-taking and negotiation, without which ability in other categories is difficult to demonstrate or assess, and (2) the ability to bring about a genuine exchange of information and express feelings, opinions and attitudes in relation to the information. Each of the four scales is a combination of two other scales. For example, scale 1 below is a combination of scales 1a and 1b.

1. Keeping a Conversation Going: Turn-taking and Negotiation

1. Has (almost) no ability to keep a conversation going. Without constant help, the conversation is always likely to break down.
2. Rarely self selects, but responds minimally to other speakers and sometimes supports their contributions. Negotiates rarely and/or only with a very limited repertoire. Communication sometimes breaks down without support.
3. Responds fully when nominated, supports other speakers and sometimes self selects. Has an adequate repertoire for negotiation. Communication almost never breaks down.
4. Is able to take initiatives, self-selecting and negotiating whenever necessary drawing on a wide repertoire of expressions and techniques. Helps other participants to join in and interrupts politely when appropriate.

1a. Keeping a Conversation Going: Turn-taking

1. Has (almost) no ability to exploit turn-taking to keep a conversation going. Without constant help, the conversation is always likely to break down.
2. Rarely self selects, but responds minimally to other speakers and sometimes supports their contributions. Only rarely nominates other speakers, even when he/she has the floor. Communication sometimes breaks down without support.
3. Responds fully when nominated, supports other speakers and sometimes self selects. Communication almost never breaks down.
4. Is able to take initiatives, self-selecting, holding the floor, interrupting or nominating as the conversation demands. Helps other participants to join in.

1b. Making Communication Effective: Negotiation

1. Has (almost) no ability to negotiate effectively. Without constant help, communication of even basic information is unlikely to be successful.
2. Sometimes adjusts to the contributions of other speakers, but only rarely negotiates and then only with a very limited repertoire limiting the effectiveness of the communication.
3. Is able to negotiate when necessary, adjusting to the contributions of other speakers and demonstrating an adequate repertoire for negotiation. Communication is normally effective and successful.
4. Is able to adjust fully to other speakers' contributions, taking initiatives and negotiating persistently whenever necessary, drawing on a wide repertoire of expressions and techniques. Takes a full share of the responsibility for successful communication.

Teachers in this context have observed that when these skills are lacking, it is difficult to evaluate the level of ability in any other category, such as the content of contributions (or lexico-grammatical competence.)

2. Content of Contributions: Exchanging Information, Ideas, and Feelings

1. Has almost no ability to communicate even basic information such as age, price, etc
2. Can only communicate the most basic information, and cannot really express ideas or feelings on anything but the most basic everyday topics.
3. Can communicate information on a reasonable range of topics and can express opinions, feelings and ideas to a certain degree on a more limited range of topics.
4. Has a sound ability to communicate information, and express feelings, opinions, and ideas on a variety of topics.

2a Content of Contributions: Exchanging Information

1. Has almost no ability to communicate even basic information such as age, price, etc.
2. Can only exchange the most basic information on common everyday topics.
3. Can exchange information adequately on a reasonable range of topics.
4. Has a sound ability to exchange information on a wide variety of topics.

2b. Content of Contributions: Expression of Opinions, Ideas, and Feelings

1. Has (almost) no ability to communicate even basic opinions, ideas or feelings.
2. Can only express opinions, ideas or feelings in a fairly limited manner on basic everyday topics.
3. Can express opinions, feelings and ideas adequately on common topics.
4. Has a sound ability to express feelings, opinions, and ideas on a variety of topics.

Intelligibility

When the course objectives lean more towards the confidence-building skills related to keeping a conversation going, the other two assessed aspects of competence, pronunciation (both individual sounds and intonation), grammar and vocabulary are both assessed in terms of intelligibility in a conversational context and not as ends in themselves.

Local Context 2

When compared to scales used to summarize the competence criteria of advanced research writing skills in a different context (Petroleum Institute, Abu Dhabi), it is difficult from an initial scrutiny to identify common features. (The upper band only is illustrated here for comparison.)

Genre and Task Fulfillment	Organization of the Whole Piece	Content and Argumentation (Within Paragraphs)	Language
<p>Task fully understood. The writer demonstrates full awareness of the genre requirements, clearly defining the task in terms of his/her own research project.</p> <p>Virtually all parts of the task are fully addressed.</p> <p>Virtually all of what is addressed is relevant.</p> <p>Text references in the main body are always used appropriately.</p>	<p>Whole structure is extremely clear, cohesive and coherent.</p> <p>Excellent lay-out.</p> <p>Excellent transitions between paragraphs.</p> <p>Develops very coherently from a clear introduction to a well-supported conclusion.</p>	<p>Information is fully adequate in quantity, relevance and accuracy.</p> <p>Virtually all statements are consistently and qualitatively well supported with evidence and/or sound argumentation.</p> <p>(“Evidence” can include: examples, facts, primary and secondary data, reference to, quotation from, authoritative sources.)</p> <p>The writer demonstrates the ability to express a fully appropriate level of confidence in the evidence using modality.</p>	<p>Style and expression highly developed and engaging, with a consistent level of formality fully appropriate to the task.</p> <p>Sophisticated and appropriate use of a broad repertoire of grammar and vocabulary.</p> <p>Excellent coordination between sentences within paragraphs.</p> <p>Clarity and accuracy are of a high standard. Evidence of thorough, careful proofreading. Correct spelling and punctuation.</p>

At the Petroleum Institute in Abu Dhabi, a university for engineering students, freshman students study two communication courses, the second of which develops communication skills through a semester-long team research project in two stages culminating in an extensive written report and a sophisticated multimedia presentation. Student teams create a variety of documents related to project management, such as memoranda of understanding, source evaluations, progress reports, research proposals and movie-maker presentation storyboards. The following is the upper band ('excellent') of the rating scale for research-based writing in this context.

The following is a task description of the research report drafted at the end of ten-week team project:

Task specification: Final Research Report

The final research report is a team-drafted report. There is no specified length but the report is normally a maximum of 5000 words including appendices and could be considerably shorter. All team members are expected to contribute equally to both the research project and the drafting of the report. The final product should be professionally drafted and presented and carefully proofread before submission. The first draft of this report counts 15% of your final grade and the second draft 10%. This means that by the time the first draft is submitted, a team needs to have become proficient at drafting and proofreading.

The report normally includes a general introduction to the project, a background review section, a description and justification of the methods used to gather data, a results section, a discussion section and a conclusions/recommendations section. A reference list is required for all in-text references. This pattern is a common one for academic reports but other variations might be possible depending on the topic and the research approach. The important point is to lead coherently to a discussion and conclusion section which answers your research question(s) and shows that you have done everything possible to achieve your aims. Competent writers of long documents often use meta-communication to explain the purpose of different sections and to explain their organization to the reader. They also explain their reasoning (demonstrating critical thinking) supported by facts, evidence and good argumentation. They do not make unreasonable claims about their findings, but use modality to express an appropriate level of confidence in them.

*You are required to write an **abstract**, which is not an introduction. In the abstract, you should summarize your whole report including the main findings. The **introduction** typically*

describes the topic area briefly and explains and justifies the choice and relevance of the topic in general terms. You need to convince an academic reader that this document is worth reading, that your topic is relevant and that the research is useful. **The focus and scope** of the project might also be outlined here, and your research question(s) introduced, but you might feel you can do this better after the **background section**. The background section will include a literature review. (The library staff are available to provide assistance here.) You will provide important background information and summarize any relevant previous research on your topic. All sections should be relevant and appropriate use of citation and reporting verbs is very important. This section could be a synthesis of relevant parts of individual source evaluations already written by team members. It should also attempt to outline what research, if any, has already been done in the PI on this topic and might include other kinds of documents such as background interviews with specialists in the field.

The **method section** should explain the approaches you adopted to collect your data and why you chose them. Normally the methods chosen should be justified as the best ways to answer your research questions. A single method is often not enough. This section could also explain what kind of data you need and in what form. (Such as open-ended survey answers expressing detailed opinions.)

In the **results section** you should present all relevant findings (which does not mean all findings). Small charts should be integrated into the text document but should always be summarized in words. Large charts could be presented in an appendix. Normally they will be summarized and presented concisely and clearly here but will not be interpreted or discussed here unless you have a good reason for combining the results section with the discussion section.

The **discussion section** is not just a more detailed repetition of the results section. You do not need to discuss every finding. You could start by briefly summarizing your research aims and questions and then answering your questions **theme by theme** in linked paragraphs based on your findings. Discussing method by method might not always be the best approach as the same theme might require you to synthesize information obtained by different methods. Discussing a theme such as public "awareness" of a problem your research raises might draw on survey and interview data, for example. Choose the most striking and relevant findings to discuss. The discussion and (conclusion) sections tend to be the sections in which repetition from previous sections occurs the most.

*In your **conclusions** you should summarize, emphasizing only the most important findings based on key aspects from your discussion that answer your research questions and possibly suggest what further research might be needed. **Recommendations** could also be listed here, but they also might need justifying and ranking in terms of feasibility, importance, etc.*

The writing process and developing competence

For students performing in their second language, it is sometimes argued that advanced skills of proficiency in report writing can be developed without focusing on linguistic competence. The following samples are used to illustrate the counter argument that general linguistic competence is an important factor in the perception of report writing proficiency. (This is not to exclude the possibility that first language users also need to be trained in linguistic competence.) Sample 1a (the submitted version) is presented as a relatively competent text in terms of linguistic competence. In the institutional context, it ranks as a competent text for freshman-level students.

Sample 1a – A competent text

“Finally, as an answer to the research question, we can say that the occupants in building 2 *might be at risk* of SBS because of poor ventilation, the locations of the vents (in the northern part of the building) and the accumulation of dust on the vents and in the ducts. On the other hand, building 3 *might not be* at the same level of risk *like* building 2, because of the *less* dust and dirt accumulation on the vents in building 3 and the appropriate locations of the vents. As for humidity, the records say it varies between 40-55%, which *may not trouble* the healthiness of *both* buildings in terms of SBS, according to [3].”

Sample 1a had been through a full team proofreading process. While three relatively minor linguistic errors interfere with the intelligibility of the text to a limited extent (blue script and italics), the overall perception of linguistic competence is high for freshman level students and the text also demonstrates an awareness of the need for appropriate levels of modality (interpersonal systemic function) in relation to the evidence presented in the report (red script and italics). That is not to say that the advanced level students who wrote it do not need to work on linguistic competence more to refine their content message. Teaching in this context involves using extracts from students’ first drafts in whole-class editing sessions. Sample 1b is an ‘improved’ text after one such editing session.

Sample 1b (Improved)

“Finally, as an answer to the research question, it can be argued that there might be some degree of risk of SBS for the occupants in building 2 because of poor ventilation, the locations of the vents (in the northern part of the building) and the accumulation of dust on the vents and in the ducts. On the other hand, building 3 might not be at the same level of risk as building 2, because of the lower dust and dirt accumulation on the vents in building 3 and the appropriate locations of the vents. As for humidity, the records say it varies between 40-55%, which is unlikely to affect the healthiness of either building in terms of SBS, according to [3].”

Even in texts such as sample 1, it is argued that improved *linguistic* competence, affects the perception of the competence of the content of the message. This suggests that language and content are difficult to separate. The function of modality supports this point theoretically, as the degree of confidence expressed in the evidence generated by the research project relates to the content of the message, but depends on appropriate and subtle linguistic choices.

Sample 2a is an example of a less competent text written by students in the same freshman class. A comparison of sample 1 and sample 2 illustrates the difficulty caused by a lower level of linguistic competence. This appears to make it more difficult to evaluate the quality of the research content in sample 2.

Sample 2a – A less competent text

The second type of waste is plastic waste. Plastic waste is mainly made from organic compounds from oil. The huge amounts of plastic waste are taken to a factory in Musafah to be managed. **Additionally, this helps the environment even more, because it dose not only get red of plastic waste. Furthermore, the factory also transforms the plastic waste into fertilizers. These fertilizers help the plants to absorb the nutrients from soil in which they provide. This process is working allover the PI and most of the other areas containing plants grown by man. This helps to prevent the harm of leaving the plastic waste to react and produce harmful products like gases as [1] concluded. The same process is done also to the third type of waste which is paper waste.

Having heard the students present their findings orally, and even from the evidence of the written texts alone, it can be argued that the actual research content in sample 2 is as competent as in sample 1. The main difference between them is linguistic competence, which

affects the texts clarity and its coherence. For example, sample 2a has a serious problem with the textual function in the passage:

Additionally, this helps the environment even more, because it dose not only get rid of plastic waste. Furthermore, the factory also transforms the plastic waste into fertilizers.

The message can be clarified as follows:

This helps the environment even more, because *the factory* not only disposes of plastic waste. *It* also transforms the plastic waste into fertilizers.

The linguistically ‘improved’ version of sample 2 (in sample 2b below) improves the perception of the research content. Most of the ‘improvements’ in sample 2 are only linguistic in nature, however.

Sample 2b – A linguistically improved version of sample 2

The second type of waste is plastic waste. Plastic waste is mainly composed of organic compounds of oil. Huge amounts of plastic waste are taken to a factory in Musafah to be managed. This helps the environment even more, because the factory not only disposes of plastic waste. It also transforms the plastic waste into fertilizer. These fertilizers help plants to absorb nutrients from the soil in which they grow. This process is in operation all over the PI and most of the other areas containing plants. This helps to prevent the harmful effects of leaving the plastic waste to react with other substances and produce harmful products like gases as [1] concluded. A similar process is used also for the third type of waste which is paper waste.

The samples used above illustrate the importance of linguistic competence in relation to research content in the PI context. They are representative examples of a very common phenomenon in that context. As these samples are taken from team-written texts that have been through a team proof-reading process, it is clear that attention to linguistic content in relation to research/scientific content is a very important issue. This is demonstrably true when the students are studying a subject like engineering in their second language in their own country. It is also true for even the most competent students from a linguistic point of view and the perception that native or native-like language ability would eradicate this problem is also naïve given the important symbiotic relationship that can be established between language and content.

There are no mistakes in the following example. While this is a competently written text,

this extract supports the finding that modal auxiliaries tend to be overused even by competent students and that other forms could be substituted – “might be” could be replaced by “appears to be”, for example. The students’ own texts can be used to develop the following kind of exercise:

Use the following table to edit the paragraph below, using a broader range of modal expressions than the authors. Do not use any modal verbs. Make any other improvements you feel are necessary.

Ways of expressing modality – (based on Fowler, 1986, p.132)

Ways of expressing modality	Example and comment
Categorical statements (no “modal” language)	The sum of the angles of a triangle <i>is</i> 180°. (This does not permit doubt even to a specialist.)
Modal auxiliary verbs: may, might, should, etc.	This might mean that... (Labelled as ‘subjective’ by some specialists.)
Modal adjectives, adverbs or sentence adverbs e.g. ‘probable’, ‘probably’, ‘in all probability’ ‘possible’, ‘certain’, ‘certainly’, ‘likely’.	While it is possible that these results ... In all probability, these survey results can be relied upon as they are confirmed by previous research results in this field. (Labelled as more objective by some specialists)
Evaluative adjectives and adverbs: e.g. ‘fortunately’, ‘regrettably’, ‘inevitably’	Regrettably, the conclusions are not supported by irrefutable evidence. (Often represent value judgements)
Reporting phrases Eg. ‘claim’, ‘is reported to have said’, ‘according to ...’, ‘state’, ‘argue’, ‘suggest’, ‘imply’, ‘interpret this to mean that’ ...	The present author interprets this result to mean that... The survey results (appear to) suggest that...’ (Can be used to distance oneself from another researcher’s statement or idea, not just to report.)
Verbs of knowledge, prediction, evaluation e.g. ‘seem’, ‘guess’, ‘believe’, ‘appear’, ‘predict’, ‘approve’	It seems likely that these results were not produced by chance. These initial results appear to suggest that ... (Often seen as more objective than ‘may’ or ‘might’)
Generic statements: It is commonly stated that... It cannot be denied that... It is true that... It is clear that...	It is commonly stated that plastic waste ... (Often used to express the author’s own position or to prepare for a counter argument.)

"Finally, as an answer to the research question, we can say that the occupants in building 2 *might be at risk* of SBS [sick building syndrome] because of poor ventilation, the locations of the vents (in the northern part of the building) and the accumulation of dust on the vents and in the ducts. On the other hand, building 3 *might not be* at the same level of risk as building 2, because of the lower dust and dirt accumulation on the vents in building 3 and the appropriate locations of the vents. As for humidity, the records say it varies between 40-55%, which *may not trouble* the healthiness of either buildings in terms of SBS, according to [3]."

Below is a possible solution using alternative modal forms:

Finally, as an answer to the research question, [1] it can be argued that there is some degree of risk of SBS for the occupants in building 2 because of poor ventilation, the locations of the vents (in the northern part of the building) and the accumulation of dust on the vents and in the ducts. On the other hand, building 3 does not appear to be at the same level of risk as building 2, because of the lower dust and dirt accumulation on the vents in building 3 and the appropriate locations of the vents. As for humidity, the records say it varies between 40-55%, which is unlikely to affect the healthiness of either building in terms of SBS, according to [3].

In this context, competence is developed in a local community using a combination of global models (systemic linguistics for 'modality' for example) and local texts. Higher levels of competence are first evaluated in relation to what the most competent students are able to produce. The teaching then focuses on taking this to a higher level.

Conclusions

The aspects of competence taught in just two very different local contexts have been contrasted for a specific purpose. They indicate that at first sight such different competences are not part of the same conceptual framework. However, a global definition of competence leads to a different conclusion. The same core aspects of bilingual (or diglossic), linguistic, communicative, pragmatic and intercultural competences are present but in different forms and at different levels.

The main general conclusions of this study are as follows:

1. Competence is linked to the notion of 'community'. In any local context, the competence needs of students can be related to the different communities with and within which they will need to communicate. In the first context, it was difficult to identify speech communities or discourse communities within which students would need to interact. For the general English courses in this specific context, it is proposed that basic lingua franca skills be addressed in relation to turn-taking and the negotiation of meaning to facilitate international communication. For this context, where English is taught as an international foreign language, task-based units were designed to develop competence beyond basic lingua franca skills (See Nunn, 2006 for a full description of the design of task-based units.) Increasingly universities

around the globe are teaching content-based course in English and a high level of competence is required. In the PI context outlined briefly above, it can be concluded that all the various kinds of community discussed in this paper (speech community, discourse community, bilingual community, local community and international community) are potentially relevant. This has broad implications for the approach to language-related education and justifies a project-based curriculum that can act as a broad framework for the very wide variety of needs identified for PI students.

2. Basic criteria of adaptation (adapted from theoretical fields such as conversational analysis or pragmatics) to differential background knowledge can be applied to the teaching and assessment of both general and academic communication. They are also useful in providing criteria for developing critical thinking skills in relation to academic reading and writing.

3. A knowledge of genre emphasizing the purpose of different kinds of communication in context is useful as an important aspect of competence. Intercultural contexts can be seen as a genre in themselves. It is particularly important to develop a full awareness of the nature of genre rather than just an ability to reproduce genres in a formulaic way. Emphasizing the purpose of a particular assignment using meta-communication is one way of addressing this explicitly. Students need to develop the competence to be able to apply their experience and knowledge of different genres (and of the idea of genre in general) to new unpredictable genres in the future. ‘Competence’ is a resource that can be re-applied to future performances in different communities. Samples of competent writing are a useful starting point for developing genre awareness but imitating models is a poor substitute for developing the ability to improve on models and communicate creatively and originally within genres.

4. Systemic knowledge of language and communication is holistic and can never be possessed totally by any individual. Hence the importance of teamwork. Competent individuals can compensate for weakness in one area with strength in another. Assessment needs to provide opportunities for individuals to demonstrate the ability to compensate.

5. Certain aspects of holistic systemic competence such as modality and transitivity (which are themselves holistic and complex aspects of competence) can usefully be emphasized in analyzing and teaching academic communication. Analysis from research can be applied to communication courses. The ability to express appropriate levels of confidence in evidence and argumentation is an important component of academic knowledge creation and hence of academic literacy. While the theory is complex, it is possible to provide understandable summaries of the basic concepts that are accessible to students. (See Nunn in Brandt, 2008 forthcoming, in which a 3000-word summary of the systemic notion of modality based on the

most complex and detailed (12,000-word) chapter of this report, chapter five, has been drafted.) Students have successfully used their understanding of epistemic modality to improve their academic communication competence, although words like ‘epistemic’ are never taught.

In any local context (here the PI in Abu Dhabi), achieving an appropriate balance between the global and the local is at the heart of any applicable characterization of EIL competence. Achieving a measure of acceptance both within local communities, and between local communities across international boundaries, remains the major challenge of this kind of research.

Competence and community - A summary

Training for EIL competence involves more than just skills and attitudes although these are important aspects. EIL competence implies an ability (not just a readiness) to interact in unpredictable multicultural contexts and the ability to adapt to a variety of communities and types of community. Some of these will be temporary multi-cultural communities, other will be monolingual and mono-cultural speech communities. Standards of competence are related to the composition of the membership of the community and are not definable in terms of ‘native’, or educated ‘native’ as members may not be native. In some mono-cultural speech communities that EIL students will need to participate in, ‘native’ or ‘near-native’ norms will still be important. Other communities may have no ‘native’ members and natives will not necessarily possess the competence to join. Relationships are likely to become increasingly symbiotic between community types and developing even partial international competence for communication within and between different kinds of community requires experience, practice and training.

Five Types of Communities

International Communities	In the singular, the ‘international community’ represents a notion of a ‘community of communities’. However, all communities are ‘international’ to varying degrees and in different ways.
Speech Communities	Monolingual, diffuse or focused, often idealized. Permits further diversity in sub-communities.
Bilingual, Di-glossic Communities	Most users of EIL belong to bilingual communities with strong maintenance of the first language. EIL is learnt for monolingual, but multi-glossic, multi-cultural use.
Discourse Communities	Specialized professional or academic communities with membership based only on competence. They are potentially multinational with no ‘borders’.
Local Communities	Local communities in which EIL is used absorb, reject, incorporate or resist outside influence. They are international, and international use of English is always ‘local’.

Types of Competence

Five important types of competence have been identified in these two papers. It can be concluded that an international view of communicative competence is not a reduced competence. It is a broader concept than communicative competence, although both concepts include linguistic competence as an essential component. The five aspects of competence below operate simultaneously whenever language is used.

Five Aspects of International Communicative Competence

Multiglossic	Bi- multi-lingual, di-multi-glossic. Interlocutors need to be sensitive to different identities and to be skilled in communicating their own identity intelligibly.
Strategic	In EIL communication, strategies, such as avoidance strategies, are not secondary. They are essential two-way components of intercultural communication.
Linguistic	In individuals and local communities linguistic competence in at least one variety of English is needed.
Pragmatic/Discourse	The ability to adjust language to context and to resolve differences of background knowledge is essential and requires training.
Intercultural	Intercultural competence for EIL is not based on the knowledge of one other culture for successful communication between just two cultures. It means the ability to adjust to unpredictable multicultural situations.

Five Important Characteristics of International Communicative Competence

In addition to the above, certain general characteristics of EIL competence have been identified.

Five Characteristics of ICC

Global	Holistic, interlocking, inclusive.
Partial	No individuals or local communities can possess holistic competence totally.
Compensatory	Strengths compensate for weaknesses.
Adaptive	Competence depends on adaptive ability. Strategic skills of adaptation are not optional. A locally owned variety must always be adapted for international use. Notions such as a tolerance, openmindedness, broadmindedness are all related to a notion of competence that is based on adaptive ability, not origin.
Creative	Second language users have the right and need to use English creatively.

The global holistic nature of EIL competence has important consequences for education and for issues such as geo-political ownership of English. It is a simple undeniable fact that no one culture and no individual within a culture can demonstrate more than a partial knowledge. This means that all EIL users will need to use their strengths to compensate for inevitable limitations. EIL Competence is necessarily an inclusive notion, not just for altruistic reasons,

but by its very nature. Compensation for the problems created by partial knowledge is therefore an important skill that all EIL users need.

Final definitions

This discussion started by explaining why a paper on a broad and complex concept could not start with definitions. It was further suggested that ‘definitions’ are more appropriate in the form of broad characterizations. In a sense this whole paper has been defining competence for EIL, a kind of International Communicative Competence. The following definitions have evolved through discussion and research. They are intended as broad characterizations of global and local competences. The global definition is intended to be applicable across contexts and the local definition, is more specifically re-defined for the PI context discussed as just one example in this paper.

Global definition of competence

Global definition of ICC

While International Communicative Competence is too broad to define briefly, the following initial approximation might stimulate further debate.

Competence in communication is a **holistic, global and international** concept encompassing various **interlocking components** of usable **knowledge** and the **skills** and **abilities** needed to put these into practice within a variety of **communities** and **types of community**. The main components are **pragmatic, discourse, strategic, intercultural, interpersonal and linguistic**. Competence includes **skills** in areas related to both **written** and **spoken** language and certain **adaptive skills** such as the ability to **negotiate meaning** with people of different backgrounds. **Creativity** is also a characteristic of competence. The sum of these components amounts to something very large and only certain aspects of it will be called upon in any one **context**.

Individual competence is always **partial** and subject to compensation and development both for local and global use. Total competence is **beyond the range of any individual**, or indeed of any **single community**, but competent users and members of communities will **compensate** for weakness in one area with skill or knowledge in another. In an international sense, an ability to transfer competence acquired in one context, **adapting** it to a large variety of cultural contexts across discourse and speech **communities** is also implied together with the ability to use **at least one variety of English** in a manner which is **intelligible** to users of other varieties and which can be adjusted to the needs of **intercultural** communication. Users

in different contexts may be at very different levels of competence and have very different needs. Certain needs are **global** and others **local**.

The implication of the above is that competence is **owned only by its users** and, where it is assessed, it should be, at least partially, assessed within the communities in which it is to be used. No one global standard will fit all users and communities but all competent users will have enough in common to be able to negotiate norms and interim norms in order to communicate successfully within and between particular communities and sub-communities.

Local PI definition

From this broad definition for international use, certain aspects can be expressed more specifically for the PI context.

Competence in communication in the local PI context involves various **interlocking components** of usable **knowledge** and the **skills** and **abilities** needed to put these into practice both within the local community and in preparation for communication with a variety of **communities** and **types of community**. The main components are **pragmatic, discourse, strategic, intercultural, interpersonal and linguistic**.

Developing competence involves developing transferable **skills** and **creativity** in areas related to both **written** and **spoken** genres. Competence implies the ability to handle general English to a high level of competence and to apply this within scientific and engineering discourse communities. Knowledge of basic systemic competences such as the ability to use appropriate modality is a transferable aspect of competence.

Total competence is **beyond the range of any individual student**, or indeed of any group of students within a **single community**, but competent students are able to demonstrate the ability to **compensate** for weakness in one area with skill or knowledge in another. Competent local students will have developed the ability to use **at least one variety of English** to a high level of competence and in a manner which is **intelligible** to users of other varieties. Individual competence is always **partial** and subject to compensation and development both for local and global use.

Competence in communication in the PI is related to global models of competence and does not exist in isolation. It is also **owned by its users** and can be expressed in its own terms in relation to competent performance within the institution. When it is assessed, it should be, at least partially, assessed within the community in which it is to be most immediately used. To be globally acceptable, competence expressed in local terms must also be related to competence in other comparable international contexts. For local competence to be

meaningful in any global sense beyond the local community, achieving the best possible balance between global and local criteria is essential.

International Communicative Competence is linked to ownership, as all competent users have a stake-hold in the language. No community has a controlling share per se, unless politics intervene to promote one variety of English. ICC embodies an ability to adapt to different cultures, all of which represent competence differently. Attitude is also an important aspect of EIL. Powerful political groups (whether ‘native’ or ‘non-native’) may not feel the need to adapt, but the global evolution of English is likely to make such an attitude counterproductive in the long term for those who adopt it and inflexible uncooperative users may ultimately find themselves excluded from membership of important communities because they do not have the competence to participate in them. Ultimately, ICC is a value-driven concept: an open- and broad-minded, tolerant approach is intimately related to the kind of adaptation that is required to put it to use.

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Shifts in NNESTs' Professional Identity: An Impact of Language and Culture Immersion

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Abstract

There have been studies on topics related to teacher identity (Beijaard et al., 2004; Bauer & McAdams, 2004; Varghese et al., 2005), however, these researchers do not examine the shift in professional identity of Non-Native English Speaking Teachers (NNESTs). Thus, this research-based paper is aimed at filling this gap. This study, which is my M.Ed. thesis at Monash University, explores the shift in professional identity of Indonesian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) educators currently studying at Monash University, particularly the influence of English language and cultural immersion on how these people perceive themselves prior to returning to Indonesia. Specifically, this study examines the identity formation of NNESTs; what professional identities Indonesian EFL educators bring with them, the identity changes during the period of their studies at Monash University; whether there is a professional identity shift happening for these people within the time range of arriving in, staying in and leaving Australia, and its influences on identity transformation.

Keywords: NNEST, identity, professional identity, immersion

1. Introduction

In the Indonesian Formal Education System, English classes are conducted as **foreign** language programs. Following the identification of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), English educators in Indonesia are mainly categorised as 'native speaker' or NEST and 'local' or NNEST. Labels are put on each category of educators, resulting in two different professional identities for the two categories. In Indonesia, appreciation given to the NNEST is somewhat lower than that given to NEST, as can be seen from various parameters such as salary and acknowledgement of expertise.

The Indonesian EFL educator context is an example of how society shapes professional identity. The professional identity of the Indonesian NNEST (addressed in this research) is problematic. Intrinsically, NNESTs often encounter changes that are contradictory to their individual as well as cultural desires. In the process of professional identity formation,

NNESTs in Indonesia have to continuously integrate their existence with their historical and social tradition as a part of society. Their immersion in English, in terms of the language as well as Western culture, has to be negotiated with their cultural and societal backgrounds as Indonesians.

It is the professional identity of Indonesian EFL educators that is the focus of this study. This is a case study conducted with them on their immersion in the language and culture while undertaking the Masters of Education TESOL International at Monash University, Australia within the time frame of arrival, stay and departure.

2. Literature review

This paper draws heavily on two theories of identity, by Dan P. McAdams and Stuart Hall that provide a relative balance between the personal and social aspects of identity. This was expected to provide a logical framework for an explanation of the case studies that I wanted to investigate – the professional identity of Indonesian EFL educators in relation to language and culture immersion. A ‘life story model’ by Bauer and McAdams (2004, p. 583) was employed, with reference to three events – prior to coming to Australia, staying in Australia and upon returning to Indonesia.

Stuart Hall elaborates a comprehensive understanding of the connection between language, identity and cultural difference and argues that they are closely connected, thus cannot be separated from each other. In other words, they are somehow interrelated, making them impossible to discuss as individual units. This is exactly how Hall tries to cover those concepts – by exploring them as a unity.

The contexts of culture and society play significant roles in shaping personal and professional identity. Summarising diverse ideas elaborated by various experts, the definition of professional identity adopted is *an ever changing being and becoming of an individual considering his/her psychosociohistorical aspects of personal, professional and societal lives related to his/her profession*.

The adoption of various concepts for similar substances of ‘self’ and ‘identity’ makes research in the field of teacher professional identity troublesome. Sometimes the term ‘professional identity’ is not even defined in such research; just the characteristics of the identity itself are defined. According to Beijaard, Meijer, and Verloop (2004, p. 125), either various definitions have been used or no definition of professional identity exists at all. Further, several experts suggest various definitions: ‘teachers’ concepts or images of self’, ‘teachers’ roles and conceptions and expectations of other people’, ‘accepted images in society about what a teacher should know and do’, and ‘what teachers themselves find

important in their professional work' (Beijaard et al., 2004, p. 108).

Varghese et al (2005, pp. 21-44) looked at how language teacher identity is related to a theory by reviewing studies on three perspectives. The three reviewed studies indicated 'identity as multiple, shifting, and in conflict; identity as crucially related to social, cultural, and political contexts; and identity being constructed, maintained, and negotiated primarily through discourse'.

In whatever ways the term is defined, I would say that professional identity is relational rather than stable. There is a tension in identity formation between the influences of the individual's own agency and the societal structure. According to Cauldron and Smith (1999 in Beijaard et al., 2004, p. 113) the term agency accommodates the 'personal dimension in teaching', whereas the term structure covers what is 'socially given'. Thus, a teacher's professional identity depends on the context, setting and situation in which he/she is involved. Adopting this understanding of professional identity, a 'professional' teacher will exhibit a good quality of teacher's relation to others, his/her responsibilities, acts and knowledge (Beijaard et al., 2004, p. 125).

Discussion of identity is unavoidably related to the notion of essence of 'self'. In understanding the ongoing configuration of the collective as well as individual 'self', historical reconstruction involving ideology plays a significant role. As McAdams has suggested, self investigation is to be carried out 'in retrospect and in prospect' (McAdams, 1985, p. 35). Moreover, identity is not merely ideology, rather ideology leads into identity (McAdams, 1985, p. 36).

As mentioned above, the concept of 'self' cannot exist by itself, rather it has to be socially developed. This is in line with Mead (Mead, 1934 in Beijaard et al., 2004, p. 107), who has asserted that 'self' can only occur in 'a social setting'. The same case also applies to the existence of identity, including professional identity. Personal as well as social aspects play important roles in the manifestation of professional identity (Beijaard et al., 2004, p. 113).

In terms of Indonesians in general, I strongly believe that other people mostly drive actions in close relationships, such as parents, siblings, and spouses. This is in line with the 'conjoint model' proposed by Markus and Kitayama (2003, p. 7), which states that 'good actions' are determined in relationship with an 'outside-in' flow of ideas reflecting interdependence and responsiveness in relation to other people. The concept of collectivism is strongly held in this context, with an emphasis on family and societal over individual opinions. As suggested by Markus and Kitayama (2003, p. 10), 'interdependent selves' are experienced with 'social relations' as the most important aspect.

In Indonesian ideology, the human being is believed to be an individual as well as a social creature. Thus, a person is expected to act as individual with his/her own rights, but at the same time to prioritise the needs and demands of society. In other words, the idea of agency in the Indonesian context relies heavily on the interaction one carries out with other people. This is in line with the idea of the ‘conjoint model’, which states that ‘agency can and does manifest itself in and through networks of interactions’ (Markus & Kitayama, 2003, p. 17). This leads on to a major question of what NNESTs in Indonesia base their actions on. Historically, it is clear that these educators are involved in a ‘conjoint model’. The fact that they are then immersed in a ‘disjoint model’ in Australian society and are furthermore exposed to globalisation has thrown up the so far unanswered question of which identity or identities they would adopt and how they would cope with this identity or these identities in their lives. After all, according to Markus, Mullally, and Kitayama (1997, p. 15), people are ‘culture-specific’ and how they adjust to their environment is both ‘individual and cultural’ at the same time.

As relationships with other people are strong determinants of how identity is formed, language and culture are closely interrelated with identity. This is supported by some experts who have stated that a study of a group’s interaction can also be understood as a study of the ways in which the group keeps its collective identity (Richards, 2006, p. 47) and that identity can be inferred as a relational rather than absolute phenomenon (Beijaard et al., 2004, p. 108). Since culture is produced and reproduced over time, then it is not something that is constant. Culture itself is recognized as a particular way of how people live as individuals, communities, nations or social groups involving concepts, ideas, emotions and feelings. Due to the varieties of these aspects, culture is not something homogenous in nature. In fact, it also deals with the past, present and future. Consequently, one cannot just put aside one culture and create a new one.

I can then argue that immersion in culture apparently influences the psychological motivation of an individual, that later results in the cultural adaptation or even cultural transformation. The transformation of culture practiced by an individual indeed depends on the framework of the action construction adopted, which usually is influenced by his/her cultural background. From the perspective of cultural psychology, ‘cultural practices and meanings structure psychological processes, which in turn generate, perpetuate, and transform these cultural practices and meanings’ (Markus & Kitayama, 2003, p. 6).

Indeed, in my opinion, language itself is a social and cultural practice, which is put into discourses. Covering beliefs and values, languages play a very significant role in identity and culture. A classificatory system places languages as representatives of relational identities, as

shown in various social roles and the status reflected by languages used.

Being a representative of a certain culture with a certain language is not absolute or fixed. Closely related to culture, the past-present-future time frame and the ever-changing characteristics play important roles in the development of professional identity. Professional identity is in fact changing, developing and transforming over time.

A study by Bauer and McAdams (2004, pp. 573-602) tried to elaborate the relationship between life transition and personality development. The study inferred that people who emphasise acquiring new knowledge tend to be more mature in terms of social-cognitive levels, whereas those who emphasise concerns that are intrinsically meaningful have higher well-being levels. Another prominent result is that those who prioritise learning about relationships are in fact happier.

In the context of human beings as social creatures, Richards argued that identity is ‘an interactionally constructed representation that serves our social needs’ (Richards, 2006, p. 37), which are personal, institutional and social (2006, p. 201). The formation of an identity, then, is not a simple and purely concrete process. Identity is developed through a non-linear process, and is formed and reformed based on interactions within and across individuals.

Based on my perception of identity formation and supported by experts’ ideas, I would argue that identity formation depends on situation, context, society, self and culture. In other words, negotiations are undoubtedly happening during the whole process of identity formation, including professional identity. In terms of research on self and identity, Gecas and Burke (1995, p. 42) have provided four approaches: ‘situational, social structural, biographical-historical, and intrapersonal’. In his book, Erikson asserted (1973, p. 27) that ‘a sense of identity means a sense of being at one with oneself as one grows and develops; and it means, at the same time, a sense of affinity with a community’s sense of being at one with its future as well as its history’. This idea is strongly supported by the late modern approach, with an additional note of a reminder of ‘how much change has taken place and the reasons for those changes’. Considering these approaches, a discussion on how culture relates to identity and how language influences identity formation is very relevant for this study, as this study deals with Indonesian EFL educators whose professional identity is investigated as related to language and culture immersion.

My study explores the professional identity of Indonesian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) educators currently studying at Monash University, particularly the influence of English language and cultural immersion on how these people perceive themselves prior to returning to Indonesia. The study examines the identity formation of the NNEST, what professional identities Indonesian EFL educators bring with them, the identity changes during

the period of their studies at Monash University and whether there is a professional identity shift happening in these people within the time range of arriving in, staying in and leaving Australia.

Identity, even as a general concept, is such a new topic in the Indonesian context. This has caused difficulties in finding support or ideas of identity in the perspective of Indonesian experts. It is the intention of this study to reveal a new strain of research in Indonesia – professional identity, especially in educational contexts. As the question of identity in an Indonesian educator context is highly salient, I am using available theories that in a sense belong to the Western perspective to critically analyse the professional identity of the Indonesian participants. The main aim is to fill in the missing understanding of how professional identity is formed and transformed that has not been covered by the available Western theories.

There have been studies on topics related to teacher identity (Bauer & McAdams, 2004; Beijaard et al., 2004; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005), but none of these researchers have investigated the shift in professional identity of the Non-Native English Speaking Teacher (NNEST). The research by Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop (2004, pp. 107-128) was conducted as a response to previous studies. In their study, it is suggested that there has never been a homogenous definition of professional identity. Furthermore, they asserted that four essential features of teachers' professional identity could be used as a general framework for follow up research.

Indeed, professional identity is potentially ever changing, is never fixed, as it keeps on developing and growing. Putting this claim in another way, some experts support this idea by stating that professional identity is a complex and dynamic equilibrium (Volkmann & Anderson, 1998 in Beijaard et al., 2004, p. 113), which by nature is multifaceted (Cooper & Olson, 1996 in Beijaard et al., 2004, p. 113). According to Mishler (1999, p. 8), sub-identities are possibly included in a professional identity, either those in line or contradictory to each other. He elaborates his idea by using the metaphor of 'our selves as a chorus of voices, not just the tenor or sopranos list'.

A two way configuration of 'self-in-the-adult-world' identity was proposed, suggesting that identity synchronically integrates various potentially conflicting roles and relationships and diachronically integrates time (McAdams, 2001, p. 102). McAdams also suggests that identity refers to the understanding of how the 'self' is configured, not merely similar to the concept of 'self' (2001, p. 102). Thus, I look upon McAdams' idea of identity frequently, especially professional identity, in carrying out this study.

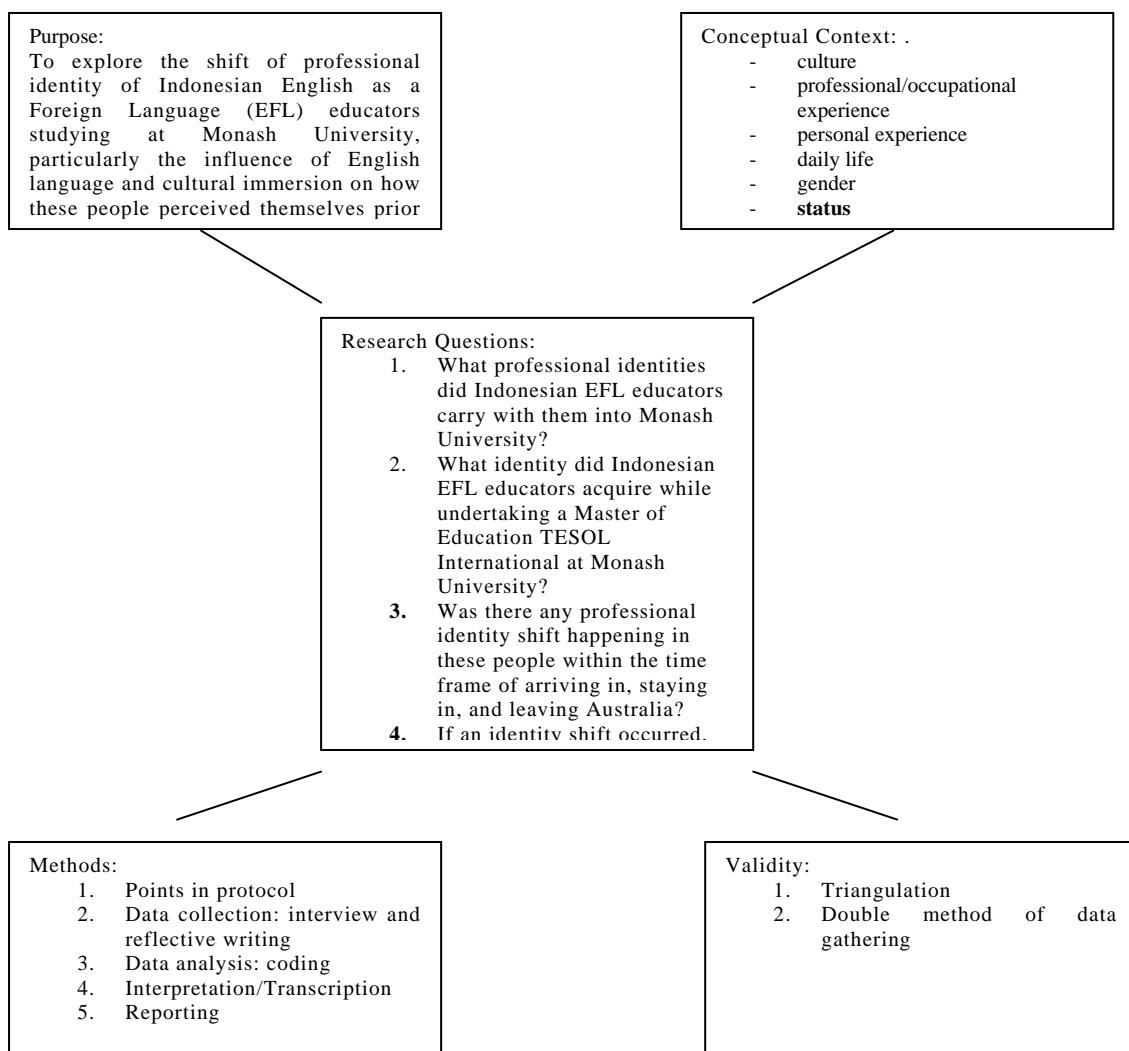
In his life story model of identity, McAdams has argued that identity in the form of a

story includes setting, scenes, character, plot and theme (McAdams 1985, 1993, and 1996 in McAdams, 2001, p. 101). More elaboration was given in six episodes proposed by Bauer and McAdams: ‘decision’, ‘turning point’, ‘conflict event’, ‘encounter with another person’, ‘projected future’ and ‘reflection’. Implementing this theory, Bauer and McAdams (2004, p. 583) conducted a study in which the participants are asked to think about the topic, then choose a specific time of event and finally write about the event covering who, what, where, when and how the occasion actually drove the participants to think and feel. McAdams’ life story model is applicable in my investigation on Indonesian EFL professional identity, through reference to three specific times of events – prior to coming to Australia, staying in Australia and upon returning to Indonesia.

3. Method

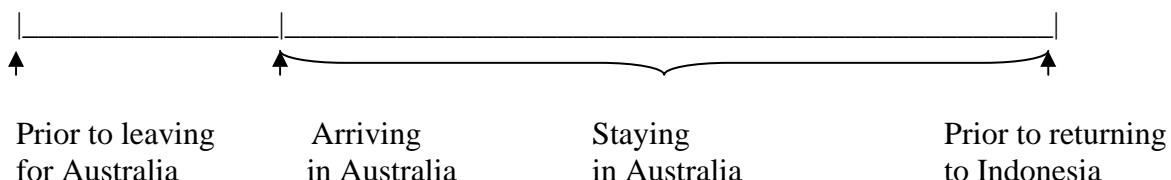
3.1. Research design

This study is a qualitative study. A research design and its modification within the process of research needed to be developed to maintain harmonious relationships among aspects of this research. Adapting from Maxwell (1994, pp. 72-73), Hitchcock and Hughes (1995, p. 79), and Sarantakos (1998, pp. 193-195) my research design expressed as a mind-map was as follows:



The time framework and matrix of participant representation were also developed in carrying out this research. The two instruments below are meant to facilitate the conduct of this study.

Time frame of study



Matrix of participants

Marital Status	Gender	
	Male, married	Female, married
	Male, single	Female, single

3.2. Participants

As required by the regulations, prior to recruitment of participants, the study proposal was presented before the Ethics Committee to get an approval. It was after the approval was granted that the recruitment process was begun. The participants involved in my research included Indonesian EFL lecturers and teachers, both male and female, who were taking Master of Education (TESOL International) at Monash University. This specific category of participants was recruited to fulfil the aim of this research – an analysis of the professional identity shifts in the case of the Indonesian EFL educator.

The participants comprised male-married, male-single, female-married and female-single Indonesian EFL educators from rural, semi-urban and urban areas. Age was not one of the considerations in recruitment, because all of the participants were Australian government scholarship awardees, for which one of the requirements was to be in productive and prospective age or no more than 42 years.

Participants received information on the reason, focus and potential use of the research. Participation within the study was entirely voluntary. Participants were also assured of confidentiality and that no harm was involved in the process. These were put in written informed consents, which were signed by those willing to participate. Thus, participants knew exactly what they were involved in and fully understood the possible risks of the study. What is meant by possible risks here are emotional risks that might be caused, considering that professional identity included not only professional but also personal aspects that are potentially sensitive to the participants.

3.3. Setting

The method of data collection was in-depth interview, observation and individual reflection through writing. In-depth interview was conducted in English, as the participants were fluent English speakers. The written individual reflection, however, was offered with two alternatives for the participants – writing in English or in Bahasa Indonesia. By doing so, the participants were expected to have more freedom and ease in expressing their thoughts and self-perceptions, as some probably felt that they could more easily and explicitly express themselves in either one of the languages. This consideration was closely related to the Indonesian lifestyle and pattern, which were strongly embedded in the participants' real life. The interview was audiotaped, so that there was no misunderstanding in the follow up process of transcribing. Transcription of the interview and reflective writing was then coded, interpreted and reported as part of the research results.

4. Results and implications

4.1. Prior to coming to Australia

The findings have exhibited that the Indonesian EFL educators give more importance to the role of siblings, spouses and other family members in the decision making process than their own role. This shows exactly how ‘identity is in constant production and exists at the point of intersection between the individual and other determining structures and institutions (Davis, 2004, p. 162). Explicit utterances of the participants on this matter were exhibited, among which by pretending to ask for advice from a dominant family member even though ‘sometimes just pretended to ask for his ideas’.

The findings also revealed that Western culture influences the participants, along with their innate Eastern culture. The assertion of Gendhis, for example, who received ‘some Islamic teaching’ as well as ‘Western way of thinking’, is in line with McAdam’s suggestion that identity synchronically integrates various potentially conflicting roles and relationships (McAdams, 2001, p. 102).

The findings also clearly demonstrated that the participants had their own ways of identifying the profession as educators, which is similar to Hall’s point of view that to be something means to be ‘not something else’ (Hall, 1997b, p. 9). One of the participants, for example, explicitly stated, ‘I am not a teacher, but I am a teacher trainer’ and further suggested, ‘I feel it is higher than being a teacher’.

Another point that I would like to make is that in the data gathered, all participants stated how they were welcome and respected in the society. This respect had brought consequences for the participants, such as being considered as a source of knowledge. Self-awareness and anticipation on such an occurrence took place in all participants as a part of their professional identity formation and reformation, which according to Beijaard et.al. includes perceptions of themselves as an occupational group (Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004, p. 118). Some statements exhibiting this fact were being ‘the one to ask about any problems happened in the community’ and having to be ‘an example for the society’.

As also suggested by Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop, both personal and social aspects are important in the realisation of professional identity (Beijaard et al., 2004, p. 113), the data collected showed that reasons for furthering studies abroad could be categorised as intrinsic or personal and extrinsic or social factors. The intrinsic factors mentioned by the participants, among others, were ‘good professional development’ and the belief that ‘learning should not stop’. Societal extrinsic factors suggested were various, among which were considerations that universities abroad were ‘better than domestic’ and that institutional ‘policy’ required professional development for the participants as educators.

Furthermore, the findings proved that language and belief were among the reasons for the participants in choosing a place to study. As a part of professional identity formation, language and belief play a dominant role in identity and culture, because ‘language is central to meaning and culture and has always been regarded as the key repository of cultural values and meanings’ (Hall, 1997b, pp. 5-6).

In the findings, expectations about living in Australia could be categorised into self-expectations and family expectations that convey interrelation, dependence and sensitivity between the two elements – self and family. However, the data shows that participants’ self expectation mainly deals with people to meet and daily life to experience, whereas family expectation to be successful was more from the participants.

4.2. Staying in Australia

The findings reflected that the participants faced various experiences of studying in Australia, among which was the student-lecturer relationship and adaptation to being students again. Professional relationships, referred to in several excerpts as ‘open interaction’, ‘good relations in academic way’, not being afraid of ‘having different ideas’, and ‘work ethics’, has the impression of being very professional for all participants. This fits in with Hall’s idea (Hall, 1997a, p. 9) that identity is relational and recognised by difference, as indicated in the different professional relationship between lecturer and students experienced by these Indonesian EFL educators in Australia.

Shift of professional identity was experienced, especially by Indonesian EFL lecturers, from being a controller in a teacher centred atmosphere with full power in their hands to being controlled in a communicative atmosphere with limited power. This distinctive experience of the lecturers, unlike that experienced by non-lecturers, is an evidence of what was termed by Bauer and McAdams as differentiation and integration of new points of view on self and others (Bauer & McAdams, 2004, p. 577).

Changes of learning styles experienced by all participants and changes in lifestyle experienced by married participants were indicated in the findings. Problems faced by married participants had arisen in the form of family members experiencing language difficulty and role shifts, which were possibly related to the paternal-dominant system commonly adopted in Indonesia. In the case of single participants, regardless of similar lifestyle experienced, the concept of family had changed into a more individualistic sense of family. This was exhibited in the findings, where Hari stated that ‘Since I am still single, so there is no family’. This is a proof of ‘cultural practices and meanings structure psychological processes, which in turn generate, perpetuate, and transform these cultural practices and

meanings' (Markus & Kitayama, 2003, p. 6), which leads on to a manifestation of new identity.

Both in personal and professional lives during their stay in Australia, Indonesian EFL educators have experienced the shift from a 'conjoint model', in which 'agency can and does manifest itself in and through networks of interactions, to a "disjoint model", in which each individual is required to be independent in adjusting to their "individual and cultural" environment' (Markus, Mullally, & Kitayama, 1997, pp. 15-17).

4.3. Upon return to Indonesia

Expectation upon return to Indonesia conveyed expectation from the participants' institution and the society responses, linking 'how we have been represented and how that bears on how we might represent ourselves' (Hall, 1996, p.4 in Ang in Gilroy, Grossberg, & McRobbie, 2000, p. 1). Willingness to improve their institutions was expressed by all of the participants by bringing the knowledge gained from Australia and sharing them with their co-workers. However, the participants also brought home some demands, which possibly resulted from their being immersed in the Australian system.

Certain consequences were also suspected to occur as a result of possessing a higher education degree from an overseas university. Along with stronger 'bargaining positions', one of the participants stated that her co-workers would expect her to be more 'sophisticated than them'. She said that such 'over-respect' would become a burden for her. Adi also anticipated a similar burden, as he felt that his return to Indonesia was expected to be an inspiration for his co-workers to be 'motivated to do the same thing'. Returning to the society of their home country, the participants also possessed certain expectations, both desires and challenges that occur simultaneously. A gap was expected between the participants and their co-workers.

5. Conclusions

Indonesian EFL educators' professional identity prior to coming to Australia was a negotiation between each individual educator with his/her family members as the closest emotional structures, in which the role of family members were stronger than his/her own role in determining his/her life, including decisions related to their professions. Indonesian EFL educators were also involved in two contradictory environments – Western and Eastern cultures, through which negotiations had to be carried out. The manifestation of these negotiations was in the form of self-identification as being 'distinctive' and 'special', that resulted in respect from the society.

However, this brought about consequences of their representations as educators in the eyes of the society, which demanded them to be ‘public figures’. Thus, Indonesian EFL educators’ professional identities, prior to being immersed in language and culture, consisted of personal and social factors. It is then clear why self and family expectations motivated their coming to Australia.

Considering the atmosphere and power changes during their stay in Australia, perhaps the participants were in an easier situation rather than being a student again in Indonesia, in which they would be controlled in a teacher centred atmosphere with almost no power at all. Moreover, the feeling of significant identity shift experienced by two lecturer participants was probably due to the acknowledgement of their profession by Indonesian society that was distinctive for them – as **lecturers, not teachers**.

As regards the personal aspects of professional identity, the significant shift of role especially experienced by the female-married participant was another element of professional identity shift experienced by Indonesian EFL educators. Being immersed in the English language and Western educational environment is an evidence of changes from usually experiencing a ‘conjoint model’ to the shock of a ‘disjoint model’ (Markus, Mullally, & Kitayama, 1997, pp. 15-17).

Institutional as well as societal expectations upon return to Indonesia elaborate both desires and challenges to be encountered. The participants bring home some ‘souvenirs’ from the Australian educational system in which they had been immersed, resulting in a stronger bargaining position and being inspirational. This has shifted the participants into different professional identities. A gap was expected to occur between the participants and their co-workers, causing them to be even more ‘distinctive’ and ‘unique’ than before. They are now not simply ‘socially respected educators’, not “native speaker” educators, but not merely ‘non-native speaker’ educators, either.

Indeed, professional identity shifts had happened to Indonesian EFL educators undertaking the Master of Education (TESOL-International) at Monash University. Five of the six episodes proposed by McAdams (1985, 1993, and 1996 in McAdams, 2001, p. 101) were experienced by the Indonesian EFL educators. In the stage prior to coming to Australia, they made a ‘decision’ and came to a ‘turning point’. Following this stage, during their stay in Australia, these people went through a ‘conflict event’ and experienced an ‘encounter with another person’. Upon their return to Indonesia, these educators had set a ‘projected future’. It is only the ‘reflection’ part that is yet to be expected, which will be realised when they have returned to Indonesia. This part of the stages would be ‘the sedimentations over time of those different identifications or positionalities we have taken up and tried to “live”’ (Rojek, 2003,

pp. 127-159). Living through these episodes, these Indonesian EFL educators have experienced shifts in professional identity.

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High Schools or Private Institutes Textbooks? Which Fulfill Communicative Language Teaching Principles in the Iranian Context?

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Abstract

The Communicative Approach in language teaching originates from the purpose of language as communication. According to this model, the main objective of communicative language teaching (CLT) is to develop what Hymes (1972) referred to as "communicative competence." The work of Canale and Swain is an expansion of Hymes' model which attempts to "determine the feasibility and practicality of developing what we shall call the 'communicative competence' of students" (Canale and Swain, 1980, p.1). Accordingly, Bachman's framework (1990) is an extension of earlier models "in that it attempts to characterize the processes by which the various components interact with each other and with the context in which language use occurs" (Bachman, 1990, p.81). The literature on language teaching suggests that the amount of use of CLT principles in EFL/ESL textbooks varies depending on how the textbook designers and developers conceptualize the principles. As far as the researcher knows, no study has been done on the amount of representation of CLT principles in high school and private institute textbooks. Because textbooks play a pivotal role in the realm of language teaching and learning and they are looked upon as an indispensable vehicle for foreign language learning, this study aimed at investigating the extent to which the Iranian high school and private institute textbooks represent the CLT principles. To this end, the textbooks of the Iranian high schools and private institutes were analyzed descriptively and inferentially. The analysis of the data indicated that while high school textbooks are not conducive to CLT implementation, private institute textbooks represent the CLT principles to a great extent.

Key Words: Materials Development, Textbooks, Textbook Evaluation, Communicative Language Ability, CLT, EFL Institutes

Introduction

Textbooks play a pivotal role in language classrooms in all types of educational institutions - public schools, colleges, and language schools - all over the world. In some contexts, teachers are free to choose their own textbooks. The vast majority of teachers, however, have

textbooks suggested, prescribed, or assigned to them (Garinger, 2001).

According to Riazi (2003, p. 52), "textbooks play a very crucial role in the realm of language teaching and learning and are considered the next important factor (*element*) [italics added] in the second/foreign language classroom after the teacher." The textbook is a tool in the hands of the teacher, and the teacher must know not only how to use it, but also how useful it can be. The wealth of published materials for English language teaching (ELT) available in the market makes selecting the right coursebook a challenging task. Moreover, the selection of a particular core textbook signals an executive educational decision in which there is considerable professional, financial, and even political investment (Sheldon, 1988).

In some situations, textbooks serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom. They may provide the basis for the content of the lessons, the balance of skills taught, and the kinds of language tasks students actively use. In other situations, textbooks may serve primarily to supplement the teacher's instruction. For learners, textbooks may provide a major source of contact they have with the target language, excluding the input provided by the teacher. In the case of novice teachers, textbooks may also be utilized as a form of teacher training; that is, they provide ideas on how to plan and teach lessons as well as formats that teachers can use. Much of the language teaching that occurs throughout the world today could not take place without the extensive use of commercial textbooks. Learning how to use and adapt textbooks is hence an important part of a teacher's professional knowledge (Richards, 2001).

Hutchinson and Torres (1994, p. 232) identify four ways in which textbooks can help in times of educational change: first as "a vehicle for teacher and learner training"; second because they provide "support and relief" from the burden of looking for materials; third by providing "as complete a picture as possible" of "what the change will look like"; and fourth through the psychological support they give to teachers. However, fulfillment of these goals, especially the first and the third, depends on the approach and quality of the textbook. The materials may not be in tune with the new kind of teaching being encouraged, following instead the methodology already commonly being practiced; alternatively, the materials may be so difficult to use that teachers are unable to follow them as intended, making them revert to their previous practice. In either case, rather than agents of change, books will be "agents of conservatism," reducing the likelihood of teachers trying out new, alternative approaches and methods (Garinger, 2001).

No doubt, a coursebook is looked upon as an indispensable vehicle for foreign language acquisition whose validity and significance are seldom impugned. Many students working with a coursebook feel secure and have a sense of progress and achievement. They always

have a book to relate to; they are not groping in the dark. Consequently, they become more confident and satisfied, as they tackle the target language within a certain framework. Furthermore, a textbook provides them with the opportunity to go back and revise. They can also use the textbook for self-study and as a reference tool. Besides, a well-illustrated book, equipped with eye-catching phrases and sensational pictures or titles, is preferable to tons of photocopied material, which teachers and students often take a dim view of.

We may think of textbook evaluation as the following stages in the process of second/foreign language instruction by teachers, administrators, and ELT experts, either individually or in collaboration:

1. Selection of textbooks for a newly started language program.
2. Evaluation of books already in use in a language program to identify their strengths and weaknesses.
3. Evaluation of books after a course of instruction with the objective of retaining, updating, and/or substituting the books (Riazi, 2003).

Because of the importance of textbooks, the purpose of this paper is to identify the amount of implementation of the CLT principles in Iranian high school and private institute textbooks. Based on the results of the study, some suggestions will be offered to improve the textbooks in use.

In the following two sections, textbook evaluation schemes in ESL contexts are first presented. Then studies done in Iran are reported.

Textbook evaluation schemes

During the last three decades, different textbook evaluation models (schemes) have been proposed in order to evaluate the existing English textbooks prepared for ESL/EFL learners. These schemes mostly focus on designing certain principles and criteria for such an evaluation. Among these, Tucker (1975), Sheldon (1988), Ur (1996), and Littlejohn (1996) are the most significant ones dominating the ESL field. Table 1 presents the second/foreign language materials evaluation checklists and schemes developed in the three consecutive decades of the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s (Riazi, 2003). This, of course, is not intended to be a complete list of all the checklists developed in the said decades; however, it represents the major ones.

Table 1. Textbook evaluation schemes in three decades

Decade	1970s		1980s		1990s			
Year	1975	1979	1983	1988	1991	1995	1996	1996
Checklist	Davison Tucker	Daoud & Celce- Murcia	Williams	Sheldon	Skierso	Cunnings -worth	Ur	Littlejohn

Research on Textbook Evaluation in Iran

In Iran several projects have been carried out to evaluate textbooks, among which Amerian (1987), Kheibari (1999), Shahedi (2002), Ansary and Babaii (2002), Yarmohammadi (2002), and Amalsaleh (2004) are typical examples. Amerian (1987) conducted a comparative study of the first two books of Right Path to English and Books One and Two of the Graded English series based on Tucker's model. The results of the study indicated that there are no significant differences between the two series. This is because it can be claimed that the two series represent the structural syllabus and design.

Kheibari (1999) modified Tucker's model and applied it to the five volumes of Teaching Persian to Speakers of Other Languages (TPSOL) textbooks. She claimed that the philosophy behind the changes is due to the recent developments in language teaching. Results revealed that the books follow the Grammar Translation Method which attaches the least attention to role-playing, different kinds of tasks, or language skills such as speaking.

Shahedi (2001) analyzed one of the leading texts in TPSOL and stated that in these series, not enough attention has been attached to the four skills of the language. Moreover, the manner and amount of the presentation of vocabulary and pronunciation are not in harmony with language learners' proficiency levels.

Ansary and Babaii (2002) analyzed a corpus of 10 EFL/ESL textbook reviews plus 10 EFL/ESL textbook evaluation checklists and outlined what they perceived to be the common core features of standard EFL/ESL textbooks. The major categories comprise approach, content presentation, physical make-up and administration concerns. Each set of major features of EFL/ESL textbooks consists of a number of subcategories. They concluded the article mentioning that not all of these characteristics would be present in each and every textbook.

Yarmohammadi (2002) evaluated the senior high school textbooks based on a revised version of Tucker's model. He came to the conclusion that these textbooks suffer from a lot of shortcomings: 1. they are not authentic; 2. English and Persian names are used interchangeably; and 3. oral skills are ignored. At the end, some suggestions were proposed

to remedy the shortcomings.

Finally, Amalsaleh (2004) examined the representation of social factors in three types of textbooks, including junior and senior high school textbooks, based on Van Leeuwen's model (1996). According to the results, generally, the textbooks demonstrated a deferential representation of social factors that tended to portray female as performers belonging to a home context and having limited job opportunities in society. In particular, junior and senior high school textbooks tended to shape normative views of gender and class relations in which a middle-class urban male was considered to be the norm.

Regarding the studies mentioned above, a comprehensive study is still urgently needed to allow a subsequent assessment of the amount of use of CLT principles in the Iranian educational system with respect to the textbooks because of the following reasons: 1) Textbooks are considered as one of the key variables in any educational system, including the Iranian one; and 2) CLT is a dominant approach or method all over the world. Therefore, these two factors are worthy to be investigated more.

Objectives of the study

This study investigates the extent to which high school and EFL institute textbooks represent CLT principles. The first objective of the study deals with the analysis of high school textbooks from the perspective of representing CLT features. The second objective is to find out to what extent EFL institute textbooks represent CLT features. Third, the current study aims at comparing the amount of representation of CLT features in the textbooks of each domain.

Research questions

Regarding the purpose of the study, the following research questions are posed:

1. To what extent do the high school textbooks represent the CLT features?
2. To what extent do the EFL institute textbooks represent the CLT features?
3. Are there any significant differences among high school and institute textbooks in terms of representing CLT features?

Benefiting from the implications of the literature review and being in line with the objectives and research questions of the study, the researcher designed a textbook evaluation scheme, in which the majority of its items have been selected from the literature review on CLT, taking into account its main features.

Methods

This section presents the design and methods of the study. In this respect, materials, instruments, and data collection and analysis procedures are discussed.

Materials

The *Interchange Series* (Richards, 2005a; Richards, Hull & Proctor, 2005a; Richards, Hull & Proctor, 2005b; Richards, Hull & Proctor, 2005c) and the *English High School* textbooks 1, 2 and 3 (Birjandi, Soheili, Nowroozi & Mahmoodi, 2000; Birjandi, Nowroozi & Mahmoodi, 2002a; Birjandi, Nowroozi & Mahmoodi, 2002b) comprised the materials of the study. These materials were analyzed by twenty experienced teachers of the two domains, using the evaluation scheme to determine the extent to which the Iranian textbooks tap the CLT principles.

Unit structure and organization of New Interchange

The exercises in each unit are grouped into two sections; these are referred to as "Cycle 1" and "Cycle 2" in the teaching notes, each having a specific topic, grammar point, and function. A cycle is a self-contained sequence of exercises that usually consists of the introduction of a new topic through a "Snapshot" or "Word Power" exercise; a conversation that introduces the new grammar structure; a grammar focus that provides controlled practice; pair work, group work, roleplay exercises, and a listening exercise. Also, in each unit there is a pronunciation exercise, a writing activity, and an "Interchange Activity" note. Finally, there is an interesting reading exercise that ends Cycle 2 (Richards, 2005b).

Unit structure and organization of high school textbooks

The major parts of high school English textbooks are as follows: word study (new words and expressions); reading comprehension; "Speak Out"; "Write It Down"; "Language Function"; and "Pronunciation Practice."

Instruments (textbook evaluation scheme)

The two series of textbooks (high school and institutes' English textbooks) utilized in the public and private institutes were evaluated based on a hybrid of available textbook evaluation schemes considering the CLT features in mind (Davison, 1975; Tucker, 1975; Daoud and Celce-Murcia, 1979; Williams, 1983; Sheldon, 1988; Skierso, 1991; Cunningham, 1995; Ur, 1996; Littlejohn, 1998) to determine the extent to which they take into consideration issues such as the provision of opportunities for more authentic use of the language, attention to learners' needs, and contexts of learning, which are among typical principles derived from the communicative language teaching approach.

Validity and reliability of the scheme

In order to determine the validity of the instrument, the researcher randomized the 30 items of the textbook evaluation scheme and distributed them among 40 teachers of high schools and private institutes. Having collected the data, the researchers analyzed the data to calculate the validity coefficients in terms of factor analysis. The following factors were determined:

Table 2. Confirmatory factor analysis of the questionnaire

1	Quality and quantity of error correction (4 statements)
2	Communicative task and activities (9 statements)
3	Place/importance of grammar (7 statements)
4	The role of the teacher in the classroom (6 statements)
5	The role and contribution of learners in the learning process (4 statements)

In addition, the validity of the proposed evaluation scheme has been confirmed by the experienced faculty members of the Department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics at Shiraz University. Moreover, based on the data gathered for the present study, the overall internal consistency of the scheme was calculated using Cronbach alpha, which turned out to be 0.80.

Data collection and analysis procedures

The data obtained based on the textbook evaluation schemes were analyzed descriptively to determine the trend of the textbooks in terms of principles representing CLT. In addition, inferential statistics of the data is presented.

Findings of the textbook evaluation

This part concerns the textbook evaluation in the two domains on the basis of the five principles of CLT. First the descriptive statistics for the two domains are shown, followed by presentation of the inferential statistics of the results. To illustrate better the pattern of the different criteria in the textbooks analyzed, the first two alternatives (Excellent and Good) and the last two ones (Weak and Totally Lacking) were combined. Tables 3 and 4 present the amount of importance attached to each criterion in public and private institute textbooks respectively.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of public school textbooks in terms of the CLT principles

Criteria	E+G		A		W+TL	
	F	P	F	P	F	P
1. Role of Grammar	-	-	3	30%	7	70%
2. Communicative task and activities	-	-	1	10%	9	90%
3. Error correction	-	-	2	20%	8	80%
4. Learner role	1	10%	2	20%	7	70%
5. Teacher role	-	-	1	10%	9	90%

F: Frequency P: Percentage

As the table shows, the five principles of the CLT are represented to a lesser extent in the high school textbooks. In other words, the CLT principles are assigned a low rank in these textbooks. This might be one of the reasons why the school teachers do not use the CLT principles in their classes. Table 4 presents the amount of representation of the same five principles in the private institute textbooks.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics of private institute textbooks in terms of the CLT principles

Criteria	E+G		A		W+TL	
	F	P	F	P	F	P
1. Role of Grammar	5	50%	3	30%	2	20%
2. Communicative task and activities	8	20%	1	10%	1	10%
3. Error correction	7	70%	2	20%	1	10%
4. Learner role	7	70%	1	10%	2	20%
5. Teacher role	6	60%	2	20%	2	20%

In contrast to high school textbooks, private institute textbooks highly represent the CLT principles; that is, the five principles of CLT are present in the textbooks of this domain to a great extent. Table 5 shows the mean and standard deviation of the textbook analysis in high school and private institute textbooks.

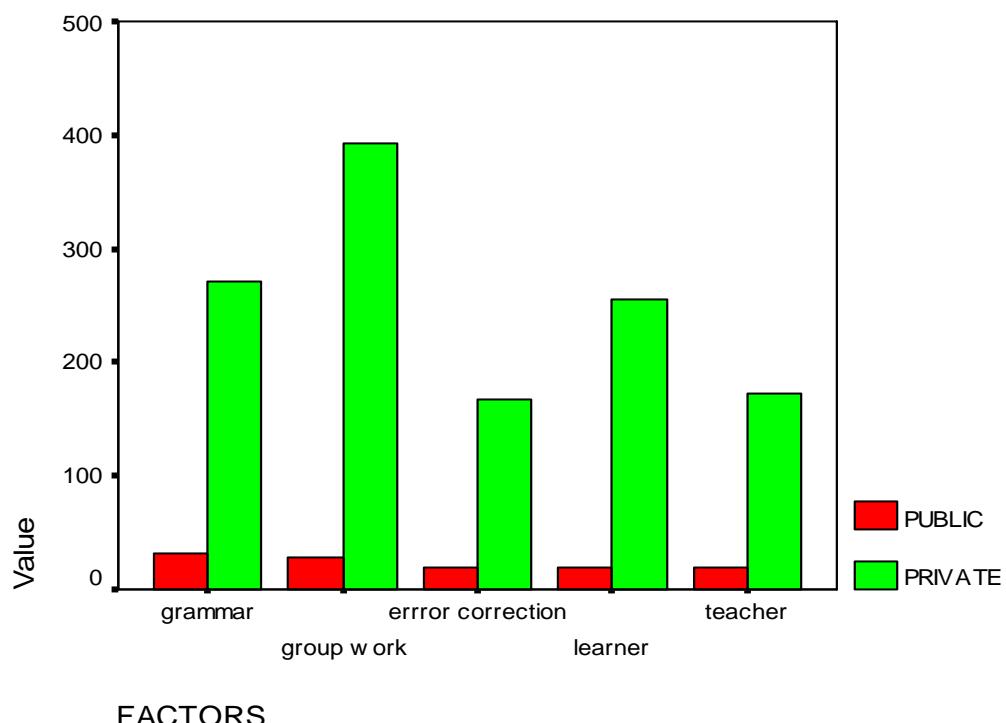
Table 5. Basic descriptive statistics for the public school textbooks

Domain	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
High School	10	51.00	79.00	62.50	8.45
Private Institute	10	118.00	136.00	126.00	6.80

Since the overall mean is three and a half standard deviations below the neutral point (90), it can be concluded that the CLT principles are missing in the textbooks of the high schools. However, regarding the textbooks of the private institutes, because the overall mean is more than five standard deviations above the neutral point (90), it can be concluded that these

textbooks represent the CLT principles to a great extent. The results are depicted schematically in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Public school and private institute textbooks



The following interview conducted with the author of the private institute textbooks (Interchange Series) demonstrates the same trend.

Interview Question: What are the principles the Interchange series based on?

Author Richards stated that Interchange is based on a communicative approach to teaching, the principles of which can be summarized as follows:

- Make real communication the focus of language learning
- Create opportunities for communication, interaction and negotiation of meaning through activities such as information sharing, problem solving and role play
- Provide opportunities for learners to experiment and try out what they know
- Provide opportunities for learners to develop both accuracy and fluency
- Link the different skills of speaking, reading, listening, and writing
- Link the learning of grammar to communicative tasks
- Choose content that relates to students' lives and interests
- Encourage students to personalize learning by applying what they have learned to their own lives (retrieved from

Table 6 contrasts the results of the two analyses inferentially.

Table 6. Independent samples t-test for the textbook evaluation

Domain	N	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
High School	10	62.50	8.45	18.53	
Private Institute	10	126.00	6.80		.000

Table 6 indicates that there is a significant and meaningful difference between the two textbooks analyzed in the two domains.

In order to find out whether the differences among the means of the five principles of CLT in each domain are significant or not, one-way ANOVA was run. Wherever the differences were significant, a Scheffé test was used to show where the differences were.

Table 7. One-way ANOVA for the factors of high school textbooks

Source of Variance	D. F.	SS	MS	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4	12.200	3.050	36.118	.000
Within Groups	45	3.800	.084		
Total	49	16.000			

D.F: Degree of Freedom, SS: Sum of Squares, MS: Mean of Squares, F: F-test, Sig: Significant

Table 7 shows that there is a significant and meaningful difference among the CLT principles in terms of the degree they are used in the high school textbooks. Table 8 shows where the differences are.

Table 8. Scheffé test for Table 7

Principles	Grammar Role	Group Work	Error correction	Learner Role	Teacher Role
Grammar Role			*	*	*
Communicative Tasks			*	*	*
Error Correction	*	*			
Learner Role	*	*			
Teacher Role	*	*			

Table 8 shows the significant differences among the five principles of CLT. Table 9 presents one-one ANOVA to indicate whether there is a significant difference among the CLT principles in the private institute textbooks or not.

Table 9. One-way ANOVA for the factors of private institute textbooks

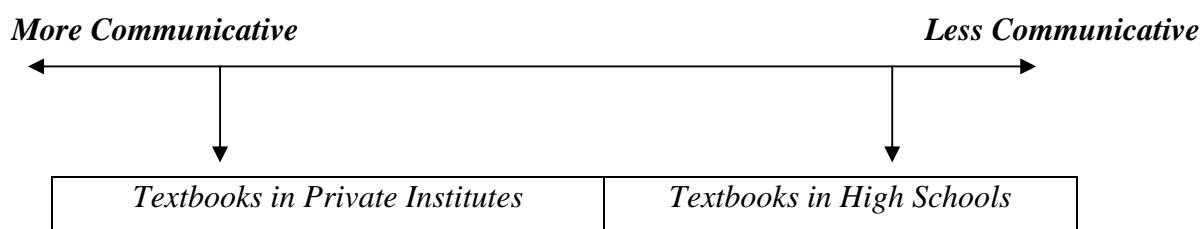
Source of Variance	D. F.	SS	MS	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4	.520	.130	.547	.702
Within Groups	45	10.700	.238		
Total	49	11.220			

The table demonstrates that there is no significant difference among the CLT principles in the private institute textbooks.

Discussion

The textbook evaluation demonstrates there is a radical difference between the two types of textbooks in the two domains. The high school textbooks are reading and grammar based. This may because materials development and syllabus design are determined by the ministry of education, and the practitioners (teachers) do not have a voice in the decision making process. Students' needs are not taken into account. Moreover, decision makers attach high importance to universality (centrality) rather than locality. However, the textbooks utilized in the private institutes provide an equal balance among all the skills and components of the language. These textbooks provide a chance to foster learners' autonomy so that they become independent in their learning. Moreover, the teachers are supposed to act as a coordinator in the private institutes, and they do not need heavy preparation because the pedagogical points are discussed in details in the teacher's manual.

Figure 2. The Amount of Representation of Communicative Principles in High School and Private Institute Textbooks



Conclusions

In the conclusion section of the study, the main research questions presented before will be answered one by one with responses.

1. To what extent do the high school textbooks represent the CLT features?

The textbook analysis indicates they are not conducive to CLT implementation.

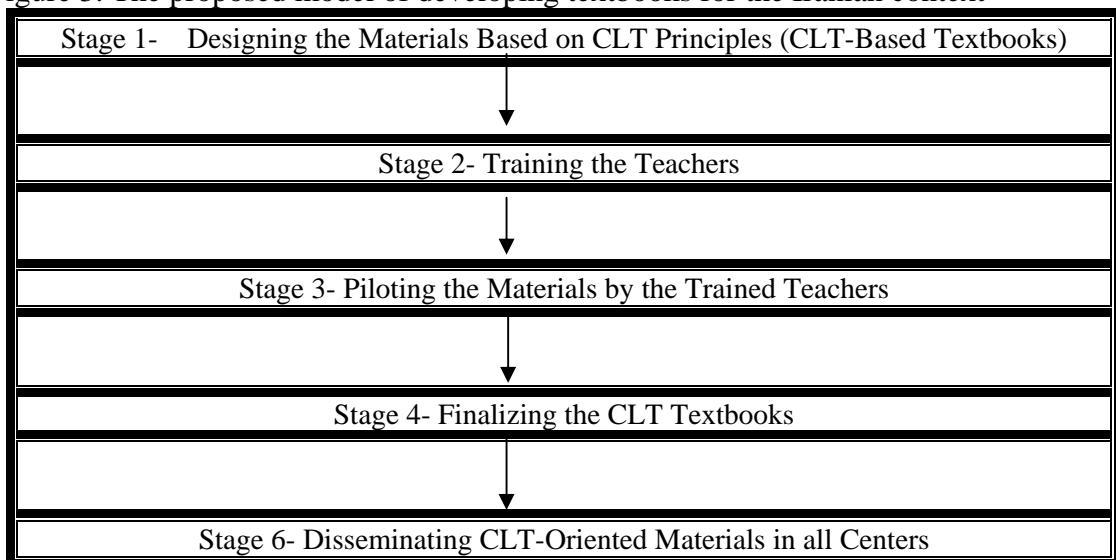
2. To what extent do the EFL institute textbooks represent the CLT features?

In contrast to high school textbooks, private institute textbooks highly represent the CLT principles; that is, the five principles of CLT are present in the textbooks of this domain to a great extent.

3. Are there any significant differences among high school and institute textbooks in terms of representing CLT features?

The results and findings of the study present the point that CLT principles are not utilized in the Iranian high school textbooks. Therefore, regarding the results of the study and due to the fact that textbooks designed by experts outside the foreign language instruction context do not fit EFL communicative teaching and do not fulfill language learners' needs, the following model is proposed for the Iranian context. Developing a model substantiates Tomlinson's idea that EFL countries should develop their own locally appropriate version of the communicative approach in terms of teaching methodology, materials development, and test construction.

Figure 3. The proposed model of developing textbooks for the Iranian context



Pedagogical implications

The research outlined in the present study will, we hope, encourage an extension of research into textbook designers and teachers' knowledge and understanding of CLT. A further hope is that this study might also re-ignite an interest in the nature of materials developers' practical theories of materials development.

Regarding the general ideas posed, there is a possibility that for the sake of highlighting crucial pedagogic implications of the study more, it can be claimed that teachers, materials developers, and test constructors can benefit from the results of the present study in particular.

However, such a crucial and fundamental change takes time. Therefore, rather than simply jumping into and adopting the CLT principles, those involved in the field should carefully investigate the context and decide how CLT-oriented textbooks can best serve the needs and the interests of the stakeholders; that is, the countries belonging to the EFL context should borrow cautiously rather than buy wholesale CLT for their English teaching (Li, 2001).

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Global English and the Role of Translation

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Abstract

Language has been considerably affected by the significant trend of globalization in the last two decades. A case in point is the international status accorded to English as the largely unchallenged and most dominant language. Yet, with this undisputed internationalization of English, the question remains for the specialist, as to whether or not translation from or into English still has a role to play in this rapidly developing world given the advances in communication technology. The present study is threefold. First, it attempts to set the standards for the globalization of English as an International Language despite strong competition from other languages. The factors which determine power in language and society may be identified in the following: 1. Access to resources: economic, political, material, etc. 2. Role in the decision-making process at the international level; 3. Ability to introduce and cope with the global technical developments, including the information superhighway and communication technology, among others. It is imperative, therefore, that in a global society only powerful languages, like English, take the lead and stay on top due to their major role in disseminating and mediating information technology and resulting tools, such as e-mail service and the world-wide-web, among others. Equally important is the role of English in international politics and diplomacy, in resolving international conflicts, and in affecting the world economy.

Second, the paper looks into the future of English amidst the fierce competition from other powerful languages, taking into account, among others, demographic and economic factors. Third, the paper sets to launch an investigation into the role of translation in this context of globalization, and to determine whether or not translation is still in demand. Given that only 60% of the entire world's technical documentation is produced in English, there remains room for other languages to contribute in the dissemination of information. Such a process may only be realized through translation from or into English. The paper draws on the educated and intelligent judgments and opinions of language experts and specialists in the field, including university professors, curriculum planners and material designers for EIL, translators, and language users. Additional information has been obtained from the literature on the subject, to verify and assess the findings of the present study.

Introduction

By definition, all living languages undergo a process of evolution whereby they continue to change over time. And although these changes are, by and large, linguistically motivated, attitudes to the languages are largely determined by non-linguistic factors, such as political influence, military power, economic prosperity, and social prestige, derived from the power of the people who speak them. Consequently, the number of speakers - both native and non-native - reflects the degree of influence a given language has on international decision-making, international diplomacy, global business, and world affairs (see Crystal, 2006; Graddol, 2006; Redmann, 2005; Ulrich, 2003; Jenkins, 2003; Mair, 2003; Wallraff, 2000; Crystal, 1997).

Since ancient times, there has been a perennial quest for such a leading and dominant language. Such a language, if any, will virtually serve as a *lingua franca*, reflecting an optimal degree of linguistic convergence and uniformity. These features are bound to usher in the emergence of a language on the road to universality, a language which has achieved global status.

By exploring the use of English worldwide and its relationship with other languages, linguists, language planners, and educational policy makers have concluded that English has now become the global language par excellence and in fact has been for the last few decades (see Graddol, 2006; Cronin, 2003; Melchers and Shaw, 2003; Jenkins, 2003; Wallraff, 2000; Crystal, 1997). The impact of this trend on EU institutions was, however, viewed differently by Phillipson (2003), Skutnabb-Kangas (2006; 2004) who argued for equal status for EU languages and their speakers (see Pennycook, 2006; 2003).

This paper investigates the status of the English language in view of a three-way relationship, namely (1) English as a global language; (2) the future of English as a global language; and (3) globalization and translation.

1. English as a global language

The rise of English as a global language was predicted by Sapir as early as 1931 (Sapir 1931: 66). Almost sixty years later, Crystal acknowledged that its use as a lingual franca was closely connected with its rise as a world language (Crystal, 1997, pp. 8–10; 237). According to him (1997), “A language achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country” (quoted in McArthur, 2004, p. 10). With this in mind, Toolan (1997) affirms that “English is shockingly emerging as the only truly global language” (quoted in McArthur, 2004, p. 10). Similarly, Crystal (2006, p. 1) names three major trends which had an impact on the world’s linguistic ecology, one of which is “the arrival of the world’s first genuinely global language – English”. On a similar note, Redmann

(2002, p. 45) argues that “English spans the divide between people and cultures. It is not owned by Britain and America: now it belongs to everyone.” And according to Chairman Lord Alan Watson, of the English Speaking Union (ESU), “English has become the working language of the global village” (Redmann, 2005, p. 45). In addition, “the widespread acceptance of English as a first or second language is the main indication of its worldwide status” (2006, Wikipedia CD Collection). Moreover despite its recent decline, English continues to be the most widely published language.

Further support for the global status of English comes from Ulrich (2003, p. 23) who believes that English is by far the most useful language for international communication today and that for multilateral contacts, especially for divergent regions, the language which functions best in most cases, or the only one functioning, is English.

Thus, the status of English as a global language has been well established and the universality of English is largely undisputed (see Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Cronin, 2003; Jenkins, 2003; Mair, 2003; Ulrich, 2003). Obviously, English would not have achieved such a global status without meeting the criteria of dominance and supremacy. The following set of facts, quoted from Wallraff (2000, p. 1) will be cited:

- i) English is the working language of the Asian Trade group ASEAN;
- ii) English is the de facto working language of 98% of German research physicists and 83% of German research chemists;
- iii) English is the official language of the European Central Bank, seated in Frankfurt.

English is predominantly used in disseminating advances in science and technology, and in trade and business communications (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Cronin, 2003). The use of restricted forms of English by professional communities is another testimony to the supremacy of English. Wallraff (2000, p. 7), for example, cites “Seaspeak” as a restricted form of English which ships’ pilots around the world have used for the past dozen years or so; this is now being supplemented by SMCP or Standard Marine Communication Phrases. Airplane pilots and air-traffic controllers use a restricted form of English called “Airspeak”.

The dominant role of English has been attested to and recognized worldwide. Graddol (2006, p. 75) cites the global university rankings for the year 2005, according to Shanghai Jiao Tong University (SJT) and the QS Quacquarelli Symonds survey for the UK’s *Times Higher Education Supplement*.¹ Further evidence of the global nature of English comes from the tremendous role played by the internet as a major source of circulating English. It is now

¹ According to that survey, 19 of the 20 top universities are found in English-speaking countries; 17 of them are in the US and the other two, Cambridge and Oxford, are in the UK, with Tokyo University ranked number 20.

estimated that about 80% of the materials on the internet are available in English (Wallraff 2000, p. 8).

In view of the above, the need for adopting a global language has been accelerated by the increasing demand of the international community and the peoples of the world to grow closer together and to reach out across the linguistic and cultural barriers. This could be best achieved by designating one language that will serve as a common tongue to be shared by different speakers irrespective of their linguistic, ethnic, or social backgrounds. Only then will people be able to communicate more freely and maintain an optimal degree of cultural understanding. Furthermore, the new trends in science and technology will be shared by professional groups in a variety of domains including those of information technology, education, media, broadcasting and advertising, etc.

In this context, Arnold (2006, p. 4) notes that globalization is so influential that English will overtake all other languages and hence all other cultures because it is buttressed by the formidable panoply of the mass communications industry (Dalby as cited in Morrison, 2002, p. 26). The question remains, however, as to the degree of uniformity reflected within world English to warrant a standard core bringing together all different Englishes. Naturally, total uniformity and homogeneity is not there yet, as it has never been before. But as McArthur (2004, p. 15) puts it,

As CNN, the BBC, and even Microsoft suggest, the community of English users may have fewer problems at the world, international or global level than in past national levels. There may now indeed be more conformity than less.

1.1 Expert opinions on global English in the regional EFL context

Upon eliciting opinions on the status of English regionally from EFL experts (i.e., The Middle East and the Arab world in particular), the opinions largely confirmed the existence of a global English, which dominates the international scene and particularly that of the region. Ongoing debates among university professors, curriculum designers, school teachers and supervisors, as well as business CEOs and managers point towards similar views on how English has distinguished itself as the most needed language for science and technology, career development and job advancement, as well as socio-economic status and prestige

In Jordanian public schools, English has recently – as in the last five years - been officially introduced as a foreign language as early as grade 1. In the past, however, English was introduced only in grade 5, with only Arabic taught in the first four years of basic education. Nowadays, it is a common practice for pre-school children to be introduced to English alongside with Arabic. If anything, such strong tendencies, and a vision towards making educational policies and laws part of language planning, are indicative of the concern to

enable Jordanian students to cope with the latest global developments by mastering the key and most dominant world language, namely English.

Interest in the teaching of English as a global language has been growing throughout the Arab world. The trend has become so popular that there have even been curriculum changes in some parts of the Arab world where languages other than English, particularly French, were traditionally taught in the public system. A case in point is Morocco, where teaching and learning in English has increased. To this end, the Moroccan Association of Teachers of English (MATE) has organized in the last decade two major conferences on the topic. The first was MATE's 21st Annual Conference, held in Essaouira, March 25-29, 2000, on the theme of, "The Teaching and Assessment of English for Global Purposes." The second was The First Mediterranean ESP Conference, held in Tangiers, April 25-28, 2001, on the theme, "ESP and the Challenges of Globalization." The proceedings of the two conferences present experiences and cover varied areas of both EGP and ESP, such as curriculum development, syllabus design, discourse analysis, needs analysis, evaluation and assessment, methodology, and approaches to the teaching of culture (see Zaki and Najbi, 2001).

An offshoot of teaching English as a global language in the Arab world has been the emergence of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The aforementioned conference is only one in a series of conferences, seminars, and workshops on the topic. Most higher education institutions in the Arab world have incorporated ESP into their undergraduate and graduate programs. Thus, new brands of courses like English for medicine, English for nursing, English for science and technology, English for business and economics, English for aviation, petroleum English, English for law, English for humanities and social sciences, etc., were featured in the academic programs of most universities. Most educational policy makers, as well as curriculum and textbook designers, were supportive of the move. They believe that students in their different areas of specialization need a different recipe of English to meet their academic and professional needs. Students should acquire the special terminology, register and jargon which are characteristic of their respective field of study. In the opinion of policy makers, the trend nowadays is heading towards applied knowledge, which boosts professional development and career advancement. To this end, Sysoyev (2001) argues that

with the spread of the student-centered approach and the continued increase of international contacts in various spheres, much attention has been paid to the design of ESP courses that can prepare students for professional communication (p.4).

Locally, in Jordan, Zughoul and Hussein (1985, p. 145-146) explored the need for English at Yarmouk University in Jordan. Their findings indicated that "knowledge of English for specific purposes ... (is) ... to train students in their particular needs from the time they join

the university.” The authors draw attention to a number of ESP projects in the Arab world. According to Al-Salman (2002, p. 122, p.126), ESP continues to flourish and play a major role in disseminating specialized knowledge and mediating information technology. Similarly, the interdisciplinary nature of academic and professional dialogue has given rise to more specialized research and has lent further support to ESP which is motivated by globalization (see Al-Salman, 2000, p. 29)

The same scenario is repeated in business circles, where market analysis--based on the index of world market needs-- is crucial for determining the choice of a foreign language in public and private schools, and later in the choice of a student’s specialization in higher education institutes. Here, the expert opinions were strongly in favor of English as the international language of business and trade. Consequently, in the Jordanian market, most job advertisements require that candidates should demonstrate “a good command of spoken and written English.” The same applies to business firms which are associated with non-English speaking European or other countries. For example, the mother company may be German, French, Italian, Spanish, Chinese, Japanese or Korean, but the business deals with the end consumer, say the Jordanian citizen, will have to be conducted either in Arabic or in English, but not in any of the languages of the manufacturing countries stated above. The reason is that the average Jordanian normally uses English as the foreign language of global communication. The same applies to all other Arab countries except Lebanon and some North African countries like Tunisia, Algeria, and Morocco, where French is more dominant than English.

Further evidence of the dominant role of English as a global language in non-English-speaking countries comes from Spain, among many others, where a specialized conference on “Translating Science” was held at the University of Pompeu Fabra, Barcelona, 28 February – 2 March 2002. The editors of the conference proceedings reported that there were five official languages in which conference papers may be presented: Catalan, English, French, German, and Spanish. They added, “We note that most authors chose English as the language of their contribution, which comes as no surprise in the field of scientific and technical translation” (Chabas, Gaser, Ray, 2002, p. 8).

2. The future of English

Experts wonder whether or not English will continue to serve in this capacity and maintain its global status. According to Stewart and Nathan (2001),

Linguistically speaking, no one dialect or language is better, more correct, or more logical than any other...but the prestige of any speech variety is wholly dependent upon the prestige of the speakers who enjoy positions of power, wealth

and education (p. 307).

For example, French is viewed as a “clearer and more logical language than English or German, but it is not as powerful as English” (*ibid*, p. 4). Hence, the determinants of language dominance go beyond the pure linguistic and attitudinal factors to embark on political, military, and economic power. Should these factors continue to nourish the English language, then the global status of English will be unthreatened; otherwise, the balance will be tipped in favor of another language to signal the diminishing role of the English language internationally.

The expanding role of English was received with caution in most EU countries and institutions whose national languages have been viewed as unequal to English. Consequently, this inequality between European languages and global English has rendered those languages as having second-class status. According to Phillipson (2003), English has been trespassing on the territories of some national languages like French, German, Swedish, Danish, etc., depriving them of many of their customary functions.

Apparently, the global status of English is impacting the languages of Europe and the EU language policy. In addition, the conflict between global and national interests is witnessed at the economic, political, cultural, and educational levels (see Skutnabb-Kangas, 2006; 2004; Pennycook, 2006; Phillipson, 2003).

Does this leave us with a fuzzy picture about the future of the English language, a language lacking the vigor, zest and glamour of the past? In his book *The Future of English*, David Graddol (1997) reports that “the future of English as a global language may depend, in large measure, on how the language is taken up and used by young adults in Asian countries” (cited. in McArthur, 2004, p. 10). Graddol’s predictions seem to be based on demographic, technological, and economic factors before anything else.

2.1 Demographic data

In reporting on some of Graddol’s ideas, Wallraff (2000, p. 2) explains how “the world language picture may be transformed according to the new political alliances, and how the regional trading blocks in Asia, the Arab world and Latin America will be formed, in which the US and other primarily English-speaking countries will be little involved.”

With the demographic factor being brought into the scene, the statistics show that there are 1,113 million native speakers of Chinese against about 372 million speakers of native English. According to Wallraff (2000, p. 3):

English is likely to cede second place within fifty years to the South-Asian linguistic group of Hindi and Urdu. In 2050, the world will hold 1,384 million

native speakers of Chinese, 556 million of Hindi and Urdu, and 508 million of English. As native languages, Arabic and Spanish will be almost as common as English with 486 and 482 respectively. And among young people aged fifteen to twenty four, English is expected to be in fourth place, behind not only Chinese and Hindi-Urdu languages but Arabic, and just ahead of Spanish.

And in his article “The Decline of the Native Speaker,” Graddol reports that “the proportion of native speakers in the world population can be expected to shrink over the century 1950-2050 from more than eight to less than five percent (*ibid*, p. 4). Thus, with the steady growth in the number of speakers of Chinese, Spanish and Arabic as the languages of the future, Graddol (2006) proposes a counter strategy for protecting English from such an imminent threat. He believes that the best defense strategy for the UK is to learn other languages. He predicts a decline in the number of foreign students in the English-speaking countries, together with a considerable decline in the number of school-age EFL learners. Graddol (2006, p. 14) also believes that English has become a basic skill and “a component of basic education”.

With this significant drop in the number of native speakers of English, and the increasing number of speakers of other languages, it looks as if English will lose ground on the demographic front.

Further evidence of the receding role of English exists in the mobility of international students worldwide. Graddol (2006, p. 76) reports that “the number of international students coming to English-speaking countries seemed to be ever-rising. But is the recent slowing of student numbers a temporary setback or sign of long-term change?” Graddol’s concerns over the matter led him to conclude that

Forecasts for global international student numbers published by the British Council in 2004, however, suggest that The Major English-speaking Destination Countries (MESDCs) will receive a declining proportion of the world’s students in the next 15 years. In 2005, 4 out of 5 UK universities reported a drop in international student numbers (*ibid.*).

2.2 Internet technology

Another important facet of the global status of English and its circulation around the globe is the internet. How will the new picture of English be formed in the next few decades? According to Wallraff (2000, p. 8), “Non-English users are the fastest growing group of new Internet users ... and that Internet traffic in languages other than English will outstrip English-language traffic within the next few years.” At another level,

The Microsoft engineers who designed the Windows computer-operating system spoke English, and used English in what they created, but in the latest version, Windows Millennium, the words that users see on the screen are

available in twenty-eight languages (*ibid*, p. 12).

The global trend is not keeping pace with past trends. The drop in the rate of Internet users of English as a source language has been increasing over the years, to about 28% in 2005, compared to 80% in 1996, and to the period of the early 1990's when English was the sole Internet medium. Nowadays, about 1600 other languages are being used side-by-side with English. According to Gaddol (2006, p. 44),

It is often claimed that English dominates computers and the internet, and that those wishing to use either must first learn English. That may have been true in the early days of the technology, but lack of English is no longer the barrier it once was.

According to 2000 statistics from Global Reach, the use of English on the internet was at 51.3% against 5.4% for Chinese and 11.3 % for other languages. According to the 2005 statistics drawn from Miniwatts International Ltd., English was at 32%, against 13% for Chinese, 20% for other, and 3% for Portuguese (quoted. in Graddol, 2006, p. 44).

The declining use of English on the internet is shown in the following statistics quoted in Graddol (2006, p. 45), and based on data obtained from the Latin American NGO Funredes. The data gives the percentages of internet users working in English and the web pages in English from 1996-2005.

Table 1

Year	Users	Web pages
2005	28%	46%
2004	30%	48%
2003	40%	49%
2002	38%	50%
2001	44%	51%
2000	49%	60%
1999	60%	68%
1998	60%	75%
1997	61%	83%
1996	80%	90%

The new figures provided by the different sets of statistical data should not come as a surprise to most specialists, considering that the power endowed to a language is a function of extra-

linguistic factors such as the economic power and political influence, among other things. It is quite obvious that the world has been witnessing a state of economic restructuring and evolution which will extend over the next few decades. This, according to Graddol (2000)

will alter the relationship between the west and the rest of the world – especially Asia—and will change the economic attractiveness of the major languages... however, proficiency in English may yet be one of the mechanisms for dividing those who have access to wealth and information from those who don't (p.25).

Attitudes to the widespread use of English are not always economically motivated. English is often viewed by some nationalistic movements as a threat to local languages, and thus generates a feeling of antagonism because of its associations with colonial history (see Crystal, 1997, p. 114).

Another form of antagonism to global English comes from two additional sources: (1) people who do not have fluency in English, and (2) people who are disadvantaged and marginalized because their first language is not a global language. When this happens, attitudes to global English are usually unfavorable especially in the case of minority groups who believe that a global language poses a threat to their own language and culture (*ibid*, p. 115).

A different concern over the use of English as a global language comes from the standard English users themselves as a non-standard form of English is being introduced through some mixed varieties like Spanglish, Hinglish, Japlish, etc. This concern resulted in the emergence of some protectionist movements against the growth of some immigrant languages like Spanish in the US (*ibid*: 115). In other words, global English with its new form is posing a threat to its own self. According to Arnold (2006, p. 3), “... globalization can also be seen as an electronic colonization, an electronic cultural imperialism. And on launching the Encarta, Bill Gates said, “One world: one dictionary,” the immediate response was, should this mean “one world: one language?” (Morrison, 2002, p. 26; also quoted in Arnold, 2006, p. 4).

An equally important factor that is most likely to curb the influence of global English is economic power. According to Davis (2003), “English is by no means the only language in global business ... as it only accounts for 30% of the world Gross Domestic Product, and is likely to account for less in the future” (quoted in Graddol, 2006, p. 62). The rapidly growing economic importance of China has resulted in the growing interest in learning Madarin worldwide. In fact, the trend toward learning languages other than English has been growing, and bilingual/multilingual education is on the rise even in the USA and the UK. According to Graddol (2006, p. 113), “The US-dominated phase of globalization is fading ... and English does not enjoy a complete hegemony.”

3. Globalization and the role of translation

English has unequivocally established itself as a global language for many reasons, arguments and counter arguments that have been presented thus far. With this background in mind, it is of paramount importance to assess the role of translation from and into English within the context of globalization. The idea is to provide valid arguments as to whether or not translation will continue to play a vital role in facilitating communication among peoples of the world who fail to communicate directly and first-hand through the global medium of English.

Research conducted on English/Arabic translation lends support to the thesis that the need for translation is on the rise. Al-Salman (2002, p. 99) says,

While acknowledging that the global market has given rise to the use of English as an international language, it is imperative that the need for translation from English into other languages and vice versa has become a pressing necessity.

This is actualized with the transfer of technology especially when the language of the ‘sending’ countries is not that of the ‘receiving’ ones, and when 60% of all the world’s technical documentation is produced in English and 40% of it is not (Harris, 1983, pp. 5-6, see Hajjaj and Jarrah, 1998, p. 6).

Wallraff (2000) argues that “English is not managing to sweep all else before it, not even in the US. According to the US Census Bureau, ten years ago, about one in seven people in this country spoke a language other than English at home – and since then the proportion of immigrants in the population has grown” (p. 1). A case in point is the new Spanish and Chinese immigrants to the US who, quite often, do not speak English well, and some do not even bother to learn it. In fact, “from 1980-1990, the number of Spanish speakers in the US grew by 50%, and over the same decade the number of speakers of Chinese in the US grew by 98% (op cit, p. 2).

Such statistics and attitudes towards English by speakers of other languages suggest that English is not and will probably not be the only medium of communication between peoples of the world. This implicates translation as the way out. And as Wallraff (2000) put it, “We monolingual English speakers may never be able to communicate fluently with everyone everywhere...we may well need help from something other than English” (p. 2). In other words, translation seems to be the solution. A case in point is the frequent and on-going translations of original English terms and expressions into the local languages of speakers of other languages. Needless to say that coining equivalents in foreign languages has become commonplace through many translation programs on the internet like Alta Vista’s Babel Fish (see Budiansky, 1998).

With the lack of clarity about the future of English as a global language, the truth remains that English is still the most-widely used language for international communication. Statistics show that English is more likely to be translated since it is still the leader in the publishing industry. Therefore, writing in English is advantageous in two ways: (1) it enables writers to reach a large audience, and (2) it gives them a better chance to be translated to other languages. In this case, global English does not impede the act of translation, but rather boosts it on two counts. First, the bulk of the published materials in English requires the transfer and dissemination of this kind of knowledge to other beneficiaries worldwide. This could be achieved either through the medium of English itself for those who master it, or else through translation into other languages. Second, although the share of English in world publishing has dropped considerably in recent years, the English-speaking world is keen to learn about the latest developments in the rest of the world. Advances in the scientific, technological, economic, and cultural fields, occur in world-leading industrial countries, some of which are of the non-English speaking hemisphere, such as China, Japan, Germany, and France, to name a few.

Regarding the effect of globalization on today's translation, Wiersema (2003) reports that....

because of the current trend of globalization, the translator no longer has the absolute need to always find a translation of a term in the target language if this could make the target-language text lose credibility. These translations contribute to a better and more correct understanding of the source culture (p. 1)

He concludes that "in our globalized world, translation is the key to understanding and learning foreign cultures... and that globalization decreases the element of foreignness in translation" (p. 6).

The role of translation in the Arab world and particularly in Jordan is well recognized. There is ample evidence that the need for translation is dramatically increasing. For example, all 20 Jordanian universities, 9 public and 11 private, offer courses leading to either a full-fledged degree in translation or else offer some compulsory courses in English-Arabic and Arabic-English translation as a component of the BA degree in English Language and Literature. In some universities, there are graduate-level programs leading to the MA degree in English-Arabic-English translation. A case in point is the University of Jordan in Amman and Yarmouk University in Irbid, which launched MA programs in translation as early as the 1980s. Job-wise, the job market is quite promising and encouraging for translators. Language experts in the Jordanian setting believe that even if English may be retreating as an international language, the effects will not be so abrupt and dramatic that the English

language will lose its power once and for all. For example, all pharmaceutical leaflets of medicines and drugs include an Arabic translation of the product's scientific and commercial name, indications, side effects, precautions, dose, etc., whether the source language is English or any other foreign language. Similarly, all appliances, electronic or otherwise, include an Arabic version of the original language in the operation manuals.

At another level, the educational system in Jordan has introduced other foreign languages besides English as early as first grade. Languages such as French and German are taught in some Jordanian private schools. Furthermore, academic departments of foreign languages other than English such as French, Spanish/English, German/English, and Italian/English have been established in most Jordanian universities. This suggests that the interest in English-Arabic-English translation as well as translation from and into other vital world languages is genuine and deeply rooted. And if the role of global English language were to slacken, or to be replaced by another language, the role of translation will not diminish.

In light of the above, the relationship between globalization and translation signals harmony and compatibility. In the context of globalization and the post-modernist era, translation did not slacken. Global English and translation made it possible for peoples of the world to exchange knowledge, cope with the latest technology, and enjoy the good returns of modernity.

4. Conclusion

Three major themes have been highlighted in this piece of work, namely global English as an international language, its future prospects, and the role of translation in the context of global English. The study has brought to light that English is by far the most qualified language to lead the world languages in the realm of international communication. English has taken the lead in disseminating and mediating information technology and resulting tools, like the e-mail service and the internet, among others. Equally important is the unprecedented role of English in dominating international politics and diplomacy, in resolving international conflicts, and in affecting the world economy.

There is ample evidence in support of the notion that English has become the global language of the world. The opinions expressed by the regional - Middle Eastern - EFL experts are consistent and in complete harmony with those depicted in the review of the literature and their relevant research findings outlined in section 1. The two teams hold similar views about the global status of English and its leading role worldwide. They strongly believe that no other language has shown the same degree of flexibility or appeal in terms of its power, attractiveness, and prestige. This is in favor of the thesis that English is flourishing

and is in demand because it is a practical language and, therefore, popular all over the world.

The paper, however, questions the current status of global English and casts doubts about future prospects. And while the paper argues that it is difficult to predict the future status of English, it suggests that the rise of other languages like Chinese, Spanish, and Arabic is most likely to pose a threat to the dominance of English.

On its third theme, globalization and the role of translation, the paper points to a sound relationship of harmony and compatibility between the two. Globalization did not clash with translation, and translation did not lose ground in the post-modernist era of globalization. On the contrary, global English enabled peoples of the non-English speaking world to be abreast of the latest advances in science and technology, while at the same time providing the English-speaking world with unlimited access to other people's contributions and cultures by the transfer of knowledge through translation. The relationship between the two is therefore one of harmony without signaling any conflict. In other words, translation will continue to have a major role to play worldwide irrespective of the language which assumes the global role.

The findings of the paper are consistent with the literature on the topic which recognizes the global role of English as an international language. This role and accorded status come from the association the English language has with unlimited economic, political, and material resources; its role in the decision-making process on the international level; and its ability to cope with global technical developments. The paper, however, shares the concern of language experts and specialists in the field over the unclear future of English. There is enough evidence to suggest that the global status of English is most likely to be challenged by other languages which enjoy demographic, economic and technical growth and power.

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Student Perceptions of Native & Non-native English Teachers' Attitudes, Teaching Skills Assessment and Performance

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Abstract

Native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) have played an important role in China's foreign language teaching. Every university in China now has native English teachers teaching various English courses to students of different levels. There are, however, few systematic studies on the differences between Non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) and NESTs in China. This paper tries to identify the differences between these two groups of teachers in terms of attitude, means of instruction and teaching results as perceived by the students.

Key words: teaching attitudes, instruction, evaluation, teaching results

Introduction

Since China adopted a policy of reform and opened up to the outside world in 1978, universities have been permitted to hire foreign teachers to teach foreign languages. In recent years, especially after China's entry into the WTO and its successful bid for the 2008 Olympic Games, there has been an unprecedented increase in English learning. Along with this surge in interest for English language learning is the great increase in the demand for native speakers. Foreign teachers that were once only found on university campuses now appear in some junior high schools, primary schools and kindergartens in developed cities. Another big demand for foreign teachers is from private English training schools that spring up like mushrooms in virtually every city in China. They offer spoken English classes to pupils from kindergartens and primary schools, Reading, Writing and other ESP (English for Specific Purposes) classes to adults.

Compared with those working in private schools, foreign teachers who teach in a Chinese institution of higher learning have to undergo a series of examinations and interviews. Once

they finish the procedures, they sign a contract with their future employer in which detailed duties, requirements, and welfare conditions are specified. Native English teachers teach various English courses to both English majors and non-English majors. The courses they teach range from English Pronunciation, Spoken English, Reading and Writing for beginners to Linguistics, Literature and Advanced Writing for advanced learners of higher grade English majors and non-English majors. They work together with Chinese teachers of English. With China's economy further expanding, universities are able to hire more foreign teachers. This is especially the case in Southern China which was the first to open up to the outside world and has been enjoying favorable policies since 1980, for example, the first economic zones which were established in Guangdong Province.

Both NNESTs and NESTs have their advantages and disadvantages. Medgyes (1994) provide six positive characteristics of NNESTs. They 1) provide a good learner model to their students, 2) are able to teach language strategy very effectively, 3) are able to provide more information about the language to their students, 4) understand the difficulties and needs of the students, 5) are able to anticipate and predict language difficulties, and 6) can (in EFL settings) use the students' native language to their advantage. One of the obvious disadvantages is that majority of NNESTs, as Medgyes (1992) remarks, even the best nonnative speakers of English, will never reach "native competence" in spite of all their efforts. They might be able to come quite close to it but will always be "halted by a glass wall", a kind of invisible "plateau" where their language competence will stop improving.

NESTs also enjoy several advantages. First of all, their authentic English attracts students' attention. Secondly, their lively, flexible and unpredictable teaching methods differ greatly from those of Chinese teachers. Thirdly, a lively class environment in which students are encouraged to speak and express themselves has drawn more and more students into their classes (Li & Meng, 2005). At the same time, a few problems do exist. First of all, foreign teachers' knowledge of their Chinese students' learning habits and their needs is very limited (Li, 2005). This was even more obvious several years ago, when English teaching in China was largely test-oriented. Test training for different national exams for English and non-English majors have dominated English classrooms. Secondly, students who have registered the courses given by foreign teachers complain that their teachers would choose material at will. The textbooks (normally textbooks compiled by Chinese authors) assigned by the designated department were left untouched. They prefer to use their own materials, pictures, movies, and other props. Finally, foreign teachers are flexible in evaluating students' performance. Sometimes, the evaluation has no fixed criteria (Li, 2005; Wu, Shao & Wang, 2005)

There is no doubt that competent NESTs share many of the traits that a competent NNEST has. This paper tries to identify the general differences between NESTs as one group and NNESTs as another that teach the same group of students in terms of attitude, means of instruction and evaluation and teaching results perceived by the students.

Research questions

Based on the previous findings, this study proposes to investigate whether:

- 1) There is any difference between native teachers of English and their Chinese counterparts in terms of teaching attitudes.
- 1) Foreign teachers are more flexible in giving instructions and use more media in classrooms.
- 2) Students believe they learn more from foreign teachers' classes.

Methods

65 (53 girls and 12 boys) third year college students majoring in English language and literature from English department of a key national university in South China took part in the survey. They were asked to comment on the six teachers of native English speakers who have taught them various courses in the past five semesters. The courses include such basic ones as Speaking and Listening, Pronunciation in the first two semesters and some business related practical English courses in the third, fourth and fifth semesters. There were 14 Chinese teachers. Three of the Chinese teachers taught non-English courses, such as College Chinese, Computer Basics and were thus excluded from the survey. The eleven Chinese teachers of English taught Comprehensive English, Extensive Reading, Writing, Practical English, Translation, English Literature and a number of elective courses.

Table one

Information pertaining to the two groups of teachers

Groups	Gender Ratio (F/M)	Average age	Degrees	Origin
6 NESTs	3:3	48.2	Bachelors (3) Masters (3)	2 Australians 2 Americans 2 British
11 NNESTs	7:4	38.6	Bachelors (2) Masters (9)	11 Chinese

The study was done in two phases. In the first phase, a questionnaire was administered with the purpose of finding the specific differences between the two groups of teachers. A questionnaire of 20 items was administered during the break time. Each of the 20 items was followed by three choices. N > C (Foreign teachers are doing better than their Chinese counterparts); C > N (Chinese teachers are doing better than their foreign counterparts); N= C

(The groups are doing more or less the same). Teaching attitude refers to the teacher's prevailing tendency to respond favorably or unfavorably to teaching and students. The Teaching Attitude component contained seven statements. Means of instruction was defined as the way the teacher delivered the course material, including the use of media, activities organized and interaction with the students. This component was also judged on the basis of seven statements. Another component investigated how teachers evaluated their students' performance. This component contained two statements. One statement asked what method the teachers used to evaluate their students' performance. The other statement measured the fairness of the teacher's evaluation as perceived by the students. The last portion of the survey investigated the effectiveness of the teaching. This component, referred to later as 'Teaching result', contained four statements. It measures the students' belief on how much they have benefited from the courses given by the two groups of teachers, their interest development towards the subject taught and their growth in the language skills in terms of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

The second phase is an interview with the students from three levels of English proficiency---low level (the average score below 75 points in a 100 scale), mid-level (between 75 and 85 points) and top level (above 85 points). Three students from the top and low levels and six from the mid-level are randomly chosen to represent the whole class. They are asked to tell the researchers where they feel the teachers should improve to better meet their demands. The interview was conducted in the fifth week of the fifth semester (One semester lasts for 18 weeks.)

Findings

1. Findings from the questionnaire.

Table 1

General findings in the four categories:

Categories	Results		
Teaching attitude	N < C (12.6%)	N = C (68.3%) **	N < C (19.1%)
Means of instruction	N > C (61%) **	N = C (20.7%)	N < C (18.3%)
Evaluation	N > C (58.5%) *	N = C (30.2%)	N < C (11.3%)
Teaching result	N < C (13.8%)	N = C (13.8%)	N < C (73.4%) ***

Significance Levels: *** very significant, ** fairly significant, * significant

In terms of attitude towards students and the course, more than two thirds of the students believe there is no significant difference between the two groups of teachers. More than 61 percent of the students from the class believe foreign teachers try different means to deliver text material more often than their Chinese counterparts. When it comes to evaluation of students' achievement, nearly 60 percent of the students report that the foreign teachers are more flexible than the Chinese teachers. The biggest difference is found in teaching results perceived by the students. Nearly three-fourths (73.4 percent) of the students believe that they learn more from courses taught by the Chinese teachers.

Table 2

Differences found in the individual items between the two groups.

Categories	Subcategories	Results	
Attitude	4. Constantly learn to enrich oneself.	C >N (59.4%) *	
	5. Create friendly class environment		N >C (64.3 %) **
Instruction	8. Try different means to deliver text materials.		N >C (61.6 %) **
	9. Make more use of modern media.	C >N (66.5%) **	
	11. Fully prepared for lectures.	C >N (55.2 %)*	
	12. Actively interact with students.		N >C (59.4%) *
Evaluation	15. Flexible evaluation of students' achievement.		N >C (58.5%) *
Results	17. I learn a lot of things from the course.	C >N (73.4%) * * *	
	18. Students learn to think for themselves.		N >C(70.2%) * * *

Table 2 shows some of the differences in individual subcategories. Within the category of teaching attitude, foreign teachers and Chinese teachers of English differ in two. Students believe their Chinese teachers are more likely than the foreign teachers to learn new skills and knowledge to meet the new challenges in educational technology. Consistent with the general belief, near two-thirds of the students (except those who are very poor at spoken English) surveyed believe the foreign teachers' class is friendlier and they have less stress in class compared with Chinese teachers' classes. The biggest differences occur in class instruction. More than 60 percent of the students believe that their foreign teachers are more flexible in delivering course materials. Foreign teachers interact more with their students than their Chinese colleagues in class. However, a large proportion of the students find that their Chinese teachers make more use of modern media, including the Internet, Powerpoint, flash, etc. More than half of the students also believe that their Chinese teachers spend more time than their foreign teachers preparing their course material and are better organized in class. Near 60 percent of the students believe their foreign teachers are flexible in assessing students achievement though both groups are believed equally fair in the process. The biggest difference between the two groups exists in the outcome of the teaching perceived by the

students. Nearly three-fourths of the students believe that they learn more from the courses given by their Chinese teachers of English. However, a similar amount of students believe their foreign teachers more often encourage them to think independently.

2. Findings from the interview

In the interview, the students at the top level enjoy foreign teachers' classes more than the low level students who enjoy Chinese teachers' class more. The latter reported that they felt nervous in foreign teachers' classes because of their inability to express themselves properly. In Chinese teachers' classes they could use Chinese when they were not able to find the English equivalents. The three groups all demand more face-to-face interaction between the teachers of both groups and the students after class. Although emails and telephones are popular, students have difficulty explaining themselves in English when they run into problems in doing homework and reviewing newly learned texts.

Discussion

In terms of attitude towards students and teaching, there is no significant difference found between the two groups. The students perceive both groups as hardworking and competent. The teachers were patient when presented with the students' problems. Students' inquiries sent by emails and telephone messages were replied to in a timely fashion. Homework was carefully corrected and graded.

As far as the means of instruction is concerned, foreign teachers' approaches to text materials are more varied. But the Chinese teachers of English use considerably more media, PPT and the Internet in class instruction. The foreign teachers use more conventional media to assist teaching, e.g. recorder, CD/DVD players, movies and radio programs.

To facilitate self-accessed learning, English textbooks published in China are now equipped with electronic versions complete with movie clips, pictures and illustrations. One criterion for the annual teaching assessment puts a lot of weight on multi-media use in instruction. Before each new semester, Chinese teachers are required to submit the multi-media version of their lesson plans. There is no such requirement for native speakers of English.

Evaluation is something that students concern most. The students believe that their foreign teachers are more flexible than the Chinese teachers in evaluating the students' achievement. Both groups are believed fair in evaluating students' performance and achievement. The courses given by Chinese teachers are mostly required courses with standard written test papers and grading criteria from the test paper databank. While the courses given by foreign teachers, for example, Oral English, Movie Watching, Business

Negotiation courses, are either elective courses or new courses, teachers have more freedom to decide on the means of evaluating the students' performance. With regard to the teaching results, the students believe they benefit more from courses taught by the Chinese teachers. Some courses, especially Comprehensive English and Business English are test-oriented. Progress is easily seen and felt when they take the national TEM-4/8 (Test for English Majors) and BEC (Business English Certificate). The progress they have made in such courses as Oral English, Writing, Literature, Media English Reading given by native speakers of English are rather slow to experience.

Conclusions

Educationalists and policy makers have long reached consensus that qualified native teachers of English with proper educational background and training are an important part of EFL teaching in China. They are live role models for Chinese students in acquiring authentic spoken and written English. At the same time, as Canagarajah (1999) has claimed, NESTs will be better teachers in an EFL context because of their unique cultural knowledge.

Modern telecommunication means do not seem to draw the teachers and the students any closer. Students, especially those poor achievers, should get more help from the teachers. More face-to-face interactions will help eliminate their anxiety in expressing themselves.

As is found in this study, competent English teachers, trained and educated in China or English speaking countries, share many of the same expertise, personality traits, strengths as well as weaknesses. The Chinese teachers of English should learn from the native speakers in creating a student-friendly classroom environment and using different ways to evaluate their students' performance. The former may also focus more on developing students' ability to think independently instead of conveying factual knowledge only. The native speakers should know more about the Chinese students' needs and learn to make full use of multi-media facility in the classrooms. As NNESTs and NESTs complement each other with their strength and weaknesses (Matsuda & Matsuda, 2001), the two groups of teachers who teach the same class may communicate more and exchange their ideas on how to teach the same group of students more effectively.

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Appendix

Dear Students,

To better understand the differences between Native English-speaking teachers and Non-native English-speaking teachers (Chinese teachers of English) in attitude, means of instruction and teaching result, we'd like to administer this questionnaire in your class. It may take you a few minutes to finish it, but your ideas and choices count.

Thanks for your help.

Terms and definitions:

Foreign teachers refer to those who have taught you in the past two years. Chinese teachers refer to language teachers of English. Both groups should be taken a group.

N--- Native English-Speaking Teachers

C---Chinese teachers of English

>- better/ higher/more than

<- not as good as / lower/smaller than

= ---as good / well as

1	Enjoy teaching as a profession.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
2	Communicate with students in and after class	N >C() C >N() N= C()
3	Contribute to students' growth.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
4	Keep learning and enriching oneself.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
5	Build good terms with students.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
6	Understand students and know their special needs.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
7	Provide a non-threatening, welcoming environment that nurtures students.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
8	Try various approaches to teaching the course.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
9	Use computers and other modern teaching facility in class.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
10	Organize class activities.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
11	well-prepared for each class.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
12	Deliver each lecture with great enthusiasm.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
13	Interact with students.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
14	Enable each student to have a chance to practice his/her English.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
15	Grade students papers and test papers with patience and fairness.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
16	Use various ways to evaluate students' performance.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
17	Enable me to learn a lot from the course.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
18	Encourage me to think for myself.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
19	My interest in the area increases as a result of taking the course.	N >C() C >N() N= C()
20	My verbal ability has been enhanced.	N >C() C >N() N= C()

教学态度、教学方法、考核方法和教学效果问卷

同学们好，

下面是一个由 20 个题项组成的问卷，旨在了解外籍教师与中国外语教师在教学态度、方法和教学效果等方面差异，以便我们日后更好得改进工作。

谢谢合作！

概念解释：

外籍教师和中国外语教师指入学以来所有为你讲授过课程的外语老师，不针对某个老师。

F--- Foreign English Teachers

C---Chinese teachers of English

>- better/ higher/more than

<- not as good as / lower/smaller than

= ---as good / well as

请在你认为合适的选项后画√， 每项只选一个。

1 爱岗敬业。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
2 课上课下主动与学生交流。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
3 认为自己的工作对学生的成长有帮助。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
4 不断学习充实自己。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
5 建立融洽的师生关系。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
6 了解学生与他们的特别要求。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
7 课堂环境愉悦和谐。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
8 尝试不同方法授课。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
9 在课堂使用电脑、多媒体等先进教学设备授课。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
10 组织课堂活动。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
11 备课充分。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
12 授课充满热情。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
13 积极与学生互动。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
14 给每个学生均等机会在课堂发言。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
15 考察学生学业成绩灵活多样。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
16 作业和试卷评判认真公正。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
17 本课程使我受益非浅	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
18 教师鼓励学生独立思考。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
19 由于教师的讲述， 我对该课程产生了兴趣	N >C () C >N() N= C ()
20 我的语言能力得到了提高。	N >C () C >N() N= C ()



Pre-testing the Annual Activities Survey for Language Teachers (AASLT)

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I. Introduction

This paper aims to introduce an evaluation measure called, The Annual Activities Survey for Language Teachers (AASLT). The AASLT is a survey designed for administrators to deal with a language teacher's weaknesses in the area of professional development. In order to provide the relevant background knowledge and an explanation as to why the AASLT was created, some current concerns found in the area of professional development research will be explored. This will be followed by a description of the AASLT. Finally, an examination of the cognitive pre-testing the AASLT was subjected to will be discussed to reveal how its use and validity have been ameliorated.

II. Concerns with professional development

Professional development in language teaching is often misperceived as a one-time activity that is not continuous, and not subject to re-evaluation. And yet, while a teacher may see professional development and non-teaching related activities as either just an addition to one's work load, an initiative from above (Stir, 2006) or feel there is little support for it from administration, there does appear to be an awareness among teachers of their lack of professional development undertaken and weaknesses in it. However, in the language teaching profession today, there is little in the sense of motivation and action taken to improve this overall situation. The reasons for this are often inter-related and, in many cases, compounded by one another. Consequently, in order to fully understand the current concerns

with professional development in language teaching today, it is important to look at what some of the research has shown.

To begin with, it is important to recognize that concerns with professional development first surface during one's initial teacher training period. Based on a study done by Stir (2006), it was reported that 90% of student teachers during their training indicated that they want to become more aware of their practice. Yet, comparatively, the same percentage of these student teachers takes no action. Moreover, as such teachers progress past the training stage and into the teaching profession, the lack of effort put into professional development continues and is often inevitably 'justified' by positive student opinions (Marsh, 1984; Kulik, 2001). This, along with the failure of teachers to consider the social contexts they work in, is often not accounted for (Stir, 2006). What is more, the unwillingness of tertiary institutions and universities to respond to the challenges of sustainability and the rate at which professional development needs to occur, suggests that they themselves have only succeeded in compounding this ongoing dilemma (Cortese, 1998).

Accountability for professional development in the workplace also appears as a concern. Confusion over who is actually responsible for doing it, the teachers or the administration, can often lead to its failure to materialize. To add, when there is no teacher control in professional development, a feeling of stress and dissatisfaction can settle in, which can lead to overall disinterest in it. Yet, in contrast, when professional development is perceived as optional, there is little to no follow up on it. In some related cases, teachers can even develop a fake sense of competence completion, believing they know enough and have reached their pinnacle of expertise. (Williams & Berry, 1999) This, in itself, can have a profound effect on teachers, as over time, they can mistakenly come to see their colleagues as professionally equal in every aspect when, in truth, they are not. What this suggests is most concerning. Teachers are potentially prone to manifest an imagined level of professionalism that can lead to a marked plateau. They come to believe they have reached 'expertise' and consequently, become content with that.

This confusion between professionalism (i.e. current expertise) and professional development (i.e. the ongoing development of expertise) (Gleeson, Davies, & Wheeler, 2005) is inevitably responsible for the misnomer that a community of professional practice exists (Lave & Wenger, 1991). It is hard to refute this when professional development is often not included in aspects of hiring practices (Gleeson, Davies, & Wheeler, 2005). Current trends would indicate the presence of flexible and casual practices in professional recruitment, which can, in the long run, hinder opportunities for professional development (Gleeson, Davies, & Wheeler, 2005). This would seem to only negate the process of developing

professionally in the minds of teachers. Other similar limitations, like those relating to contracts and employment duration, can also adversely affect teachers since there are little long-term benefits for them. Consequently, with such increasing internal instability in the workplace, there appears an even greater need to continuously re-evaluate professional development in language teaching.

III. The AASLT: What is it?

The AASLT is a measure specifically designed to resolve inadequacies in professional development evaluation. It is not a measure used to evaluate classroom teaching. Instead, the AASLT functions to evaluate the non-teaching related activities of an individual teacher, particularly those related to professional development. What is more, it serves to specifically diagnose, address and raise awareness of a language teacher's known and unknown weaknesses in professional development. In so doing, it is believed to provide the motivation necessary for a teacher to improve upon these.

IV. The cognitive pre-testing of the AASLT

The value of a survey depends on whether the respondent interprets the meaning of the items as the survey designers intended. This requires the survey designers to agree upon a standardized referential and connotative meaning for each of the items. The standardization of items assumes that respondents are able to understand the items being asked, are understood in the same way by all respondents, and that the respondents are willing and able to answer them (Collins, 2003). However, standardization of data measurement tools does not remove all errors. While piloting a survey will sometimes reveal overt problems it will not provide evidence of causes (Collins, 2003). Pre-testing items enables the survey designers to ensure that the meaning the respondents attribute to the item is consistent with the one that the designers intended.

Various cognitive methods have been applied to the testing of surveys. These include cognitive interviewing, behaviour coding, respondent debriefing, and expert review, among others. Several papers have investigated how these methods compared to determine if they varied in anyway in terms of reliability and validity (Presser & Blair, 1994; Willis, Schechter, & Whitaker, 1999). The study by Willis, Schechter, and Whitaker (1999) found that different pre-testing techniques appeared to show a reasonable degree of consistency and that cognitive interviews conducted by different interviewers with varying methods and levels of experience, still revealed similar results. Cognitive interviewing is one diagnostic tool for pre-testing surveys, which has been used for identifying problems at an early stage of development

(Hughes, 2003). Two main cognitive interviewing techniques are think-aloud and probing. In the think-aloud approach, the respondent is asked to verbalize his/her thoughts as one proceeds through the 4 stages of item comprehension, retrieval, judgment, and response. Cognitive interviews can be either concurrent or retrospective. In concurrent interviews, respondents describe their thoughts while answering the item. In retrospective interviews, after the respondent completes the interview, he/she is asked about the process used to generate his/her answers. The concurrent think aloud method has the advantage of capturing the information while it is fresh in the respondent's mind. Probes are used to explore comprehension, retrieval, judgment and response processes (Willis, 1994). Probing involves the interviewer asking specific questions to elicit how the respondent went about answering the item. In addition to being either concurrent or retrospective, probes can be pre-scripted before hand and agreed upon by the interviewers, or unscripted where the individual interviewer creates them during the interview as needed. The Think aloud method tends to work better for self-completion surveys than it does for face-to-face interviews, however, both methods can be combined effectively (Collins, 2003; Willis, 1994). In the cognitive interviews conducted for this research, the concurrent think-aloud method was used with unscripted concurrent probes.

The analysis of interviews has been criticized for being too subjective (Drennan, 2003). Therefore, in order to address the issue of the validity of data obtained from these interviews, a taxonomy of problem classification can be used (Drennan, 2003). This taxonomy allows for the creation of a problem-coding scheme to standardize the process of interview analysis so to increase its objectivity. The item-and-answer model derived from cognitive psychology is a commonly cited representation of how respondents answer survey items. To answer items, they must comprehend, retrieve the necessary information from long-term memory, make a judgment about the information needed to answer the item, and respond to the item (Tourangeau, 1984). Comprehension is conclusive to the respondent understanding each item in the same way the researcher intended. After this, the respondent must retrieve relevant information from long-term memory. Judgment is the process by which respondents formulate their answers to a survey item. There are two parts to the response: formatting and editing it. Formatting is fitting the response into one of the answers offered and editing is the act of revising the answer before it is communicated because the respondent may want to protect him/herself. A coding scheme was used based on this item-and-answer model, which was adapted by Hughes (2003) from the original developed by Presser and Blair (1994).

Code	Problem
P1	Does the respondent have any difficulty understanding the meaning of the item or the meaning of particular words or concepts?
P2	Does the respondent have any difficulty remembering the item?
P3	Does the respondent have different understandings of what the item refers to?
P4	Does the respondent have any difficulty recalling, formulating or reporting an answer?

The coding scheme (an adapted item-and-answer model)

There were a total of five one-on-one interviews completed in a work setting. The respondents were all full time language teachers at a university in Japan. Audio recordings were made of the interviews, for review later on. Upon completion of the cognitive interviews, the coding results for each survey item were summarized in a chart. Briefly, we found that out of a total of 23 items, there were 12 P1, 0 P2, 5 P3, and 3 P4 problems. A review of each problem took place in the form of a discussion between the authors. Following the discussion a decision was made to determine the actions required for each of the items. We used the following list of possible actions taken from Bowden et al. (2002).

- acceptance of the original question and meaning
- acceptance of the original question with change in meaning
- change question (slightly) but keep the meaning the same
- drop the question and write a new question (and new intended meaning)

V. cognitive pre-testing results & example changes

The AASLT was reduced from a 23 item survey to a 19 item one through the use of cognitive pre-testing ($n = 5$). Following the pre-testing, P1 was found to be the most common problem with 12 occurrences. This was followed by P3 with 5, and P4 with 3. No P2 problems were encountered during this round of pre-testing.

An example of a P1 problem occurred with such items as 18 and 19:

18. I made specific positive changes to the general running of the department outside committee responsibilities.
19. I made a direct contribution to the general running of the department outside of my committee responsibilities.

Some respondents could not comprehend what was meant by “specific positive changes” and “a direct contribution”, whereas others saw them as having the same meaning. As a result, these were both dropped and replaced with:

16. I belonged to the _____ committee at my institution this year. (Name of Committee) _____ Committee Position: _____

An example of a P3 problem occurred with such items as 22:

22. I am currently an academic advisor to _____ students. Please list the student name, year, and major.

The term academic advisor was interpreted differently. Some respondents interpreted it as meaning supervising graduate students (*intended meaning*). However, others interpreted it as only giving general educational advise to any student that requests it (*unintended meaning*). Consequently, the question was rephrased and simplified, but without a change in meaning:

18. I was an official academic advisor to _____ graduate/undergraduate student(s) this year.

An example of a **P4 problem** occurred with such items as 11.

11. I am a member of _____ academic society or societies. Please provide the society name(s) and date(s) you joined.

Name: _____ Date joined:_____

Most respondents could not remember the date joined, especially if it was more than 1 or 2 years ago. Therefore, the question was slightly altered without a change in meaning:

10. I became a member of _____ academic society or societies this year.

Please provide the society name(s) you joined: _____

VI. Concluding remarks

In this presentation, an evaluation measure, The Annual Activities Survey for Language Teachers (AASLT), was initially introduced to explain how it could be used by administrators to diagnose and address problematic circumstances in professional development through the assessment of specific professional development activities of one's teaching staff. This was necessary in order to bring the fundamental focus; the cognitive pre-testing that the AASLT, into perspective and to reveal how its use and validity have been improved upon. As the next step in the development of the AASLT, it will now be necessary to engage in a second round of pre-testing, but with a larger number of respondents. Upon completion of this, the results will be scrutinized against the results of the first round of pre-testing to validate the changes that were made. This will be done and paralleled with the continued collection of feedback from presentations and workshops as the means to possible future revisions.

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Overcoming Affective Barriers for Continuous Language Learning

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Abstract

We conducted a longitudinal study in order to improve foreign language students' social and emotional learning skills through an eclectic approach which is based on the underlying principles of Emotional Intelligence Theory, Cooperative Learning and Neuro-linguistic Programming. We specifically aimed at making our students aware of their own character traits and personal strengths/weaknesses and then, helped them fulfil their mental, emotional and social potentials for better language learning experience. The focus of this paper is on the students' perceptions of the interventions we made, based on our management plan, to enhance academic, social and emotional learning and its long term effects on students' motivation for learning English.

Keywords: Affect, social-emotional language learning, motivation, continuous language learning

1. Introduction

Together with the spread of English as an international language, the importance of English education has been widely recognized in countries where English is learned as a foreign language. Turkey, being one of these countries, has a great number of universities that offer programs in which the medium of instruction is in English. In order to equip learners with the skills to cope with the demands of such programs in terms of language proficiency, preparatory language programs are given before students start to study in their departments,

as in our case. In the institution in which we work, there is an intensive skills-based language program aimed at developing both linguistic competence and language learning awareness of students.

Our program aims to equip learners with skills to take active roles in planning and executing language learning activities both during the formal instruction program and in further semesters in their departments where they are required to improve English either entirely on their own or with minimal support. However, not all of our learners are able to extend their language learning studies beyond the language program in their preparatory year. Within our context (monolingual society) where English is a content course, where the teacher and the school are perceived as the only sources of foreign language learning, where teachers like to be in the center of the learning process and where learners are teacher-dependent, learners find it difficult to continue their act of learning both in and outside the formal school setting. Often they gradually lose their language skills and forget what they once knew.

2. Literature review

Reilly (1988) states that just as human beings possess a great capacity to acquire language, they also have a capacity for losing it. According to him, language acquisition and maintenance depend on instructional factors, relating to the way in which the language is initially acquired; cultural factors, for example the status and usefulness of the language in a particular society; and personality factors such as the individual characteristics of the speaker. In keeping with Reilly, Thanasoulas (2002) argues that learning a foreign language is different from learning other subjects. Therefore, language learning should take account of a variety of factors that are likely to promote, or even militate against success.

Second language learning has been described as a cyclical process: strong motivation, positive attitudes, and effective learning effort may result in increased language attainment and the feeling of progress, which may in turn enhance motivation and facilitate further effort (Gan et al, 2004). Therefore, as Dewaele (2005) suggests, second language acquisition needs to account for the psychological and emotional dimensions of second language learning.

In recent research into language learning, affect has been included as a construct. Horwitz (in Woodrow, 2006) for example, argues that affect is a significant predictor of both academic and linguistic success. Similarly, Rossiter (2003) reports differential success in second or foreign language learning as being attributed to individual differences such as intelligence, aptitude, personality, motivation, attitude and anxiety. Bialystok and Fröhlich (1978) identified a variety of factors to account for the variance in the level of proficiency

attained by individuals learning a second language and classified these factors into two basic categories: cognitive and affective variables. Affective variables, they say, describe individual characteristics relating to factors such as attitude and motivation (p.327). Ehrman, Leaver and Oxford (2003) also argue that individual differences in second language learning are reflections of affective variables. These affective factors include motivation, self-efficacy, tolerance of ambiguity, and anxiety (2003, p.319). They further add that a number of other affective factors exist, and yet they are all in some way related to motivation. These include defense mechanisms, internal attitudes, self-esteem, alertness required to act, self-regulation, self-management, beliefs and emotional intelligence. All of these factors play an important role in promoting or preventing learner autonomy (p.322). As acknowledged by many other researchers in the field (Sparks and Ganschow, 1991; Kristmanson, 2000; Finch, 2001; Dörnyei, 2003; Rossiter, 2003; Bernat, 2004), the fact that affective contributions are central to second or foreign language learning implies that there is a need to consider affect in language learning. There is enough evidence for the positive effect of affective factors in second language learning. The question, then, is to identify the specific conditions to enhance affect in second language classrooms, as raised by Rossiter (*ibid*).

3. Purpose of the study

As the above literature review shows, there is a positive relationship between affect and performance in second language. Being aware of the fact that the affective concerns of our learners play an important role as barriers to their language learning, we incorporated social-emotional learning skills into our existing language syllabus. We specifically aimed at making our students aware of their own character traits and personal strengths/weaknesses and then helped them fulfil their mental, emotional and social potentials for better language learning experience, not only during the formal training at our institution but also in the following years at their departments. To this end, we conducted a longitudinal study in order to improve foreign language students' social and emotional learning skills through an eclectic approach which is based on the underlying principles of Emotional Intelligence Theory, Cooperative Learning and Neuro-linguistic Programming.

4. Methodology

4.1. Participants

The participants were 26 students enrolled in language preparation program at Cukurova University in Turkey. Their age ranged from 19-24 years. They had been studying English for at least seven years. They all took English lessons during their secondary and high school

education. The following table presents detailed information about the participants' profile.

Table 1

The profile of the participants

Gender	Female	6
	Male	20
Departments	Food Engineering	5
	Textile Engineering	2
	Industrial Engineering	3
	Mechanical Engineering	6
	Computer Engineering	4
	Electronics and Electrical Engineering	2
	Economics	1
	International Relations	1
	Business and Administration	1
	Tourism and Hotel Management	1
Previous language learning experience	10 years	23
	8 years	1
	7 years	2

4.2. Our management plan

There are three guiding conceptions behind our implementation:

1. Emotional Intelligence Theory (EI)
2. Neuro-linguistic Programming (NLP)
3. Cooperative Language Learning (CLL)

These conceptions form the core mission of our language program; not as the ultimate goals of our teaching but as tools incorporated into the existing language curriculum for more productive language learning experience. In other words, while teaching the language skills we deliberately chose materials focusing on the five areas of EI - self-awareness, self-motivation, self-regulation, empathy, and relationship skills; and the operating principles, core pillars and techniques of NLP for helping the students increase the awareness of their thoughts, feelings and actions, and thus, reshape their patterns to balance these.

We believe that every student has preferred modes of acquiring and processing information, certain beliefs and values towards learning, and past subjective experiences in language learning. This means that each student is unique. Therefore, for effective language learning to be realized and to demonstrate that any learning and change is possible, we need to help our students discover how they create their subjective experience, how their beliefs and values hinder or support language learning and how they create their emotional states accordingly.

Within this framework, before all else, we tried to provide the best possible conditions for

effective learning to take place. Graham (2004) argues that students' desire to pursue language study when it is no longer compulsory is influenced by the degree to which they feel able to meet this challenge. In line with this argument, we aimed to create a learning environment to improve the academic performance of our learners, and reduce the problematic behaviours, beliefs or attitudes hindering successful language learning. Our actions can be classified under four headings:

1. Ensuring the Ecological Conditions
2. Firming the Emotional Ground
3. Building up Effective Communication Skills
4. Redirecting Brain Patterns towards Internal Harmony

The focus of this article is on the students' perceptions of the interventions we made, based on our management plan to enhance academic, social and emotional learning and its long term effects on students' language learning motivation. More detailed description of our management plan and the language learning activities conducted were discussed elsewhere (Inozu, Tuyan, & Cakir Surmeli in press; Rodopi, 2004).

4.3. Measurement

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative data sources were used in order to find answers to the following research questions:

1. What do the students think about the importance of personal skills and competences in success in the English courses?
2. How do the students perceive their personal skills required for success at the university courses?
3. How do these skills relate to the desire to continue to study English after the preparatory program?

In order to elicit data for the above questions, two questionnaires were used. The first questionnaire was adapted from Evans and Kersh (2004). In their study, the authors investigated the learning processes of adult learners with particular reference to self-awareness and self-evaluation of their personal competences and skills. They view self-evaluation as a potentially significant part of the learning process in colleges of further education. Their research identifies the positive impact of self-evaluation on so-called 'soft outcomes' such as levels of learners' confidence, increased self-esteem and attitudes to learning. According to the authors, there are five dimensions of key competences for success in college setting. These are: 1. methodological competences, such as time-management and decision making; 2. social competences, such as ability to work with others and involvement;

3. competences related to attitudes and values, such as confidence, self-responsibility and motivation; 4. learning competences, such as critical thinking and self-learning; and 5. content-related competences, such as subject-matter work. These five dimensions of personal competences are seen as crucial for learning success. The Self-Evaluation Questionnaire was developed by Evans and Kersh from these key competences. We believe that these key competences have also an important place in the context of language learning and motivation for further language study that extends beyond formal instruction. Therefore, by drawing on Evans and Kersh's study, we asked the participants to comment on the importance of these skills for success at language courses in university education and further studies. The questionnaire was given to the students twice, once at the beginning of the academic year and again at the end. When we first provided the questionnaire, we aimed to assess our learners' awareness of the importance of personal competences. Then, throughout the academic year, we modified our teaching for an explicit training on these personal competences. Finally, the questionnaire was given for the second time in order to see whether our language program enriched with tasks originating from EI, NLP and CLL had caused any change in our students' opinions regarding the importance of personal competences.

The second questionnaire was a modified version of the Affective Survey developed by Ehrman and Oxford (1991). It includes statements about intrinsic-extrinsic motivation, desire to learn English, beliefs about self as a language learner, and anxiety. In order to assess the long-term effects of our program on the students' language learning motivation, we gave the questionnaire two times with a year interval. The first was immediately after the academic year; and the second was a year after. Data analysis for both questionnaires was performed using the SPSS package of statistical program. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the participants' responses.

For a more detailed and in-depth analysis of students' opinions structured interviews were held with the students at the end of the academic year. Each interview lasted 15 to 20 minutes. They were done in a friendly atmosphere in the researchers' office. The researchers took detailed notes during the interviews. The participants were asked the following questions:

- What skills, knowledge or capabilities did you gain in language education at prep school at Cukurova University?
- How do you evaluate your competence in this course regarding time management, ability to work with others, confidence, motivation, self learning, team work and involvement?

- What did you experience at prep school that you feel happy to have gained for your continued language learning process?

5. Results

5.1. Results of the questionnaire for personal competences

Table 2 below presents the results of the questionnaire in percentages:

Table 2

Importance of skills for success at language courses in university education

SKILLS	FIRST			SECOND		
	Very important %	Important %	Not so much %	Very important %	Important %	Not so much %
Time management	40	32	28	80	12	8
Planning/organizing	54	34	12	77	15	8
Learning from other people	58	30	12	55	30	15
Managing conflicts	20	64	16	48	44	8
Self confidence/belief	77	23	-	77	15	8
Autonomy/independence	60	36	4	50	42	8
Persistence	32	56	12	46	42	8
Taking initiative	54	38	8	42	50	8
Discipline	20	52	28	62	27	11
Emotional control	40	48	12	44	36	20
Problem solving	42	50	8	62	27	11
Critical thinking	64	32	4	69	27	4
Doing research	69	19	12	77	19	4
Creativity	69	27	4	65	27	8
Self learning	54	38	8	81	15	4
Information technology	35	54	11	85	8	7

As it is seen in Table 2 above, the results show that the majority of the learners participating in our study were aware of the importance of the skills considered. For each of the item included in the questionnaire, more than 70% of the learners (83% in average) pointed out that they consider the skills highlighted in the questionnaire as either ‘very important’ or ‘important’ for success at language courses at the university level. When the same questionnaire was given for the second time at the end of the academic year, which is after 32 weeks, it was found that the students’ opinions did not go through major changes except for the views about time management, planning/organizing, autonomy, discipline and self-learning. In the second application of the questionnaire, an increase in the amount of the learners who consider these skills very important was observed. For example, while the percentage of the learners who found time management a very important factor contributing

to success was 40% in the first questionnaire, it increased to 80% in the second application. That is, at the end of the academic year more students started to think of time management as an important skill to consider for success. Similarly, the number of the students who stated that discipline was an important skill increased in the second application of the questionnaire. Contrary to the 20% of the students in the first questionnaire, more than half (62%) of the participants in the second application reported that discipline was very important for themselves for attaining success at language courses.

Self-learning was another skill that had gained more importance for the students over the course of the year. At the beginning of the academic year, 54% of the learners stated that they perceived self-learning as a very important skill to develop for success. However, this ratio was increased to 81% at the end of the year. This result shows us that our language program incorporating activities for improving our students' cognitive, metacognitive, social and emotional learning skills was helpful in raising awareness among the learners in terms of the importance of self learning. We believe acknowledging the importance of self-learning for being successful is a sign of readiness for taking active roles in planning and executing language learning activities both during the formal instruction in the prep program and in further semesters in their departments. Our assumption, that the students are now better equipped with skills to cope with the demands of independent language learning contexts and extend their language studies beyond the formal instruction, is also supported by the increase in the amount of students who found competence to be very important in planning/organizing (from 54% to 77%), managing conflicts (from 20% to 48%) and persistence (from 32% to 46%) over the course of the year. Drawing on these results, it can be said that our language program succeeded in raising awareness in our learners regarding the skills need to be improved for success. The next question then is how successful our language program is in contributing to the students' personal skills and knowledge. The answer to this question was the issue of discussion in the interviews.

5.2. Results of the interviews

In the interviews, as discussed above, the students were asked to reflect upon their views considering the language learning experience during the program with specific reference to our classroom where a modified language program was followed in line with the purpose of this study. First of all, students were asked for skills, knowledge or capabilities they gained during their education at the prep school. The following table displays the results in percentages.

Table 3

The contribution of the language program to personal skills and knowledge

Competence gained	A lot %	Some %	Little %	None %
Methodological (time management, planning, handling routine work etc.)	23	50	27	-
Social (ability to work with others, learning from other people etc)	81	19	-	-
Attitudes and values (self confidence, autonomy, persistence, empathy, taking initiative, discipline)	42	54	4	-
Content related (subject matter relevant work, information technology)	19	62	19	-
Learning (problem solving, critical thinking, doing research, self learning)	46	50	4	-

As it is clearly seen in Table 3, the main contribution of the interventions we made to the program was for the social competence of the learners. The majority of the learners (81%) pointed out that they had improved their social skills and felt themselves competent enough especially in managing conflicts as also indicated in the questionnaire. The ability to work on their own and maintain discipline were the other skills the students mentioned as a positive contribution of the program. Yet, the responses revealed that the learners could not gain a lot in time management and planning skills throughout their study in the prep program. This result might be explained with the traditional teacher-dependent background of the Turkish learners. Although time management and planning were perceived as an important factor affecting a learner's success (see section 5.1), and were among the skills we explicitly focused upon, the learners still found it difficult to take active role in realizing these skills effectively. The only category of contribution which the students reported less contribution was related with subject matter work. Since our program is originally designed for learners of English for general purposes, it is natural that the learners may not find the subject matter content relevant to their fields of study.

Next, the learners were asked to evaluate their competence in the following skills.

Table 4 - *Learners' self-evaluation of their competences*

Competence	GOOD (%)	POOR (%)
Time management	77	23
Ability to work with others	96	4
Confidence	96	4
Motivation	88	12
Self learning	88	12
Team work	100	-
Involvement	100	-

In accordance with the answers given to the first question, learners rated themselves as inadequate with regards to time management compared to the other competences mentioned by the researchers. When the overall responses of the learners to this question are considered, however, it can be said that almost all of the learners have positive views about themselves. The last question in the interview was an open-ended question which asked the learners to comment on their gains at prep school that encouraged positive feelings towards the language learning process. The answers given to this question were subjected to content analysis and the following items were found to be prevalent among the learners' responses:

- Self-confidence
- Group work
- Interpersonal relations
- Awareness in learning styles
- Communication with others
- Overcoming anxiety
- Comfort in speaking
- Self-motivation

The data elicited through the interviews revealed that our program reached its aim in making students aware of their personal strengths and weaknesses for better language learning experiences not only during the prep school but also in the years to come. Another conclusion that can be drawn from the interview results is that the program also proves to be helpful in setting the conditions for students to continue learning after prep school. In the interviews, the students clearly verbalized their thoughts concerning the increase in their self-confidence and motivation for extending their language studies life long.

5.3. Results of language learning motivation questionnaire

The aim of our study was to create a learning environment with optimum conditions for reducing the problems i.e behaviours, beliefs, attitudes, skills that hinder language learning. The ultimate purpose in doing so was to maintain a sustainable continuity in learning English. Therefore, the language learning motivation of our students, we believe, is a prominent factor that should be considered in reaching our goals. To this end, in order to assess the language learning motivation of our students, the students were given a questionnaire at the end of the academic year. As we are also interested in the long term effects of our teaching, the same questionnaire was given a year after the prep program. The question we addressed specifically was whether our students were able to keep their motivation to continue learning English. The following table presents the results of the questionnaire in both applications.

Table 5

The results of language learning motivation questionnaire

	FIRST		SECOND	
	TRUE %	FALSE %	TRUE %	FALSE %
1. I am learning English because it is required	98	8	98	8
2. I plan to continue my study of English after I complete the courses at the university	88	12	77	23
3. If I had the opportunity to take more advanced training in English, I would do so	92	8	88	12
4. Considering how I study English, I can honestly say that I work very hard to learn	69	31	54	46
5. I feel nervous and confused when I speak in English	38	62	31	69
6. I ignore distractions and stick to learning English	68	32	80	20
7. I feel confident when I am asked to participate in interactions in English	96	4	96	4
8. Studying English is a pleasant experience	88	12	92	8
9. I feel anxious when I am asked for information in English	42	48	38	62
10. I would rather spend my time on the other courses in my department rather than English	84	16	76	24
11. Even though I make mistakes when speaking English, I still feel sure of myself	77	23	85	15
12. I find I am losing my desire to improve my English	54	46	69	31

What is the message conveyed by these results? The data suggest both positive and negative conclusions concerning the motivation of the students. First of all, it can be said that the source of motivation for the students to learn English remained unchanged (statement # 1). They see learning English as a requirement; thus, have instrumental orientation to learn English both when they were prep school students and a year after the program when they were students in their departments. Statement 10 questioned whether there was a change in the students' priority, from English to the courses in their departments. In this respect, 76 % of the students declared that they started to give more importance to the courses in their departments rather than English. Considering the fact that students feel themselves obliged to devote more time to the courses in their departments, this result seems reasonable. As a natural outcome of this situation, the students started to lose their desire to improve English (statement # 12) and spent less effort on learning (statement # 4).

On the other hand, the numbers also suggest that the students are still motivated to continue their language studies (statements # 2 and # 3). Almost all students (92 %) still find

studying English as a pleasant experience. Thus, it can be inferred that our students kept their positive attitudes towards learning English (statements # 6 and # 8). Finally, the data shows that the students did not lose their self confidence in using English (statements #5, #7, #9 and #11). To sum up, we can conclude that our program achieved its goal in terms of overcoming the affective barriers, partly though, for better and continuous language learning experience.

6. Discussion and conclusion

In recent years, learning styles and affective variables such as anxiety, confidence, self-esteem, motivation, and attitudes to learning have come to be recognized as important contributors of effective learning within the process of formal training. Moreover, the attitudes and beliefs about the self and the learning environment can further a student's tendency to approach, expend effort in, and persist in learning tasks on a continuing self-directed basis (McCombs in Gan et al, 2004, p. 230). Having this in mind, we modified our teaching style and management plan to create a classroom environment for better academic, emotional and social language learning. In this way, we tried to facilitate the process of language learning by improving our students' cognitive, metacognitive, social and emotional learning skills in such a way that will foster language learning. We also had the assumption that our language program would help learners in overcoming affective barriers for continuous language learning, and thereby enable them to extend their language learning studies beyond the language program in their prep year. As Gan et al (2004) state positive language learning experiences seem to foster intrinsic motivation, help students feel generally optimistic about their performance in English, and assist students with sustaining their work towards a learning goal at their own pace.

The results of the study show that our language program was successful in its short-term objectives, i.e. we managed to help our learners fulfil their mental, emotional and social potentials for better language learning experience. However, in the long run, we observed a slight decline in their motivation for doing further study in English due to the changes in their academic engagements. Although further language study is still within the future plans of our learners, at the moment it is not a core priority as it was at prep school. But they still keep their positive attitudes towards learning English. The most important of all, they did not lose their self-confidence in using English. We suggest that the participants' beliefs in their ability to use English would provide them with the necessary impetus for future study to improve their English.

The overall conclusion we can draw from the results of this study is that affective

variables play an important role in EFL learners' motivation to pursue language learning studies extending beyond formal education. Therefore, the main implication of this study is that language teachers should take into consideration the role of the affective dimension of language learning and plan their teaching in such a way that they would have a place in their syllabus for explicit affective strategy training.

7. Limitations of the study

This study is limited with the context it was conducted in. We are aware of the fact that there might be contextual influences on the results reached in this study. Thus, the conclusions drawn from the data can not be generalized. As it was already mentioned in the introduction, because the teacher and the educational institutions are the only sources of foreign language learning, it is really hard for the learners to transfer their theoretical knowledge into practice. In other words, what is learned in the school setting usually can not be used for real tasks outside the school life. In addition to that, when the teacher-dependent nature of the Turkish students is considered, it becomes evident that being consistent in studying English independently when it is no more formally compulsory is a problematic issue. Therefore, EFL education in countries such as ours should be designed considering these issues.

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Fractional Language Learning

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Abstract

Many users of a second language, especially English, have little productive mastery of the language. Rather, some requirement in their life forces them to use limited subroutines (maybe quite small and formulaic) which are effectively encapsulated as special elements within L1. This paper proposes that fractional language learning is a valid objective for large numbers of users, and briefly examines some of the contexts in which it has a pragmatic application. It notes that much fractional language learning occurs outside of formal educational environments, and then goes on to consider how both the classroom teaching and evaluation can be adapted to give proper recognition to student achievements on a fractional scale. The paper suggests that this kind of graduated recognition is in fact likely to enhance outcomes across the full spectrum of language teaching, and can be consciously incorporated into curriculum design. A paradigm shift to teacher acceptance (and community acceptance) of fractional language learning has strong implications for assessment practices. Most current measures of language assessment offer little or no recognition to the achievements of learners in the pre-production phase of acquisition. Attempts at language use in this phase are routinely punished by existing assessment tools. Partly as a result of this discouragement, large numbers of students never progress to independent language production. Fractional language objectives are one remedy for this deep flaw in language teaching outcomes. This paper is a set of questions and propositions rather than a report of achieved activity. The reader may disagree with the propositions, or may want to change them. The purpose here is to provoke debate.

1. What is fractional language learning?

FLL occurs where only a subset or fragment of a language is learned. This is a matter of degree of course. Even as a mature native English speaker, I am still learning English. However, the FLL label will be used in this paper to indicate an extremely narrow range of language competence.

2. How does FLL differ from the odd words or phrases that we sometimes remember from studying French or Spanish in high school?

2.1 FLL may indeed be a collection of remembered fragments from a supposedly comprehensive program. The emphasis in the FLL discussed in this paper is on putting language fragments to work, whatever their source.

2.2 FLL may also be a deliberately selected and limited subset of L2. In this case, the FLL is usually designed to be sufficiently self-sufficient to have some practical application. Slightly different is the idea of teaching a reduced form of the language. This has a long history going back at least to Charles Ogden's *Basic English* in 1930.

3. What is the relationship between L1 and an L2 FLL set?

3.1 Applied FLL is typically embedded in L1 to achieve some particular purpose. This kind of FLL is often used quite fluently. Depending upon user knowledge, the languages familiar to all participants, the social context and the actual topic, one language will typically act as a "matrix" into which fragments of L2 are inserted. A matrix language (defined and described at length in Myers-Scotton, 1993) is a morphosyntactic frame builder in bilingual speech into which islands from the embedded language are inserted (Myers-Scotton, 1998: 290, quoted from Wertheim, 2003)

3.2 FLL is sometimes used without reference to L1. As tourists or visitors, we may use isolated foreign phrases to make ourselves understood. This kind of isolated monolingual FLL is often used without much confidence, and can be quite experimental.

4. What kinds of roles or tasks can FLL accomplish?

4.1 Minimally, FLL can be just a word or phrase. Many languages in the world now have large numbers of these foreign words and phrases in circulation. Some may be confined to a profession or group. For example, I have seen Korean surgeon's reports with many medical English phrases structured within a Korean form.

4.2 The individual learner's collection of FLL expressions is usually assumed to mirror some school curriculum. This is rarely the reality. Long lists of words memorized for academic grades are rarely useable or retained unless they become a part of an integrated process of

genuine interest to the user, such as extensive reading (Nation, 2005) . In fact, private FLL will be normally consist of fragments for which the learner has found some personal use in his L1 environment. It may be relatively unsystematic, or linked to a particular interest such as computer gaming.

4.3 Individuals may resurrect and elaborate on earlier fragments of language learned in formal schooling. An example might be the Korean shipping clerk who has to perform certain limited functions on English language waybills from visiting ships. He has learned to recognize elements of the form and write appropriate responses. He would probably be incapable of either writing a letter or holding a telephone conversation in English. This kind of situation is very, very common. Another example might be the Korean receptionist who has learned to meet and greet in English, but is quite unable to answer questions or give unscripted information. Again, this is very common.

4.4 Sometimes FLL can be a fairly complex and systematic closed set used in an occupational role, such as the language of airline pilots talking to control towers around the world. The Arabic that American occupation forces are taught to make contact with Iraqi citizens and checkpoints would be another example, though perhaps somewhat more flexible.

5. What is planned FLL?

5.1 There is a branch of English teaching called "English for Specific Purposes". We could call this "planned FLL". Ten to twenty years ago it seemed to have a bright future, and special text books were written for a whole variety of professional specializations. I myself have taught various kinds of English for engineering courses. Specialist English courses have survived quite commonly in so-called "business English", "tourism English", and sometimes "medical English".

5.2 For a variety of reasons, the ESP field has not met its initial promise. Firstly, it seemed that there was a core of supposedly basic English that could be easily adapted to most professional needs with a little extra vocabulary. Secondly, English teachers as a group generally have poor skills or aptitudes in specialized technical areas like engineering, so once employed in such positions, largely tended to teach what they had always taught.

5.3 The classroom assumptions behind most kinds of planned ESP courses are that i) the L2 language learned will be embedded as a routine in L1; and ii) the embedded language will

retain its code purity as an L2 routine.

5.4 The actual mechanism of embedding L2 into an L1 context is almost never thought about by teachers. The assumption of code purity enables teachers to proceed with the accepted wisdom that this is the only effective way to learn a language.

5.5 In contrast to teacher attitudes, linguistic and anthropological studies of code mixing show it to be a thoroughly integrated and patterned feature of successful bilingual speech behaviour (Wertheim, 2003; Thordardottir, 2006; González, 2006).

5.6 If so-called English for Special Purposes (ESP) is to achieve its proper potential, educators will need to do a lot of careful, empirical research on how L2 can be effectively integrated or blended with L1 in both the classroom and the workplace.

6. Why is unplanned FLL unplanned ?

6.1 Relatively few people set out to learn "a part of a language". Someone may say, "I'm learning Chinese". They will not often say "I am learning to speak a fragment of Chinese", although that may be their private expectation.

6.2 Administrations may advertise a course in "elementary Chinese" but they never advertise that 95% of the people who undertake the course will not achieve anything like even the limited competence planned for in the curriculum. Indeed, if it is a credit based course, they will "pass" the largest part of that 95% of students who fail to achieve limited real competence.

6.3 Language courses would probably not be funded if the evaluation were genuinely tied to achieving the stated goals of most language courses. Nevertheless, some level of practical competence is the stated aim, and often the guarantee, of typical language courses. Is this a trivial contradiction? I think not. James Asher (2003) has made a widely advertised estimate that 95% of people who undertake a foreign language course in America never achieve any functional competence in it.

What percentage of Korean students achieve useful functional competence in English? At the moment we have no clear idea about how to answer that question because there is little consensus on the meaning of "useful functional competence in English".

6.4 I want to suggest here that "unplanned FLL" is a resource too, and that as teachers we should be making conscious use of it. In order to do that, we have to start out with a clear understanding of the fractional language resources in the speech community, plan how to use them productively, and develop realistic goals to nourish those resources within a mass educational context.

7. How common is unplanned FLL?

7.1 Unplanned FLL is the most common outcome of foreign language programs in mass education settings everywhere. By formal evaluation standards, it could be called failure. In those terms, using the Asher criterion, language teaching is a failed profession (also see Murakami, 2001; Cook, 2001: chapter 7). Of course, the whole enterprise of applied linguistics is largely built around the proposition that "instructed language learning" (Ellis, 2005) can be significantly improved. For a host of reasons ranging from politics to the cultures of administrators to the sources and training of teachers worldwide, the scope for overall improvement in mass education outcomes may be very limited.

7.2 Note that foreign language teaching in formal mass education programs, as well as mass learning failure, are rather recent phenomena. Foreign language learning by private individuals has occurred successfully since the beginning of time. Historically also, most people on the planet have been bi- or multilingual, but not as a result of mass education. This is still true today. The biggest change has been that the status of a language now directly relates to the likelihood of it being formally taught to whole populations, as opposed to being merely "picked up" (Groff, 2003).

Sometimes modern students, immigrants or workers find themselves in the position of learning a local language in the street informally while simultaneously learning an international language formally in classrooms. This makes for an interesting comparison of methods and outcomes (Alptekin, 2005)

8. What is the classroom starting point for foreign language teachers promoting FLL?

The whole issue of the interface of pedagogy with language teaching has been much discussed but little resolved (e.g. Urr, n.d.). Many of the conflicts have been less about students than about turf wars between disciplines (Miyagawa, 1995). This paper is concerned with only one aspect: fractional language learning. Explicitly treating FLL in the classroom is a very complex and mostly unexplored dimension. Here I will offer a few initial comments.

8.1 If language teachers wish to make effective use of FLL as a philosophy and goal for instruction, they face the rather difficult task of establishing the existing FLL achievement of each student. Formal test results that students bring to a course are unlikely to be of much help in this process.

8.2 The scope and nature of L2 that students have some grasp of is not something that they can articulate themselves, especially in the pre-production stage of learning (which defines most L2 students in mass teaching institutions).

8.3 Frequent in-course diagnostic testing and evaluation before deciding what to teach is not widely practiced in classrooms in many countries. In fact, it would not occur to whole categories of teachers or administrations, both of whom assume that some text book is roughly suitable for the "class level". On the other hand, where professional judgement does outrank the formal curriculum, constant fine-tuning can make an "impossible" teaching situation workable:

Teacher D: We have twenty six languages represented here. Some of our children come from South India. They don't even know Hindi. Some boys and girls have two years of preschool. Others have no preschool. They may come from the rural areas. I watch to learn what they need. You can see why we revise and repeat. Sometimes I can't follow my lesson plan to the end. (Indian primary school teacher, as quoted by Piller & Skillings, 2005).

8.4 No wonder students are widely alienated! The individual with a medical or legal problem expects personal attention to their need, not a generic solution for all people of their age and cultural type. Such personal attention is assumed to be almost precluded by definition in mass language teaching.

9. How does FLL differ between the classroom and self-directed study?

9.1 There is ample evidence that second language learning is an achievable goal for students at every level of intelligence and academic aptitude. In all societies, every individual can talk, and in truly multilingual societies, large numbers of individuals can talk in more than one language. That evidence of success however is mostly not found in mass education programs. It is found in more or less informal language acquisition by individuals in traditional societies worldwide. Even today, 95% of the world's languages are exclusively oral, with grammars that are undocumented as far as the users are concerned.

9.2 The challenge which this paper poses is how to translate the traditional informal language learning procedures and attitudes into success with mass teaching procedures.

9.3 Individual learning is like selective eating by the individual to satisfy personal needs and appetites. As with eating, it is regulated by the individual himself. Both the food and the language are chosen as a matter of personal taste. The situation of the moment controls what is taken in. Mass teaching on the other hand tries to be the equivalent of forced feeding (Greenberg, n.d.). You can more or less force feed battery chickens to fatten them up, but in language learning the evidence is overwhelming that force feeding brains a fixed diet of information is hugely unproductive. The individual still struggles to regulate his intake in a mass education context, though the process is often subconscious.

9.4 If the individual believes, rightly or wrongly, that the input offered cannot be actively related to his present need and state of knowledge, then that input will be rejected. Since mass education is always an imposed simulation rather than "real life", the decision to reject is more common than the decision to accept.

10. How can classroom activities be adapted to emphasise a focus on successful FLL ?

10.1 The first step in this process is to link classroom activity with real world challenges on a micro-scale. Students, teachers and administrations all know that the classroom is a simulation. What, however, is it simulating? Is it a shadowy assumption of "life", which nobody can really specify for a roomful of different individuals? Is it a pseudo reality of "jobs" or "university study" which in the end remain unreal to the student? So-called competency curriculums seem to make the reality link, but widely fail to persuade students of the fact. A genuine real world challenge is an activity which seems, to the student, immediate and significant. This might be surviving an attack of mutant zombies for a game player, or explaining medical symptoms to a doctor for an immigrant factory worker.

10.2 Educators have much to learn from the advertising industry, which has made an art of persuading citizens of needs and urgent desires which they never knew they had. In other words, an effective language teacher is going to be more than a mere instructor. He is going to go to have a constant dialogue with his students at a very personal level, and be an expert in directing their tastes, ambitions and secret wishes into channels which nourish second language use.

10.3 I think - and this is a personal view - that to truly nourish second language use for most people must imply a blending of languages, both in the classroom and out of it, and especially in the early stages of learning a new code. If it is socially expected and normal for speakers to switch languages, many will explore and develop the new avenues of expression. This what happens in traditional societies. This is what has happened spontaneously to the mobile phone generation with their obsessive new language of texting (Green & Oldham, 2006).

11. Does code blending and code mixing interfere with L2 acquisition?

11.1 Many of that minority who successfully learn a second language in schools say that interpreting, translating or generally having L1 around interferes with their thinking in L2. We have to respect that. A hundred years of teaching orthodoxy has also mostly insisted that the "direct method" (i.e. excluding L1) is superior. Very conveniently this has also led to a belief that native language teachers are automatically superior to teachers who have learned the target language in later life. Happily, some non-native teachers of English are now challenging this (Murakami, 2001).

We are not going to resolve this debate here. However, it is worth making a few points.

11.2 The majority of the world's multilingual populations have achieved that status in code blending environments.

11.3 Human brains differ greatly in their toleration of "foreign matter". Political preferences are an obvious outcome of this, but it affects all kinds of learning. Some people do adapt happily to a shock immersion into the icy water of a new code. Others like to adapt gradually, with just a taste of the new and plenty of the familiar language at least up to intermediate level.

11.4 Learners' needs change with their skill level. What is workable for an advanced student is often not workable for a beginner, especially the large majority who historically have never become advanced language students.

11.5 Even in a classroom situation, the use of L2 between students tends to be unnatural and forced (Viney, n.d.). This is true even with advanced students. Hence the difficulty of getting students to "discuss" or "do conversation". Where meaning is the prime concern, it is natural to use the language of greatest facility, L1, if the other interlocutor shares it. One solution to this is to deliberately have students interpret and translate (Yagi, 2000). For example, one

student can whisper L1 into the second speaker's ear, while the second student does a simultaneous interpretation. This gives a functional role to both languages, and the skills acquired are genuinely useful. The process can be a little tricky for a monolingual teacher to monitor, but I get around that by using a bilingual text.

11.6 The human brain is a very plastic medium (Hoiland, 2007; Chapman 2000). Students who learn in classrooms with an ideology of language purity are hardly likely to develop mental pathways that make switching and blending easy for them. Those who adopt blending from the outset are likely to develop a much more fluid mental relationship between the languages they wish to use.

12. What are the rewards and punishments for FLL?

12.1 The measure of success in informal language learning is immediate social, or sometimes employment survival. The individual knows very clearly from moment to moment what he needs to learn. For example, I spent a part of my last vacation in at a conference in Cambodia where a surprising number of young people from peasant villages have learned to make contact with foreign tourists, and persuade those tourists to accept their services. Their motivation to learn was reinforced concretely on a daily basis. Their communicative success was measured in instant cash. That's pretty powerful.

12.2 Language teachers don't usually have cash bonuses to hand out to learners. However, they can dispense criticism very cheaply, which is a big disincentive, and they can waste students' time with classroom and text book "busy work", which is even more devastating to the will to learn. Many experienced teachers realize the importance of short daily goals and quick feedback (Ryan, 2001), but are still unable to offer goals and feedback which individual students find significant.

12.3 Somehow language teachers need to get classroom language learners into a similar state of mind to that experienced by successful informal language learners. They especially need to establish credible and if possible tangible rewards for immediate achievement.

13. What advantages do informal language learners have over classroom language learners?

13.1 Informal learners decide what is relevant for themselves.

13.2 If informal learners study from books or other media privately, they choose the material themselves. They mix and match, they abandon unproductive resources, or perhaps pick them up again at a different stage of learning.

13.3 In real communicative situations, informal learners make use of whatever resources are available. They will use bad grammar, half forgotten words or terrible pronunciation if necessary. They guess shamelessly from the context, and use body language.

13.4 Where the other speaker shares some L1, informal learners often code switch and code mix without embarrassment, especially in those cultures which do not stigmatize this (i.e. most multilingual communities).

13.5 Informal learners get genuine satisfaction, sometimes even instant monetary reward, from successful communication. In the very least, they work on immediate personal or employment problems.

14. What advantages do classroom language learners seem to have over informal language learners?

14.1 Classroom language learners are offered an off-the-shelf learning package which they presume has been chosen by experts.

14.2 Classroom language learners are under the constant care and guidance of a teacher they presume to be a language teaching expert.

14.3 Classroom language learners experience the advantages and disadvantages that come from doing things in a group. They can be motivated by peer support, or sometimes discouraged by peer and teacher disapproval when the going gets tough.

14.4 They have ready made partners at a similar standard for language practice.

14.5 Time is formally set aside for language study.

14.6 Students are under pressure to conform to a regular program of classes and other practice. In essentially monolingual societies, this organized language study pressure may be a necessary discipline for many individuals, especially the young.

14.7 Their progress is evaluated, students believe, by language teaching experts.

15. Do the advantages of classroom language learning outweigh the advantages of informal language learning?

15.1 For motivated and self-directed learners, informal language learning seems to work better. Some such learners may also opt for a certain amount of tutoring.

15.2 Where the culture as a whole is multilingual, the daily environment tends to be sympathetic to informal language learners and gives them ample opportunity to practice, mix languages and make errors along the path to practical competence. Historically, this has worked for large populations, both literate and illiterate. The Internet now appears to be creating transnational cultures in discussion forums, chat rooms etc. which are very open to multilingual experiment.

15.3 Where the culture is predominantly monolingual and intolerant of second language usage in daily communication, only a minority who are highly motivated, who have specialized needs, or who have an unusual aptitude for language learning usually succeed at a level practical for effective communication. That is, classroom language learning fails the majority.

16. Will language teaching ever be efficient for the majority in mass education systems ?

16.1 Large classes running at one speed are a shocking waste of time and money for learning any language. Korean public primary, secondary and tertiary classes often contain forty or more poorly motivated and poorly taught low level learners. They may even be called "conversation classes".

16.2 Almost by definition, crowd members are discouraged from thinking individually. They are vulnerable to propaganda, but have little space for personal adaptation and growth. The only way mass language education will ever succeed is to shatter the mass into small or individual learning cells, working at their own pace and enjoying immediate validation and reward.

16.3 Attempts to re-mould mass foreign language education into a more natural process have

a long history, going back to Tracy Terrell's Natural approach in the 1970s, James Asher's TPR also from the 1970s, Stephen Krashen's and others' long campaign to allow students a great deal of listening before they are required to speak, and many researchers since (Buxton, 2002). These efforts have all grown out of the manifest failure of mass language education for huge numbers of students, and the educationally stupid public regimentation and private cognitive fragmentation implicit in typical classroom procedures. These reform efforts have generally failed in institutions because they have been overridden by ignorance, administrative requirements and the daily management imperatives of controlling large numbers of mostly young and often reluctant students. It is unlikely that this pattern will change while language education is based on an industrial production line model. There are some attempts to change the general mass education paradigm (e.g. Miner, 2005) but it is an enormous task.

16.4 The individuation of language teaching poses major classroom management problems. The intelligent use of emerging technologies offers some hope in this, but there will have to be a revolution in the thinking of both teachers and administrators (May, 2005).

16.5 Both teachers and administrations need to develop methods of evaluation that contribute to language learning success, not language learning failure. This would include the lesson by lesson recognition of fractional learning achievements in practical contexts, as distinct from academic busy work such as answering multiple choice questions (Shaaban, 2001). The reliable evaluation of anything like global competence requires detailed individual observation of naturalistic language behaviour and, one study estimated, at least six thirty minute observation sessions (Leo, Parker & Gomez., 1996). That is not a sensible proposition under normal classroom conditions. However, measuring cumulative fractional language task achievements does have potential as a metric of progress.

16.6 Between humans, money is probably the most universal and powerful medium of exchange. It may be possible to use it creatively in language teaching as a reward, but the judgement mechanisms would have to be absolutely objective to avoid serious conflict. Gaming environments (electronic and physical) are a possible option here. For example, course enrolment could involve a cash deposit (from the student, or by scholarship), which could be recovered daily in micropayments for achieving particular fractional language tasks.

16.7 Online virtual worlds make very effective use of virtual reward systems. Examples

would be the creation of avatars who strive for status and achievement, usually without threatening the identity of their real world owner. The owner is nevertheless motivated to promote the avatar. Rewards include access rights to various privileges, rank, peer status, winning contests, skill levels permitting the creation of virtual environments or machines, and virtual-world money. All of these have the potential to drive true language learning. They would however require teachers and consultants with the right skills, time and resources to manage such scenarios. The American military is now investing significant funds in this kind of simulation (Tactical Language Training LLC, 2007).

16.8 Language is a tool. Most people achieve the skilled use of any tool by focusing on using it to do tasks which they find significant. On the whole they are not much interested in tool-making. They want to use footballs, not know how they are made. They want to use mobile phones and MP3 players, not understand the technology behind them. Similarly, they are motivated to use language, not understand the mechanisms of its mental construction. Teachers of course, and their behind the scenes lesson plans, should demonstrate some understanding of the mechanisms. (See Winborne, 2002 for an example of such preparation). As with most complex tools, with involvement comes an interest in technique to maximize skill mastery. Thus, on the whole language learning and teaching is about finding credible and motivating language uses at each skill level. Virtual world creation is one option just discussed, but it can be project work, or sports, or medical practice, or stock broking, and so on. The challenge is for the teacher is to design and manage these environments in ways that do progressively teach, enhance and reward language learning. The whole domain of electronic language coaching is especially challenging with young children, who have quite different levels of cognitive development and patterns of attention from adults (Milton & Garbi, 2000). Much existing “educational software” is based on a fallacy that simple or childish interfaces need only be backed by trivial activities.

17. Since South Korean culture is not sympathetic to multilingual usage amongst Koreans, what can be done?

17.1 Teachers should be actively educating the public and administrations about the practical limits of foreign language learning when code switching is stigmatized.

17.2 Teachers should be actively educating the public and administrations about the nature of

language change. Korean absorbed Chinese influence for 2000 years without losing its distinctive character. Undoubtedly it did change, like all healthy languages do, including English. Koreans need to understand and accept that Korean itself will inevitably absorb English influence, but that it will still be Korean (Lee, 2004)..

17.3 Teachers need to seek out and identify domains where English (or another desired second language) can be actively used. In fact, this matter should be in open, public discussion through the media and other forums. The Internet and electronic media are themselves major vehicles for such domains.

17.4 Teachers need to seek out and identify situations where fragments of L2 (e.g. English) are routinely embedded in L1 (Korean). This embedding may be in writing or in speech. It needs to be discussed as a practical matter, not stigmatized as "Konglish" (Kent,1999; Lovmo, 1999).

17.5 Teachers need to identify and discuss with students the fractional L2 skills that they have. There is a need to work together to find uses for these skills without any risk of academic or social penalty.

17.6 The whole multilingual scene in South Korea needs to lighten up. When playing around with language, including Korean, is seen as fun and interesting, the learning process becomes far easier.

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Towards the Development of Alternative Criteria for International Journal Paper Evaluation

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Abstract

This paper considers the creation of alternative criteria for evaluating journal submissions to the Asian EFL journal taking into consideration the international nature of the journal. While it has always been stated that the Asian EFL Journal (AEJ) has a policy of openness to different styles of writing and to different cultural voices, the huge amount of submissions has led to the perceived need to standardize evaluation criteria. Given the diversity of submissions the need arises to consider whether the strict evaluation criteria laid out in linear fashion do not dictate an inflexible generic review structure to the detriment of promoting different cultural voices linked to (1) the needs of authors who wish to use local varieties of Asian Englishes, (2) the needs of often idiosyncratic voices of expatriates from English speaking countries who would like to share their unique intercultural experiences, (3) the needs of Asian authors who have unique cross-cultural experiences including research, teaching or study in either English-speaking universities or universities outside their own local context, (4) the often diverse expectations regarding written discourse among the reviewers themselves, (5) the intrinsic value of alternative non-standard or non-experimental research and finally (6) the potential practical value of submissions that do not report research.

This paper presents the journal's review criteria and also considers actual editorial reviews of key extracts from submissions. In addition, data collected specifically from questionnaires

distributed among the journal's editors is presented to illustrate the diversity of editorial views towards the review criteria. Conclusions show that various alternative genres of writing submissions have been both positively and negatively evaluated so far in the journal's history and that editors' stances towards their roles and responsibilities in reviewing vary enormously. This diversity of findings has led the editorial management team to embark upon a new project to create a review team with the specific objectives of identifying a limited number of alternative submissions for the quarterly issues and for a complete special edition presenting 'alternative voices'.

Key words: alternative, genre, voice, evaluation criteria

Introduction

In an online interview prior to starting his term as editor of the prestigious TESOL quarterly, Canagarajah (2005) made the following policy comment: "I would like TQ to be more open to atypical form of scholarly rhetoric." This statement corresponds to a key policy of AEJ, but one which has arguably not been adequately supported in recent years. The rapid increase in submissions has led to a greater standardization of review procedures and a greater potential for texts that do not conform to formal academic research genre to fail a rigorous review process. Canagarajah challenges the dominance of "quantitative, positivistic and experimental lines of inquiry" pointing out that other modes, such as case studies, ethnographies, classroom observations, discourse analyses are equally valid. He suggests that this view is "in recognition of the complex nature of language, learning learning, and language teaching that may be difficult to capture through experimental research". Canagarajah further suggests that interesting new orientations are developing in many Asian contexts and implies that they often lack academic rigour which makes them difficult to publish. "I must emphasize that TQ cannot feature these areas of work if it does not receive submissions that TQ's referees will find publishable". This very same issue has become increasingly an issue in AEJ editing policy, taking into account the original *raison d'être* of AEJ to provide just such an alternative voice.

This paper will consider the criteria for evaluating journal submissions to the Asian EFL journal from an international perspective based on our personal experience of editing for the Asian EFL Journal. We do not wish to argue that considering alternative criteria is *only* of relevance to an international journal, but we do feel that it is particularly relevant to a journal that is representative of a diverse international community.

While it has always been stated that the Asian EFL Journal has a policy of openness to different styles of writing and to different cultural voices, as the journal has developed the huge amount of submissions have led to the perceived need to standardize evaluation criteria. On the one hand, it might be possible to see AEJ as a cohesive discourse community with its own set of unified norms. However, given the diversity of submissions in terms of

geographical origin, educational background and writing experience, one issue that arises is the need to consider whether the strict evaluation criteria laid out in linear fashion do not dictate an inflexible generic review structure to the detriment of promoting different cultural voices linked to (1) the needs of authors who wish to use local varieties of Asian Englishes, (2) the needs of often idiosyncratic voices of expatriates from English speaking countries who would like to share their unique intercultural experiences, (3) the needs of Asian authors who have unique cross-cultural experiences including research, teaching or study in either English-speaking universities or universities outside their own local context, (4) the often diverse expectations regarding written discourse among the reviewers themselves (5) the intrinsic value of alternative non-standard or non-experimental research and finally (6) the potential practical value of submissions that do not report research.

This paper will present the journal's review criteria and will also consider actual reviews and extracts in relation to reviewers' expectations/norms as expressed in their completed reviews and other data collected specifically for this research project. The study will also be supported by questionnaire findings gathered from the editorial team of Asian EFL Journal. The need to modify the criteria, for certain kinds of submission is finally discussed. It is hoped that the insights gained from this analysis and discussion will find resonance among editors, reviewers, experienced authors and students/teachers who are less experienced or even hoping to publish for the first time.

Considering these motivations and foci outlined so far, our research question is specifically: *What alternative criteria can be used to define competence in journal article writing for an international audience, when the paper does not have an experimental quantitative design?*

2. Background and literature review

Genre: Definitions

Swales (1990) points out that *genre* is a "fuzzy concept" which has a "highly attractive ... but slippery" way of referring to "a distinctive category of discourse of any type, spoken or written, with or without literary aspirations" (p. 33). Thompson (2004) defines genre "in very simple terms as register plus purpose", register being defined as the use of "certain recognizable configurations of linguistic resources in certain contexts" (p. 42). Halliday and Hasan (1989) divide context according to the three well-known systemic functions as represented in Table 1:

Table 1: Genre and academic context (Based on Halliday & Hasan, 1989, p. 12)

Field Academic communication	Experiential function	- Language as reflection on the world as it is apprehended and represented through our research or experience - processes, events, actions, states. <i>(transitivity and ergativity representing the way actors intervene in academic processes or reported experience are linked to the experiential function)</i>
Tenor Including academic authority, relationship with audience	Interpersonal function	- Language as social interaction <i>(modality and the expression of confidence in research evidence are linked to the interpersonal function)</i>
Mode Appropriateness of language choices to academic or professional context.	Textual function	- Coherence, generic text organization and development, collocation and colligation, lexico-grammatical register <i>(meta-communication is linked to the textual function)</i>

Swales (1990) provides a detailed general definition of 'genre' as follows:

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of common purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and constrains choice of content and style. Communicative purpose is both a privileged criterion and one that operates to keep the scope of the genre as here conceived narrowly focused on comparable rhetorical action. In addition to purpose, exemplars of genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience. If all high probability expectations are realized, the exemplar will be viewed as prototypical by the parent discourse community. The genre names inherited and produced by discourse communities and imported by others constitute valuable ethnographic communication, but typically need further validation (p. 58).

From this detailed definition, five key factors can be identified for academic genres:

- (1) Genres are named by or for academic discourse communities.
- (2) Genres "share some set of common purposes".
- (3) Some control is exercised by "expert members of the parent discourse community" who define and also potentially exert power deciding what these purposes should be.
- (4) The rationale that is based on the community's definition of these purposes "shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and constrains choice of content and style."
- (5) Examples within genres establish norms and encourage comparison as they "exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience".

There appears to be no common view as to how broad or how narrow genre classification may be, so in some contexts there might be a further need to classify genres into sub-genres. A 'research article' or a 'research report' is a very broad classification. A 'classroom discourse research article' is more limited and is best referred to as a sub-genre. While suggesting that "content, form, intended audience, medium or channel" also have an influence, Bhatia (1993, p.13) emphasizes the communicative purpose(s) as the primary means of categorizing genres and shaping their internal structure. Bhatia suggests that major changes in communicative purpose tend to lead to the creation of a different 'genre', whereas minor changes are better classified as 'sub-genres'. Referring to the highly structured and conventionalized nature of the communicative events that help define 'genre', Bhatia (1993) points out that training and long-term experience within the "specialist community" help to "shape the genre" and account for the "conventionalized internal structure" (p.14).

Defining genre according to communicative purpose leads to the conclusion that non-research articles that describe personal (intercultural) pedagogical experience (see for example Gorsuch, 2007 below) or describe applications in context of classroom teaching techniques or approaches are so different in communicative purpose to research-based papers that they may best be classified as a totally different genre rather than as a sub-genre. This implies that the criteria for their evaluation will also need to be different.

Genre: Freedom, choices and constraints

Bhatia (1993) also elaborates on the notion of "constraints on allowable contributions" arguing that while a specialist may "exploit the rules and conventions of a genre in order to achieve special effects or private intentions, ... s/he cannot break away from such constraints completely without being noticeably odd" (p.14). In order to exploit a genre for private purposes while operating with a genre, Bhatia (p.15) emphasizes the need to be highly competent, "an expert member". "Obviously, one needs to be familiar with the conventions of the genre before one can exploit them for special effects."

Swales (1990) underlines the central danger of using the concept of 'genre' for discouraging critical thinking by encouraging the "unthinking application of formulas" (p.33). This also tends to undermine the key systemic-linguistic notion that Swales characterizes as the "enlightened and enlightening concept that language is ultimately a matter of "*choice*".

In this respect, the importance of 'relevance' in academic writing might be underlined. (See Hunston in Coulthard (1998), Sperber and Wilson, 1995). One feature of relevance theory, is the need to consider what a reader knows or needs to know in order to be optimally relevant. Therefore the purpose of any high-quality academic writing might also be a degree of

originality in that optimal relevance implies adding something new to existing knowledge. While taking into account what is known by professionals in the field, some new finding is presented that takes this knowledge forward or challenges some canonical knowledge. A genre might provide a useful framework within which to work but will not dictate either the content or the form of the final product in a deterministically rigid way. Academic audiences include not only researchers, but also teachers, trainers, testers, curriculum developers, materials writers. In EFL many of us need to adopt a combination of all of these roles.

Carter (1995, pp. 52-59) argues that 'genre' is a controversial topic, in particular in pedagogical contexts. "Holding up certain genres as models to a whole class is seen as rigid and deterministic" (p. 57) and therefore counters pedagogical goals of most writing courses. "A major concern is that genre-based writing practices can be inherently conservative and are designed to produce unreflective writers who will be able to do no more than sustain the genres..." (p.55). This view is linked to what Carter calls "narrow vocationalism" and to a traditional transmission style of teaching. Texts then tend to be used as models that just reproduce the structures in place and which lack the dynamism that is a characteristic of high-quality writing.

While 'genre' is a complex term that can become rather deterministic if narrowly defined, it is still a useful concept in relation to competence as it is closely linked to an awareness of the purposes of a particular communicative event. Establishing the purpose of communication is linked to meta-communicational awareness. In pedagogical contexts, an explicit statement of purpose is one way of demonstrating this awareness. The ability to state the purpose of a particular task or assignment, whether implicitly or explicitly, is therefore an important means of establishing competence. Narrow, deterministic definitions of 'genre' however, while they might sometimes appear useful for vocational purposes, might be counterproductive in pedagogical contexts as they encourage conformity, discourage critical thinking and reduce the focus on text experimentation and creation. It will never be difficult for a well-trained writer to adjust or to conform to institutional conventions, but merely training students to reproduce formulaic models will limit their ability to adapt to a variety of potentially unpredictable communicative situations.

However, the view that young researchers attempting to publish have or require unlimited choices is also untenable. Genre relates to the organization of complete texts such as the research reports or presentations we might require of students. Citing Couture (1986), Swales (p. 41) distinguishes this from "register" which relates more to the "language of scientific reporting" or the "language of newspaper reporting". The former looks at a kind of generic structure that might be explicitly or implicitly laid down within a discourse community, such

as a (1) research article, or (2) a newspaper story:

Title ► authors ► affiliation ► abstract ► introduction ► literature review ► purpose of the study ► method ► results ► discussion ► conclusions ► references ► appendices.

Headline ► summary paragraph ► main-body narrative ► statements from witnesses/authoritative sources ► author.

The latter might look at the different ways in which aspects of language such as complex noun phrases, transitivity, epistemic modality might be used within the particular genre.

Genre for Swales emphasizes not only schematic structure within discourse communities in contrast to register but also the purpose and outcomes of independent communicative events. For the research article, Swales (1990, p.134) identifies the hour-glass diagram that divides a research article into just three main sections: Introduction – Procedure – Discussion, as a good starting point for a discussion of generic structure. Swales focuses on the internal structure of the introduction, identifying three key generic components.

AEJ as a discourse community

Flowerdew (2000, p.127) uses the notions of "discourse community" (developed from Swales, 1990) and "legitimate peripheral participation" (p.129) to describe a research writer's relationship with professional peers in terms of learning conventions which are prerequisites for membership. This view of community can easily become rather exclusive.

Flowerdew draws on Swales to identify knowledge of six criteria for membership of "discourse communities":

7. Common goals,
8. participatory mechanisms
9. information exchange
10. community-specific genres
11. highly specialized terminology
12. high general level of expertise.

The notion of "legitimate peripheral participation" evoked by Flowerdew (2000) is less exclusive in that it is legitimate for anyone to participate in the community of practice of a discourse community and "even experienced scholars need to continually negotiate their position as members of the discourse community as that position is ratified by the acceptance of their writing for publication" (p.131). Flowerdew then goes on to discuss the "intellectual dislocation" of graduates leaving their universities which help legitimize them in the communities. AEJ receives many submissions from such returning graduates.

From an international competence perspective, the notion of discourse communities

might provide some useful features that are transferable to international journal editing contexts. International communities may range from temporary communities that form and dissolve in relation to particular events (such as attendance at a conference) to semi-permanent more stable communities that share long-term goals (such as journal participation as a member of the review board). To be called communities we might minimally specify (1) some form of common goal even if the details remain to be negotiated. (2) Some mechanisms of participation specifying things like attendance (whether through physical or online presence – such as skyping other members of the review board). Membership might be relatively unstable involving forming, dissolving, reforming. (3) Some need to exchange information also seems to be a pre-requisite to participate in a community. Importantly for our discussion, (4) some common purposes and norms, while open to negotiation, might also be specified, although the extent to which these become rigidly defined 'genres' and the need suggest alternatives needs careful consideration. Temporary and evolving generic conventions might be normal. No communities are permanent, but we may assume that the strains on maintaining membership in international communities might be greater and it might be physically easier to stop being a member and more common to feel excluded because an original personal or cultural voice is being expressed. (5) International communities are likely to consider intensive linguistic and pragmatic negotiation as a normal and regular activity. (This does not mean that mono-cultural communities do not also need this, but they might not be aware of communication issues to the same extent). Specialized terminology might be less of a problem in international communities, who may be forming because of some common interest or specialization, but general language and pragmatic norms may need to be negotiated constantly due to very different cultural beliefs, norms and values.

Voices

“Voice” is defined in this study as a means by which authors express their identity as scholars, accepting that regional, national and individual characters may influence that identity. This may be contrasted with the voice(s) that editors themselves may have in giving feedback. Of particular interest is how editors perceive their role in giving feedback; in this respect, Rentz’s (2005) investigation into roles and expectations of editors in an international business journal shows clearly how some regard their role as being “hands off” and others “highly invasive” in the revising process with the author to the extent where some editors saw themselves as “collaborators” and “co-producers” (p.290) of studies they were supervising. The difficulties of balancing some expectations as being “gate-keepers” of the journal’s

reputation with that of a “mentor” (p.291) were highlighted. What is evident from Rentz’s (2005) study is that, firstly, an editor may, due to these diverse expectations, express multi-voices in giving feedback to an author; secondly, there are “interpersonal and intellectual dimensions to the collaborative work between authors and editorial teams” (p.291). Perhaps, the interaction/interface between the two parts of their respective voices should be added to that sense of collaboration.

Asian EFL journal evaluation criteria

The criteria for evaluating the genre labeled as research papers can appear to be geared towards an extremely deterministic structure and need to be handled with subtlety and flexibility in relation to particular manuscripts even within the research genre. However, the aim of this paper is not to challenge the need to review quantitative research papers rigorously or to change radically our policy towards these papers. The issue is more the inapplicability of some of these criteria to alternative genres. Currently the ten associate editors who supervise reviews are not obliged to stick rigidly to one format and editors may also provide feedback in other formats. The basic format being used until recently is outlined in table 3 below.

Table 3

Part A -- Assessment of Basic Criteria

Please indicate your assessment of each of the 10 criteria by placing an "X" in the appropriate column. Please enter comments specific to particular criterion in the comments row below each criterion.

Criteria to be Rated	Excellent	Acceptable	Unsatisfactory	N/A
complete, clear and well organized presentation				
significance of the problem				
general applicability and interest to the field (relevance beyond case presented)				
relevance and applicability to practical teaching/curriculum decisions/test design, etc.				
description of the problem within a theoretical framework (where appropriate)				

literature review is complete and demonstrates a clear relationship to the problem					
appropriateness of research design and method					
accurate and useful presentation of results					
sound discussion, interpretation, argument and analysis					
conclusion describes implications for education theory, research and/or practice					

Another version of the AEJ criteria below (developed from the previous version by Associate Editor, Dr. Reima Al-Jarf) provides a comprehensive alternative checklist for authors of quantitative research papers.

Table 4 : Part A. Asian EFL journal manuscript evaluation instructions

Evaluation Criteria	Excellent					Very poor	NA
1. Title is specific, concise, appropriate <i>Comments:</i>	5	4	3	2	1		
2. Abstract summarizes whole study (aims, subjects, instrument, results) <i>Comments:</i>							
3. Introduction is relevant, coherent, concise <i>Comments:</i>							
4. Statement of the problem, objectives or hypotheses is specific & clearly stated <i>Comments:</i>							
5. Significance of the problem <i>Comments:</i>							
6. Applicability and interest of study to the field <i>Comments:</i>							
7. Literature review is relevant, comprehensive, covers empirical studies							

Evaluation Criteria	Excellent					Very poor	NA
<i>Comments:</i>							
8. Subjects are described in detail							
<i>Comments:</i>							
9. Instruments are described in detail							
<i>Comments:</i>							
10. Reliability and validity measures are reported							
<i>Comments:</i>							
11. Description of data analysis procedures							
<i>Comments:</i>							
12. Statistical analysis is appropriate, accurate, sufficient							
<i>Comments:</i>							
13. Research design and method are appropriate and fully described							
<i>Comments:</i>							
14. Results are reported according to questions and/or hypotheses							
<i>Comments:</i>							
15. Figures, tables, and photos are appropriate, complete, comprehensible							
<i>Comments:</i>							
16. Discussion and interpretation of results (comparison with prior studies, cover results)							
<i>Comments:</i>							
17. Implications for educational theory, research and/or practice							
<i>Comments:</i>							
18. References (match those in body of paper, APA style)							
<i>Comments:</i>							
19. Language and style (correctness, appropriateness, directness, technical)							
<i>Comments:</i>							
20. General Organization (headings, subheadings, font, line spacing, cohesion, coherence)							
<i>Comments:</i>							
Total Score							

Even for experimental research papers, it is important for the associate editor to ascertain the relevance of all the criteria to particular papers and to decide which criteria are the most important in each case. The issue under discussion in this paper is not so much that these criteria are inappropriate or even that the format is inappropriate. It is rather the applicability of all the criteria to all manuscripts and the need to consider alternative criteria for different kinds of paper. The following criteria were developed for non-research papers.

Table 5 Part A: Assessment of basic criteria – Non-research articles

Criteria to be Rated	Excellent	Acceptable	Unsatisfactory	N/A
Complete, clear and well organized presentation				
Statement of the teaching issue, context, participants				
Background/literature review links theory and practice or provides a clear rationale of practice				
Applicability and interest to the field of the topic discussed or the materials design/teaching approach proposed (relevance beyond the case presented).				
Powerful and coherent support for the views expressed. (Argumentation, examples, data.)				
Interpretation of outcomes from a teaching perspective				
Critical self-reflection on practice (e.g. what was learned, what action taken)				
Recommendations for practice and further investigation				
Appropriateness of formatting and referencing				

3. Methodology

The very simple non-experimental methodology employed in this pilot study involved (1) the distribution of a questionnaire among editors and (2) the selection of articles or extracts published in AEJ that embody the criteria we have identified.

3.1. The questionnaire

The themes addressed in the questionnaire concern evaluation priorities, sensitivities in reviewing, dilemmas, language and content, rejection criteria, and the international nature of the journal. Questions are mostly open-ended and space is given at the end to expand upon any further issues the editors wish to mention.

Table 6: The questionnaire

1. Without referring to the official evaluation form, what are the three most important criteria you like to use to evaluate the quality of a paper?
2. What is the most sensitive aspect of reviewing for you personally?
3. Can you describe a specific example of a dilemma you have faced when evaluating a paper?
4. Explain the importance you give to language in evaluating a paper.
5. When evaluating a paper, which do you focus on as a priority, content or language? Why?
6. Complete the following:
A paper should always be rejected if:

A paper should never be rejected if:

7. Does the international nature of the journal create any sensitive review issues for you?
8. Please feel free to add any other comments about important issues that have not been covered in our questions.

Analysis of the questionnaire responses

14 completed questionnaires were received, representing around 40% of the journal editors at the time, and were analyzed as follows:

1. Responses for each of the 9 questions were gathered and then reduced in terms of their relevance to the question. Care was taken at this stage not to totally eliminate any responses which, although irrelevant to a specific question, could be nevertheless integrated into another question's responses.
2. Responses for each question were then broken down quantitatively into 'most common' to 'least common' themes. Themes only mentioned once were also noted. A theme was identified according to two criteria: the use of the same or similar words; or the emergence of similar sentiment or feelings. All findings can be seen in Appendix 1.

4. Results & synthesis of relevant findings

4.1 Summaries of the questionnaire findings

The findings are organized into two groups: the first shows responses which address the issue of ‘alternative’ voices; the second (see Appendix 1) gives an overall quantitative picture of the responses gathered.

Alternative voices

Looking across the 9 questions, the following responses addressed the idea of ‘alternative’ voices in various degrees:

Some responses indicated that originality of the topic/paper and forging “a new direction” were criteria which were important. This could potentially embrace ‘alternative’ voices both in terms of language and content.

Specifically addressing the issues of whether content or language were a priority, most respondents regarded ‘content’ as a priority, but some stated that both content and language are important.

Those who regarded language as important, stated that:

- following an academic writing style was necessary, considering that the journal is language-related;
- the language should be clear and easy to understand;
- “poor language can influence a reviewer’s judgment”.

The general view from these responses suggests that ‘academic’ language is essential but that it should be easy to understand. What constitutes ‘poor’ or ‘academic’ language is, however, open to question.

Some responses stressed the variety of contexts within Asia:

One respondent commented that the South-East Asia ELT context may be unfamiliar to the Far East Asia context and vice versa:

- “Different countries emphasize different directions in English research”. Specific contexts in Asia need to be understood in terms of the writer’s own national or regional context.

These responses are perhaps a subtle implication of the necessity to recognize variety in content, as well, perhaps as in writing style.

Interesting responses which indicated negative experiences in reviewing were as follows:

- A paper should not be rejected if there is a “passion” to make a contribution to the field “rather than a condescension towards Asian students and teachers.”

Finally, addressing the issue of ‘alternative’ voices can be seen from a non-nationality background. In this respect, two responses clearly looked at qualifications and experience in research as factors:

- “Encouraging MA students to publish may be setting them up for disappointment”.
- The journal’s “positioning” in the field needs to be considered: as a mentor to newly emerging researchers, or as an international leader in the field.

These last responses show the emergence of an issue of whose voices represent valid contributions to the field, those of new researchers or those more experienced in the field.

4.2 Extracts from evaluated manuscripts

The following extract illustrates how the ‘voice’ of an author can differ in a manner which is often seen as unacceptable in a review process. The need to communicate is strongly communicated, the issue raised is valid, but the manner of expressing it does not conform to an accepted academic register.

The Post Graduate Teaching Dilemma and Its Remedy

Bunking classes, getting bored, being absent minded, running after notes desperately, and appeasing teachers/examiners, have been the typical features of post graduate students whereas lecturing, having a monologue, exercising utmost authority in their classes and adopting assumptive approach about teaching and learning reflect upon the kind of role teachers have been playing at this level. Does this scenario ascertain the specialized or higher education? Does this provide experts in various fields of knowledge? Does this show we are progressing? Given a right to express myself freely, I would definitely say, “No”. This may sound rude but unfortunately this is what the dilemma is. Since post graduate studies aim at producing skilled, knowledgeable and expert graduates who are ready to step in their professional life to add to the progress of their society and their country at large, I apprehend that the lot we are producing for this purpose is lacking in many respects. It’s not one person’s responsibility rather a whole network of teachers, students, curriculum designers, policy makers, implementation bodies is involved.

Other voices, that have been successfully published by AEJ, are able to combine rigour with an original voice. The following extract from Reinders (2006 – thesis section) illustrates this alternative approach to knowledge creation that embodies a challenge to established genre/register conventions. Non-conventional language in relation to transitivity is italicized

to emphasize the code-switching interplay between conventional and non-conventional rhetoric. An important feature of this approach is meta-communicative awareness.

Successful alternative

In our view, Reinder's (2006 [PhD thesis]) is not only an interesting study in itself. It also successfully illustrates how an original voice can enhance an academic study. One of my personal favourite extracts from my own reviewing in 2006 comes from Reinders meta-comment on acknowledgements and in particular his skill in breaking the mould. An important feature of this approach is **meta-communicative awareness** and deliberate flouting of a norm rather than just violating the norm.

Extract 1 (meta-communicative awareness)

Acknowledgements can be a bit boring. Mostly it's the usual suspects: family, friends, children, one's pet goldfish. I have yet to come across one that says 'Thanks to MYSELF for being such a great person and hard worker'. Probably that is because PhD theses are not created in isolation. And even if one did do all the work by yourself, somewhere, somehow, the thing needs to relate to someone to have any value at all. My list of acknowledgements could be as long as this thesis. I would have never had the qualifications to embark on a PhD study, nor been at this particular University, and certainly not been able to complete my thesis, without the help of many good souls Thank you, dear reader, for giving this thesis its meaning.

Reinders (2006) commences the PhD thesis as follows:

Extract 2 Code switching and Formality

This research stems in large part from *my own interest* in a phenomenon that *I have observed* over many years of my own and others' language study. Why was it that under very similar circumstances (same language class, same teacher, same amount of tuition, even similar motivation/goals) some learners succeed and others do not? *I have experienced this* in secondary school French classes in Holland, in Arabic classes at universities in Cairo and Damascus, in Hebrew classes in Jerusalem, and in many other settings. *As for myself, I knew* it could not (only) have to do with the 'hard wiring' of the language learning system; *I have always been poor at memorising vocabulary* and even poorer at hearing differences in pronunciation, yet *I have often been relatively successful* at mastering languages. *My own instinct told me* it had to have something to do with *what I used* to call 'focus'. *Now I would probably call this attention, although I still like the term focus* as it is something that would be present (or absent) in a more general sense rather than being related to a particular task or situation. A friend once referred to this as 'having your radar on' (which sounds a lot like Tomlin & Villa's "alertness"; 1994). Students who keep their eyes and ears open at all times for the new language, who constantly try to monitor others' and their own speech, and who actively hypothesise about the language as they go along, are the ones who do best. *My studies in applied linguistics led me* to the field of autonomy and self-directed language learning which further *confirmed me in my thinking*. However, in these areas *it is not always clear what is meant when it is said* that successful learners are "more proactive" or more "independent". *I decided that to investigate more deeply what affects learning*

at this level, *I had to turn my attention to, well, attention.*

Much research has been done investigating the role of attention in second language learning (cf. Robinson, 1996; Schmidt, 1990, 1994, 2001). Although there continue to be some fierce debates, it appears that there is a consensus that more attention leads to increased learning. One way to investigate attention is by looking at intake; the intermediate stage between input and acquisition. If learners take in information, it has to have been attended to. But if information has been attended to, is it learned? What factors affect this? How can learners' attention be increased, and can it be directed towards specific features in the language? It is these and other questions that prompted me to design the present study.

In this extract we can identify a kind of code-switching between more standard academic style and the first-person voice of the author (marked in italics). In the same extract, formal academic statements, such as “*Much research has been done* investigating the role of attention in second language learning (cf. Robinson, 1996; Schmidt, 1990, 1994, 2001)”, are juxtaposed with informal first person statements, such as “*I decided that to* investigate more deeply what affects learning at this level, *I had to turn my attention to, well, attention.*” At the same time this extract has the purpose of *establishing the relevance* of the topic to real life language use.

A further example of an unconventional voice can be seen in Gorsuch (2007), a narrative-style paper published in the March edition of Asian EFL Journal. By means of personalizing the study (the use of the first person pronoun, as well as personal experiences) with empirical data, Gorsuch manages to balance conventional academic expectations for research rigor with her own voice effectively. Two short extracts illustrate the narrative style used by Gorsuch.

Extract 3 Narrating personal intercultural experience

Learning where I would be sent did not necessarily answer the question of what I would teach. I was the first Fulbright person to be sent to Vinh University, although the university had been hosting volunteer native English speaking teachers sent by a Christian organization for several years. While I had lived in the Philippines and Japan, and had taught for many years in Japan, I had never visited Vietnam, nor had I met many Vietnamese English language learners.

Great ideas about courses in which language learners exchange videotaped diaries will not go far in a context where video technologies are not available, the students are complete beginners who do not feel the need to talk, the school is accustomed to book-based language practice, and the colleagues believe teacher-to-whole class instruction is most suitable. While many teachers develop courses at an informal level without much preparation (as when they are assigned to teach a course new to them, or they change jobs), most language educators would hesitate to formally develop a full blown course with no knowledge of the students or institution. Developing goals, objectives, lesson plans, and materials is time consuming, and what if all of it is wrong for the learners, the facilities, the institution?

Sivasubramaniam (2006) provides a further example of an alternative voice that was published recently in AEJ. Sivasubramaniam interestingly feels the need to defend his alternative approach in the following meta-communicative comment which challenges the exclusivity of rationalist approaches to inquiry into language learning. In this way, he both provides an alternative voice and defends the right or even the need to be able to do so.

Extract 4 Advocating or defending a minority interest group

The views examined so far, should be interpreted as intuitive beliefs and values that support our intuitions and belief systems underlying pedagogies of experience and response. Therefore, it is not necessary to affirm these views as outcomes of rationalistic inquiries just for the sake of labeling them as ‘objective’. As pointed out earlier, what is touted as ‘objective’ in language learning research has harmed our educational and social practices. Therefore, it is argued that theoretical possibilities indicating suggestive ways of using literature should remain subjective, as literature is not an objective field of inquiry. Furthermore, as asserted by Eagleton (1983, p. 14), ‘the claim that knowledge should be value-free is itself a value judgment’. Such an assertion not only points out the naivety of researchers who relate language learning to scientific research paradigms but also alerts us to the futility of objectifying and reifying literature in language learning research (Polkinghorne (1988, p. x). It is then argued that the views in question will be used to support this paper, which is meant to examine the benefits of using literature in foreign language education indicatively, discursively and impressionistically.

Rejected Extracts

Two examples of potentially ‘alternative’ voices were rejected on various grounds, including over-personalized language which was considered as inappropriate by both Native Speaker and Non-Native speaker reviewers. The first case shows a submission from a native Chinese writer which was considered “well written” by one Native Speaker reviewer, and as “not appropriate” by another.

Extract 6 Informality without establishing meta-communicative awareness

I have used spoken English in my work for more than 16 years, and in Thailand, I taught Oral English Practice to university students for more than 6 years. I hope I can give quality instruction helping my students to simultaneously acquire better English accents and fluency. But for this to occur, students need to talk. Without students’ oral participation, none of the course objectives could be realized. I tried my best to teach providing a lot of materials and topics for discussion hoping students would talk for 5 minutes. I believed five minutes was adequate time for my students to express themselves well, but my efforts were not rewarding. Most of the students could only speak for less than 1 minute expressing that they felt they did not know what to say. Even after one semester, students’ participation in oral discussion and oral presentation was low. Whenever I asked them to say something about one topic, they, for the most part, would say, “How should I say it? What should I say?” and they would ask these questions in their native Thai. I was determined to improve my students’ speaking ability and tried various techniques in order to do so. But the results were not ideal. At that time I thought maybe the teaching materials were not relevant to them, thus they did not want to say anything or could only say a little.

Review comments (NS): Well written paper. It is very easy to follow the author's argument and s/he uses a very personal tone. Major revisions requested based on methodological grounds.

Review comments (NS): The style of writing is not appropriate for an academic article. Reject based on language.

The second example comes from a submission from India in which a Non-native speaker reviewer rejected the paper on the grounds of both content and language, the latter of which had no grammatical errors but was written in a narrative style.

Extract 7 Informal narrative style

I personally refuse to endorse any of these extreme positions. As a teacher of English I feel that the scheme is going to have one major benefit: Introduction to and progressive acquisition of the sounds of English. I believe that when these children will grow up they will handle English with much greater ease than their counterparts who started learning English at std. V.

Review comments (NNS): Overpersonalised (I personally refuse, I feel that, I believe) yet perfect grammar. Rejected on weak argument and language.

Establishing alternative criteria

This paper has discussed the risks of excluding alternative voices as a result of narrow deterministic applications of inappropriate review criteria that do not adequately consider the purpose of the paper under review. This brief discussion has considered two areas for consideration. It has considered the nature of possible alternative behaviours within the academic genre. Secondly it has considered some general criteria of "good" writing.

Table 7: Some alternative genre behaviours

	Successful	Unsuccessful? (Here this simply means failed the review.)
Metacommunicative Genre awareness Flouting norms rather than violating them.	Extracts 1 and 2 Reinders	Extract 6 (Doesn't establish awareness. Is it violation or flouting?)
Narrating valuable (intercultural) experience	Extract 3 Gorsuch	Informal narrative style. Inadequate support for the statement?
Advocating or defending a minority interest group	Extract 4 Sivarkuma	
Creativity/ originality or fostering creativity	See Al Jarf, 2007	

It is important not to neglect some more general criteria that can be applied to all styles of academic writing. Criteria such as coherence organization and development of argumentation can be applied to any academic text as can criteria such as relevance and applicability to scholars and fellow professionals, and appropriate use of referencing. Quality of argumentation is also a generally applicable criterion. However, the way arguments are presented and supported and in particular, the quality of evidence provided in support of statements, is not limited to experimental research design. Examples and extracts from qualitative data, sound (philosophical) argumentation, extracts from recorded classroom discourse, examples of teaching materials or students' work are just some of the many alternative ways of supporting arguments that attempt to develop usable knowledge in the field.

5. Conclusions

We would like to reassure our highly valued review editors of an empirical persuasion that we have not attempted to devalue or denigrate rigorous empirical investigations. We have, however, attempted to illustrate how alternative non-conventional voices can be successful, powerful, relevant and useful to practitioners.

The normative power of academic discourse communities, including the one we help to organize as senior editors, can be underestimated in its power to suppress alternative voices. We would therefore like to use our potentially gate-keeping positions to establish a policy and to consider and develop a set of general criteria to provide more support for alternative, less rigorously formal, academic voices. This has included a separate team of editors specializing in this area from June 2007. This will be supervised by the authors of this paper and will be developed as a research area with a view to publishing quality examples in the quarterly issues on a regular basis and in separate collections of alternative voices published at regular intervals.

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Appendix 1: Questionnaire findings

1. Without referring to the official evaluation form, what are the three most important criteria you like to use to evaluate the quality of a paper?
 - a. Originality of the topic/paper and forging “a new direction”
 - b. Appropriate research methodology, relevant literature review and Implications for ELT practice and other Asian contexts
 - c. Following an academic writing style, acknowledging the limitations of the research, writing in an easy to read style.

Also mentioned criteria were:

The organization of the paper, and following the APA style.

2. What is the most sensitive aspect of reviewing for you personally?

Most common responses were:

- a. Concerning feedback: Giving diplomatic and constructive feedback; giving “totally objective” and unbiased feedback
- b. The necessity to provide more context for the study & issues related to specific cultures and politics of the area. (One respondent commented that the South-Eastern ELT context may be unfamiliar to the Far Eastern context and vice versa)
- c. The difficulty in rejecting a paper.

Less common responses were:

- a. Guessing who the author is and the discomfort of reviewing a paper by a colleague despite being sent a blind paper to review.
- b. Dealing with papers in which “theories I disagree with” are put forward.

3. Can you describe a specific example of a dilemma you have faced when evaluating a paper?

Common responses were:

- a. When the topic is well-written and interesting but not relevant to the journal/EFL/ESL.
- b. When the topic is interesting but its treatment poor.
- c. Guessing/knowing the author.

How to reject a paper.

Less common responses were:

- a. When the paper is outside the expertise of the reviewer.
- b. When a paper is clearly written by a native speaker very confidently, but the non-native reviewer needs to give feedback on weaknesses in content.

4. Explain the importance you give to language in evaluating a paper.

Common responses were in two groups, the first placing ‘language’ as an important or primary factor in evaluating a paper:

- a. The language should be clear and easy to understand

- b. Language is important or a priority, considering that the journal is language-related
- c. Academic language use is most important

The second, smaller group considered 'content' of the paper more important than 'language':

Less common responses were:

- a. That academic style was part of the 'content' of the paper.
 - b. A dislike of proofreading papers.
5. When evaluating a paper, which do you focus on as a priority, content or language? Why?

Most respondents regarded 'content' as a priority, but some stated that both content and language are important.

One respondent chose 'content' as a priority but mentioned that "poor language can influence a reviewer's judgement".

6. Complete the following:

A paper should always be rejected if...

- a. The research methodology is weak.
- b. There is plagiarism.
- c. The literature review is weak.

Other responses were:

- a. The topic is irrelevant to EFL/ESL
- b. The paper is badly organized
- c. There are no practical implications for the classroom or no solution to the problem is stated.
- d. There is a lack of reflection on the weaknesses/limitations of the study.

7. A paper should never be rejected if...

Most common responses were:

- a. It makes a contribution to understanding language learning in the EFL/ESL field in the Asian context or better teaching. (one respondent saying that a paper should not be rejected if there is a "passion" to make a contribution to the field "rather than a condescension towards Asian students and teachers".)

b. It is well-organized/original/meets all publication criteria.

c. The research methodology is sound.

Less common responses were:

a. A paper should not be rejected if it only contains minor language or structural mistakes.

b. There are good prospects for improvement in the revising stage.

8. Does the international nature of the journal create any sensitive review issues for you?

The overwhelming response was 'no'.

Some comments were:

a. "Different countries emphasize different directions in English research".

b. "Paying specific attention to even ethnic and cultural diversities in an article might shed light on a particular case".

c. Specific contexts in Asia need to be understood in terms of the writer's own national or regional context.

9. Please feel free to add any other comments about important issues that have not been covered in our questions.

Some comments were:

a. "Encouraging MA students to publish may be setting them up for disappointment".

b. The journal's "positioning" in the field needs to be considered: as a mentor to newly emerging researchers, or as an international leader in the field.

c. One evaluation criteria ("situating the study "within a theoretical framework") should be extended to situating the study "among other comparable studies".

d. Statistics on how many papers are accepted or rejected could be sent out to reviewers to help them understand the rejection/acceptance rates and their own strictness of reviewing.

e. A "scale" could be introduced for review outcomes from Accept to Reject.

One reviewer cast doubt on the quality of the journal reviewers' "caliber", and also on the knowledge base of research methodology of 75% to 80% of all papers received.

It was also suggested that this survey could include the reviewers of other journals.



The Role of Revision and Teacher Feedback in a Chinese College Context

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Abstract

This study investigated the impact of revision and teacher indirect feedback on the acquisition of the present unreal conditional in a Chinese EFL college classroom context. Four research questions were addressed in the current study: 1) Does revision produce a positive effect on the formal accuracy of the target form when Chinese EFL university students receive teacher feedback? 2) Do Chinese EFL university students who are asked to revise their writings outperform those who are NOT in the formal accuracy of the target form when their errors are underlined? 3) Does teacher feedback generate a positive effect in the formal accuracy of the target form when Chinese EFL university students are engaged in the process of revision? 4) Do Chinese EFL university students who receive teacher feedback outperform those who receive NO teacher feedback in the formal accuracy of the target form when they are required to revise their subsequent writings? Ninety-three college students participated in this study. They were divided into three groups: 1) the Revision Group; 2) the Feedback and Revision Group; and 3) the Feedback Group. Results of the study suggest a very positive role of revision combined with teacher indirect feedback in the Chinese EFL college context. Further, they clearly show that receiving teacher feedback without the engagement of revision tasks does not improve accuracy in such a classroom.

Key words: teacher feedback; revision; formal accuracy

1. Introduction

There has been a heated debate on the role of teacher feedback in the field of second language writing research. There are people who believe in giving corrective feedback to students to improve their written accuracy and those who do not (Gue'nette, 2007). Ferris (1999, 2004) criticized the strong claim held by Truscott (1996, 2004) against grammar feedback and maintained that "it would certainly be premature to formulate any conclusions about this topic" (Ferris, 2004, p. 49) as existing research does not adequately address the issue whether grammar feedback is beneficial to L2 student writers or not. If we consider the role of teacher feedback from the perspective of learners, their views tend to be unanimously for the pedagogical practice of teacher feedback. According to Leki (1991), grammar feedback is viewed as helpful by college level ESL students. Hyland expressed a similar view that grammar feedback can serve as guidance for eventual writing development as far as students are concerned (2003). Acknowledging the uncertainty from the existing research data, it is legitimate to further address this role of teacher feedback in L2 writing.

Some research findings have suggested a positive role of indirect teacher feedback, when it incorporated with student self-revision¹, in facilitating accuracy in L2 writing. Ferris and Roberts (2001) examined the differential effect of teacher feedback among university ESL student writers in terms of the percentage of errors they could revise when they self-edited their texts across three feedback conditions: (1) errors marked with codes; (2) errors underlined with no codes and (3) no feedback at all. Results showed large beneficial effects for feedback groups versus the non-feedback group. However, differences in terms of the proficiency level between the feedback group and the non-feedback group might be a confounding factor in their study (Ferris & Roberts, 2001).

Lee (1997) obtained similar results by investigating the performance of ESL college students in Hong Kong: Students corrected more errors when the errors were underlined than errors were slighted indicated or with no indication at all. One of our recent studies (Li & Sun submitted) revealed a gain in formal accuracy in the use of the mixed type of unreal conditional when Chinese college students received indirect teacher feedback. Our study suggested that teacher feedback relevant to a linguistic form focused in revision tasks could be useful in bridging the gap between interlanguage and the target language. Further, indirect feedback in the form of underlining linguistic errors together with classroom instruction seemed to be more desirable than indirect feedback alone. However, it remained unclear whether this effect would last.

Chandler (2003) examined whether teacher feedback in the form of underling errors could help East Asian college students improve their writing accuracy and whether the effects

would last over one semester. The results of this study demonstrated that formal accuracy of student writing improved significantly if the participants were required to correct their errors than if they were not. Moreover, results also exhibited a gain in accuracy which was not accompanied by a decline in fluency over the semester. Findings of the study signified the importance of student correction or revision, and it might be possible that “if students did not revise their writing based on feedback about errors, having teachers mark errors was equivalent to giving no error feedback” (Chandler, 2003, p. 280).

However, in many Chinese college English classrooms, student self-revision has not been integrated with the provision of teacher feedback for some practical reasons². So, we do not know whether teacher feedback would be beneficial to college student writers if the chances of performing revision tasks are rare. This study is intended to investigate the role of revision and teacher indirect feedback on the increase of formal accuracy of a target form in a Chinese EFL college classroom context. In particular, it is designed to determine the effect of teacher indirect feedback when college student writers are not required to revise their writings.

2. The study

2.1 Research questions

This study attempts to answer four research questions: 1) Does revision produce a positive effect on the formal accuracy of the target form when Chinese EFL university students receive teacher feedback? 2) Do Chinese EFL university students who are asked to revise their writing outperform those who are NOT in the formal accuracy of the target form when their errors are underlined? 3) Does teacher feedback generate a positive effect in the formal accuracy of the target form when Chinese EFL university students are engaged in the process of revision? 4) Do Chinese EFL university students who receive teacher feedback outperform those who receive NO teacher feedback in the formal accuracy of the target form when they are required to revise their subsequent writings?

Revision in this study refers to any changes made with respect to the target form (i.e. the present unreal conditional)³ that student writers make in their writings. Besides, teacher feedback examined in this study involves underlining linguistic errors specific to the target form by the class teacher.

2.2 Method

2.2.1 Participants

Ninety-three participants were sampled from 150 sophomores, who came from four-year degree programmes in the College of Bioengineering and the College of Material Science and

Engineering in Chongqing University, PR China. The English course was a required one and it was designed to develop their general English proficiency with a communicative orientation. The students had three English lessons each week. It needs to note that writing was taught integrated with other language skills. Ages of the participants ranged from 18 to 20. They all learnt English in formal classrooms and none of them had any study abroad experience at the time of the study. All the participants were at the same English proficiency level with similar educational background.

2.2.2 Procedures

Before the study, participants were carefully sampled by a Grammar Test. In the Grammar Test, the students were required to complete 30 multiple-choice questions with 5 questions focused on the target form, 5 questions on the future unreal conditional and the rest as distractors. For instance:

If I were in the movie, then it _____ about time that I buried my head in my hands for a cry.
A. would be B. is C. will be D. was

Only the scores of the target form were analyzed, and the maximum score was 5 points. Anyone with a score of 0 or 5 was excluded, leaving a total of 93 participants for the study. They were randomly assigned to three treatment groups (for Revision Group $n = 31$; for Feedback and Revision Group $n=32$; for Feedback Group $n=30$). There was no significant difference between the mean scores of the three groups ($F=1.210$; $p =.301$).

In the study, the participants went through two phases (see Table 1). Phase 1 was designed to encourage all the participants to produce and notice the target form freely without teacher feedback in an output and input treatment. They were first asked to write a composition in 30 minutes using at least five sentences with the target form on topic 1 (**What Would Happen If There Were No Water?**). After the writings were collected, a model composition was provided. Phase 2 was designed so that each group received a different treatment. The Revision Group revised their writings on topic 1 without receiving any teacher feedback, while the Feedback and Revision Group revised their writings with their errors of the target form underlined by their class teacher. The Feedback Group received their writing on the same topic with errors underlined. Three weeks after the treatments were administered, the three groups were asked to write a composition using the target form on a new topic (**What Would You Do If You Didn't Go to College?**)

Table 1

Design of the study

	Task 1: Grammar Test (Week 1: 15 min.)	
	Task 2 (Topic 1): Writing on topic 1 (Week 3: 30 min.)	
	Task 3: Reading a model composition (Week 4: 15 min.)	
Revision Group Task 4: Revising writings on topic 1 (Week 4: 30 min.)	Feedback and Revision Group Task 4: Revising writings on topic 1 with errors underlined (Week 4: 30 min.)	Feedback Group Task 4: Reading writings on topic 1 with errors underlined (Week 4)
	Task 5 (Topic 2): Writing on topic 2 (Week 7: 30 min.)	

2.2.3 Scoring method

Similar to one of our recent studies (Li & Sun submitted), the scoring system was modified from Izumi, Bigelow, Fujiwara & Fearnaw (1999). Although the writing direction required the participants to produce at least five sentences using the target form, the actual number of sentences written using the target form varied from one participant to another. So, accuracy of the form was scored as follows: the percentage of correctly formulated target items of the present unreal conditional divided by the total number of the target items in all the target-like expressions attempted.

For the correctly used target items, four component features of the target form were considered: in the if-clause, 1) the past tense; and in the main clause, 2) a modal, 3) the past tense and 4) the original form of verb. For each target form item, 1 point was given for its presence and 0 point for its absence⁴. If a participant wrote five sentences using the target form and each sentence was correctly written, a total score of 20 (5 sentences×4 points per sentence) was given. Then the score for this writing would be 100% ($20 \div 20 = 100\%$).

2.3 Analyses and results

Descriptive data from the three groups collected in Phase 1 and 2 were presented in Table 2. To determine the effect of revision versus no revision on the gain in formal accuracy, a two-way ANOVA with repeated measures was conducted based on the mean scores obtained by the Feedback and Revision Group and Feedback Group with treatment (feedback and revision vs. feedback) and writing tasks (writing on topic 1 vs. writing on topic 2) as variables. The analysis showed a main effect of treatment ($F=4.556, p=.037 < .05$), and writing tasks ($F=12.915, p=.001 < .05$), but the interaction was not significant ($F=3.433, p=.069 > .05$). Further, results of a paired-samples *t*-test on the mean scores of the Feedback Group obtained in their writings on topic 1 and topic 2 did not reveal a significant difference ($t=1.037$,

$p=.308>.05$). So, the main effect of writing tasks was contributed mainly by the Feedback and Revision Group.

Table 2

Descriptive data of the three groups obtained in tasks of Phase 1 & 2

Groups	Tasks	Mean (%)	Std. Deviation	Minimum (%)	Maximum (%)
Revision	Writing on topic 1	78.12	15.77	38.89	100.00
	Revision task	81.87	15.70	44.44	100.00
	Writing on topic 2	79.54	15.74	41.18	100.00
Feedback and Revision	Writing on topic 1	74.38	15.15	47.62	100.00
	Revision task	89.52	14.12	47.83	100.00
	Writing on topic 2	88.96	13.57	57.14	100.00
Feedback	Writing on topic 1	73.42	17.49	45.00	100.00
	Writing on topic 2	78.08	14.34	47.62	100.00

Results of the above analyses show that when revision was required, participants in the Feedback and Revision Group demonstrated a gain in accuracy of the target form from writings on topic 1 to topic 2 (74.38% vs. 88.96%) when their errors relative to the target form were underlined. However, participants in the Feedback Group failed to exhibit a significant increase when revision was not required (73.42% vs. 78.08%). Revision generated a better effect on writing accuracy of the target form as the Feedback and Revision Group outperformed the Feedback Group.

To examine the effect of feedback versus no feedback on the gain in formal accuracy, a two-way ANOVA with repeated measures was conducted based on the mean scores obtained by the Revision Group and Feedback and Revision Group with treatment (revision vs. feedback and revision) and tasks (writing on topic 1, revision task vs. writing on topic 2) as variables. The analysis did not show a main effect of treatment ($F=2.259, p=.138>.05$), but it showed a main effect of tasks ($F=12.589, p=.001<.05$). Results of pairwise comparisons showed a very significant difference between the mean scores of writing on topic 1 and revision task obtained by the two groups ($p=.000<.05$). Moreover, results revealed a significant difference between the mean scores of writing topic 1 and 2 obtained by the two groups ($p=.001<.05$), but the difference between the mean scores of revision task and writing on topic 2 did not reach the level of significance ($p=.54>.05$). Finally, the interaction between the two main effects was significant ($F=2.259, p=.003<.05$).

Results presented in the previous paragraph means that the Revision Group improved the

rate accuracy from writing on topic 1 to the revision task (78.12% vs 81.87%) and this is also true to the Feedback and Revision Group (74.38% vs. 89.52%). Those two groups also increased their rate of accuracy from 78.12% and 74.38% respectively to 79.54% and 88.96 respectively from their writings on topic 1 to writings on topic 2. Further, the Feedback and Revision Group outperformed the Revision Group as the former group demonstrated a higher rate of accuracy in both the revision task (89.52% vs. 81.87%) and writing task on topic 2 (88.96% vs. 79.54%).

2.4 Summary and discussion

In light of the results presented above, four major findings emerged from the study:

- 1) Revision improved accuracy of the target form when the participants received indirect teacher feedback in the form of underlining errors relative to the target form.
- 2) Revision generated a better effect than no revision treatment condition on writing accuracy of the target form as the Feedback and Revision Group outperformed the Feedback Group when the participants were asked to produce the target form in a new writing topic. Feedback alone did not produce a significant effect on the accuracy of the target form.
- 3) Teacher feedback generated a positive effect on the accuracy of the target form when the participants were asked to revise their writings. The participants demonstrated a gain in accuracy from their writings on topic 1 to the revision task as well as from their writings on topic 1 to a new topic.
- 4) Participants in the feedback treatment condition showed an advantage over those with no feedback when they were engaged in the revision task as the former group outperformed those in the latter group in both the revision task and writing task on a new topic.

The first two findings, summarized above, suggest a positive role of revision when grammar errors specific to the target form were indicated by teacher indirect feedback in a Chinese college English classroom. What is more, they demonstrate that receiving teacher feedback without the engagement of revision tasks is not effective in such a classroom. The evidence observed in this study lends support to the current view in SLA which posits that output promotes learners to notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language, drawing learners to construct a hypothesis about the target form, which will be presented in their follow-up language production, and tested in their following output (Swain & Lapkin 1995). To the students who were required to revise their writings on topic 1, producing a revised output engaged them in looking for solutions to their linguistic problems in ways that were appropriate to the context of the revision task, making the provision of

teacher feedback a meaningful pedagogical activity. In the process of revision, student writers might attend to the linguistic errors which were underlined by the teacher and subsequently search for possible ways to solve their problems. So, the act of revision makes learners more aware of the mismatches between their own language and the target language, hence leads to a careful review of their interlanguage capabilities, which further leads to a gain in accuracy in subsequent writings.

The beneficial effect of revision is consistent with the results reported in the first study of Chandler (2003), which also shows an advantage of student correction over no correction in the improvement of accuracy and college student who did no error correction between writing assignments did not increase in accuracy. It is also important to note that the advantage of correction shown in Chandler (2003) did not result in a decline in fluency over the semester. Considering the positive role of revision observed in this study and Chandler's study, it is legitimate to stress the incorporation of revision in writing tasks in Chinese college English classrooms.

The effect of feedback versus no feedback revealed by the last two findings of the study suggests that indirect teacher feedback, in the form of underlining grammatical errors, facilitates accuracy in L2 writing if it is integrated with student self-revision tasks. Such effect extends the results reported in Li & Sun (submitted), as the effect revealed in the current study lasted over a period of six weeks. Findings imply that teacher feedback relevant to a linguistic form focused in revision tasks plays a positive role in promoting the accuracy of the form for Chinese EFL university student writers. By indicating linguistic problems, teacher feedback is useful as it may lead to a more form focused learning process when the general intent is still kept on expressing meanings in writing. Further, findings also support the provision of teacher feedback in Chinese EFL teaching at college level as an integral component of classroom practice.

3. Conclusion

So, to round up the results revealed in this study, this study shows a beneficial role of revision and teacher feedback, relevant to the linguistic form of the present unreal conditional, in promoting the formal accuracy for Chinese EFL university student writers. The study clearly shows that receiving teacher feedback without the engagement of revision tasks is not effective in facilitating accuracy in such a classroom. As teacher feedback is expected to be an important component of English instruction, favored by many Chinese-speaking English learners in a similar learning context, results of this study indicate the value of teacher feedback when, and only when it involves revision tasks of those learners. To conclude, we

believe that it is useful to design more classroom activities to involve student writers in the process of self correction or revision as a natural part of writing tasks in the Chinese EFL setting.

Notes

1. Revision has been termed as a goal-oriented thinking process, which a writer goes through in order to make possible changes to what is written. It is broader than editing for errors (see Williams, 2004).
2. In many college English courses, designed for non-English majors in China, writing is taught integrated with other language skills. Normally, revision is not incorporated with classroom writing tasks as it is too time-consuming to consider for classroom practice.
3. According to the class teacher, the target form (e.g. If she knew French, she would not ask me for help) was relatively hard for the students mainly due to two factors: 1) a lack of use and 2) a subtle difference between this form and the future unreal conditional, e.g. If he were to/should call me tomorrow, I would let him know.
4. For example: 1) If there were no electricity, the world would be different. Score for this sentence is: $1+(1+1)+1=4$.

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On the Role of *Emotional, Psychometric, and Verbal Intelligences* in the Academic Achievement of University Students Majoring in English Language

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Abstract

Following innovations in the theories of intelligence and their radical changes from the unitary concept of intelligence (IQ) to the theory of multiple intelligences (MI), and especially the concept of emotional intelligence or emotional quotient (EQ), this study sought to find out whether emotional intelligence, psychometric intelligence and verbal intelligence (VI) have any role in the academic achievement of university students majoring in English language literature, teaching and translation. EQ, IQ, and VI data were matched with the students` academic records, at university at the end of second year. Predicting second language learning success from EQ and IQ variables produced divergent results depending on how the variables were operationalized. When EQ variables were compared in groups (successful vs. unsuccessful) of individuals who had achieved very different levels of academic success, academic achievement was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence (intrapersonal, stress management, and general mood competencies). When IQ variables were compared in groups (successful vs. unsuccessful) of individuals who had achieved very different levels of academic success, it was found that academic achievement did not correlate much with IQ but was strongly associated with VI which is a subsection of IQ tests. Results are discussed in the context of the importance of emotional, psychometric and verbal intelligences in second language learning.

Key words: Academic achievement, Bar-on, EQ, IQ, VI, Wechsler

1. Introduction

It is generally accepted that some people have a knack for learning second languages and others are rather poor at it. Some immigrants become fluent, while others from the same background and living in the same circumstances for the same amount of time speak the

language rather poorly. Given that their ages, motivations and so on are the same, why are there such differences? One important reason can be that they possess different language aptitudes or rather, different levels of intelligence.

The role and meanings of the term intelligence as it has been used in second language acquisition (SLA) are significantly different for virtually all aspects of SLA. If only those individuals with what is called exceptionally high innate abilities are able to become highly proficient in a second language, then it may be sensible to arrange academic programs based on this fact. If on the other hand, it turns out that intellectual abilities are not predictive of success with a second language, the pedagogical choices are clearly quite different. For example, it is probable that an enriched understanding of innate capacity will result both in modifications of theories about how second languages are learned as well as more effective ways of teaching them. If it turns out that learners exhibit certain patterns of intellectual ability, it may be possible to devise a pedagogy that caters to these patterns and may result in more effective teaching.

Intelligence is a slippery term to define, and there is no consensus over its definition among scholars. It has undergone different definitions, from intelligence as a unidimensional concept (Binet, 1905) to intelligence as a multiple concept (Gardner, 1983) and finally to intelligence as an emotional notion (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Many researchers and lay people have become dissatisfied with a traditional, ‘narrow’ conceptualization of intelligence, which emphasizes verbal and performance IQ and other more ‘academic’ abilities (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Recently, researchers have promoted the idea that our notion of intelligence should be expanded to include ‘emotional intelligence’ (EI), which has generally been designed as the ability to perceive, understand, and manage one’s emotions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Emotional Quotient (EQ) is defined as “abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustration, to control impulses and delay gratification; to regulate one’s moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to emphasize and to hope” (Goleman, 1995, p.34). According to this definition, emotional intelligence provides the bedrock for the development of a large number of competencies that help learners perform more effectively. Among the many factors contributing to second language learning, it could be that emotional intelligence plays a critical role in language learning and teaching.

One of the intelligences that Gardner (1983) enumerated is verbal intelligence. Verbal Intelligence (VI) (knowledge of words, synonyms, and antonyms) is the cornerstone of language acquisition. In second language learning, teachers go out of their way to enhance it.

But one important question remains to be answered: Does focusing on VI alone in class warrant success in second language learning? Or should it be accompanied by EI to be more effective? To our best knowledge, to date no research has been done on the role of EQ, IQ and VI in the academic achievement of second language learners. Therefore, this study set out to investigate the following questions.

1. Does **EQ** play any role in the **academic achievement** of students majoring in English at the end of second year at university?
2. Does **IQ** play any role in the **academic achievement** of students majoring in English at the end of second year at university?
3. Does **VI** play any role in the **academic achievement** of students majoring in English at the end of second year at university?

2. Method

2.1. Participants

A community sample of 508 people participated in this study, comprised of 134 males and 374 females between the ages of 19 and 29 ($M= 21.3$, $SD=6.7$). All of the participants were university students attending four universities in Iran, majoring in English language literature (271), translation (120), and teaching (115). They were all in their second year and passed their language proficiency courses including: Reading, Writing, Listening, and Speaking. These students were asked if they would volunteer to participate in a study on “intelligence and second language learning”. Out of 508 participants who completed the EQ questionnaires, only 300 participants accepted to participate in the IQ interview.

2.2. Measures and Procedures

In September (2006), at the start of the academic year, participants completed the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i; Bar-On, 1997). The Bar-On EQ-i (Bar-On, 1996), was originally designed in 1980 by Bar-On. It is a self-report scale, including 133 items, which measures five broad areas of skills or competencies and 15 factorial components (Bar-On, 1997).

Competencies	Components	Items
Intrapersonal	Emotional self-awareness	8
	Assertiveness	7
	Self-regard	9
	Self-actualization	9
	Independence	7

Interpersonal	Empathy Interpersonal Interrelationship Social responsibility	8 11 10
Adaptability	Problem solving Reality testing Flexibility	8 10 8
Stress management	Stress tolerance Impulse control	9 9
General mood	Happiness Optimism	9 8

However, 15 of the questions are associated with scales intended to assess response validity. Omission Rate, Inconsistency Index, Positive Impression, and Negative Impression scales. An example from the EQ questionnaire is "It does not bother me to take advantage of people, especially if they deserve it." Subjects respond on a 5-point Likert type scale continuum from "Very seldom or Not true of me" to "Very often or True of me."

For the EQ-i (Bar-On, 1996) high and low scores are identified by their distance from the mean score of 100. Scores exceeding the mean or falling below the mean by 1 SD (15 points) are considered to be within the normal range. Since the test was timed, the participants were asked to complete it in 40 minutes.

The development of the EQ-i took place over many years, starting with the development of a conceptual framework and leading to the construction and refinement of scale items. Validity scales and correction indexes were added over time to improve measurement. A substantial body of research, summarized in the EQ-i manual (1997), indicates that the scales have generally good internal consistency and test-retest reliability. Factor analyses also provide some support for the construct validity of the questionnaire. Finally, the convergent and discriminant validity of the EQ-i has been evaluated in a number of ways. Many studies examined correlations between the EQ-i and various self-report inventories, including the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (Cattell, Eber & Tatsouka, 1970), the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975) and the MMPI-2 (Butcher, Dahlstrom, Graham, Tellegen & Kaemmer, 1989). In general, EQ-i total scores are correlated positively with measures of emotional stability and negatively with measures of neuroticism and psychopathology. Other studies have examined correlations between the EQ-i and peer ratings of adjustment or compared the EQ-i scores of criterion groups (e.g. young business leaders versus unemployed youth; prisoners versus community residents) and support the conclusion that EQ-i scores are related to general psychosocial adjustment.

In view of the cultural differences and to avoid any misunderstanding regarding the

content of the questionnaire for lower-level students, the translated version of this questionnaire (Dehshiry, 2003) was employed. In this study, the reliability of the translated version was found to be high (Cronbach's alpha: .86).

To measure IQ and the verbal intelligence of the subjects, Wechsler's Adult Intelligence Scale (III) (1981) was used. The test is composed of two scales: verbal and performance. The verbal scale is composed of: information (29 items), digit span (14 items), vocabulary (40 items), arithmetic (14 items), comprehension (14 items) and similarities (13 items) modules. The Performance part consists of: picture comprehension, picture arrangement, block design, digit symbol, object assembly (Wechsler, 1981). Based on the classification made by Cattell (1963), the Verbal scale of WAIS is used to check the Crystallized intelligence (knowledge and skills related to education and experience) and the Performance scale is used to measure the Fluid intelligence (the ability to see relationships, as in analogies and letter and number series) of individuals (for more information on the test see appendix).

The single most frequently used test to establish a level of verbal intellectual functioning is the Vocabulary subtest of the WAIS-III (Wechsler, 1981). The WAIS Vocabulary subsection consists of 40 words. An examinee is presented with 1 word at a time and asked to define each word's meaning. The examinee's responses receive 0, 1, or 2 points, depending on how well he or she defines the word, allowing a range of scores from 0 to 80. The Vocabulary subset is quick to administer, correlates highly (.91-.95) with the Verbal scale of the WAIS-III, and comes with extensive normative data (Wechsler, 1949, 1981).

The reliability coefficients of (internal consistency) are .93 for the Performance IQ averaged across all age groups and .97 for the Verbal IQ, with an r of .97 for the full scale. Evidence supports the validity of this test as a measure of global intelligence. It does seem to measure what it intends to measure. It is correlated highly with other IQ tests (e.g. The Stanford-Binet), it correlates highly with empirical judgments of intelligence; it is significantly correlated with a number of criteria of academic and life success, including college grades, measures of work performance and occupational level. There are also significant correlations with measures of institutional progress among the mentally retarded (Wechsler, 1991). In this study, the author has used the translated version of the WAIS-III which has been prepared by Azmoon Padid institute (1993) in Tehran, Iran. The total reliability of the test in this study (Alpha: .82) was found to be high.

2.3. Data analysis

EQ questionnaires first were scored based on the guidelines provided by Bar-On (1998), then the total EQ scores, and the scores of EQ's five major subscales were computed. No data

transformation was necessary.

To determine the role of EQ in second language learning, students' scores at university, in GPA, were obtained from the Registrar's offices of all universities. Pearson product-moment correlation was applied to the data.

In order to compare levels of emotional competency in successful and less successful second-year students, academic records from the registrar's offices of all universities were used to identify two groups of students: academically successful students (defined as those with a grade-point-average for the academic year above 84%) and academically unsuccessful students (defined as those with a grade-point-average for the academic year below 60%). These are not arbitrary criteria. For the students who participated in this study these values have important institutional implications: students in the successful group are considered to be top students and can take more courses for the next term to finish their studies sooner; students in the unsuccessful group are "rusticated" and will be asked to withdraw from the university if their GPA will be less than 59% for two more subsequent terms. With regard to the GPA, there were 77 students in the successful group (20 men and 57 women) and 67 students in the unsuccessful group (8 men and 59 women). These groups were not significantly different with respect to age. The same procedure for analysis was followed with the IQ data.

t-tests, discriminant function analyses, and several diagnostic proficiency statistics (sensitivity and specificity) were calculated to further analyze the data. Discriminant function analysis is used to classify subjects into two or more distinct groups, such as dropouts versus persisters, successful versus unsuccessful, and so on. The criterion in discriminant analysis is a person's group membership. Sensitivity refers to a test's ability to identify correctly individuals with problems. This is also called the true positive rate, identifying the percentage of unsuccessful learners. Specificity refers to a test's ability to identify correctly individuals with no problems. This is also called the true negative rate, identifying the percentage of successful learners.

3. Results

3.1. Emotional intelligence

Table 1 presents correlations among EQ-i Bar-On variables (intrapersonal, interpersonal, stress management, adaptability, general mood, and total EQ), and second-year university grade point average (GPA). As the results of the correlation analysis demonstrates, low but significant correlations exist between EQ and its competencies and GPA at the $p < .05$ level of significance, which ranged from .12 to .22, demonstrating that EQ contributes to academic

achievement of second language learners at university.

Table 1: Correlations among EQ-i variables and GPA

Variable	Intrapersonal	Interpersonal	Stress management	Adaptability	General mood	Total EQ
GPA	.18*	.17*	.22*	.12*	.15*	.21*

Since the correlation between GPA and EQ competencies was low, though significant, the researchers, to further examine the relationship between EQ and GPA conducted multiple t-tests. Table 2 presents the results of t-tests for the EQ measures for GPA. The results of t-tests demonstrated that students in the successful group had higher scores on intrapersonal ($t=2.20$, $p<.05$), stress management ($t=2.02$, $p<.05$), general mood ($t=2.01$, $p<.05$), and total EQ ($t=2.34$, $p<.05$) in GPA.

Table 2: The results of t-tests on EQ variables in different skills for both groups

Skills	Scales	Number	t-value	p-level
		Successful/unsuccessful		
GPA	Intrapersonal	77/67	2.20	.02
	Interpersonal	77/67	1.32	.18
	Stress management	77/67	2.02	.04
	Adaptability	77/67	.73	.46
	General mood	77/67	2.01	.04
	Total EQ	77/67	2.34	.02

To further explore the predictive validity of the EQ for all of the skills , stepwise discriminant function analyses were performed using emotional intelligence scores as predictors of membership in two groups (successful vs. unsuccessful). The results demonstrated that intrapersonal ability in GPA ($r=.95$, $p<05$) was the best predictor to differentiate the successful from unsuccessful students.

Discriminant function scores were subsequently used to classify the students into successful and unsuccessful groups. Classification rates are presented in Table 3. Following the definitions and procedures outlined by Kessel and Zimmerman (1993), several diagnostic proficiency statistics were calculated from these classification results: for GPA, sensitivity was 56%, specificity 57% and overall correct classification rate was 56%.

Table 3: Classification results from discriminant function analyses with EQ variables

Skills	Actual status	n	Predicted status	% Correct
			Unsuccessful / Successful	
GPA	Unsuccessful	67	38 / 29	56 (Sensitivity)
	Successful	77	33 / 44	57 (Specificity)
	Total	144	71 / 73	56 (overall rate)

3.2. Psychometric and verbal intelligences

To find out whether there is any relationship between intelligence and second language learning, Pearson product-moment correlation was applied to the data.

The data bearing on the correlation of the total IQ with GPA (Table 4) showed that there were significant, though not much high correlations, at the $p<.05$ level of significance between the total IQ and GPA ($r=.29$). The only subtests which were correlated significantly, albeit low with GPA were Information ($r=.18$, $p<05$) and Vocabulary ($r=.3$. $p<.05$).

Table 4: Correlations among IQ variables and GPA

Variable	Information	Comprehension	Arithmetic	Similarities	Digit span	Vocabulary	Total IQ
GPA	.181	.109	.132	.156	.082	.309*	.296*

To further examine the relationship between IQ and GPA, multiple t-tests were conducted.

Table 5 presents the results of t-tests for the IQ measures for GPA.

The results of t-tests demonstrated that students in the successful group had higher scores on Vocabulary subtest ($t=2.61$, $p<.05$), and total IQ ($t=2.76$, $p<.05$) in GPA.

Table 5: The results of t-tests on IQ variables in GPA

Skills	Scales	n	t-value	p-level
		Successful/Unsuccessful		
GPA	Information	68/46	1.80	.07
	Comprehension	68/46	.49	.62
	Arithmetic	68/46	1.61	.11
	Similarities	68/46	1.52	.13
	Digit span	68/46	1.46	.14
	Vocabulary	68/46	2.61	.01
	Total IQ	68/46	2.76	.008

To further explore the predictive validity of the IQ for GPA, stepwise discriminant

function analyses were performed using intelligence scores as predictors of membership in two groups (successful vs. unsuccessful). The results demonstrated that the Vocabulary subtest (verbal intelligence) in GPA ($r=.88$, $p<.05$) was the best predictor to differentiate the successful from unsuccessful students.

Discriminant function scores were subsequently used to classify the students into successful and unsuccessful groups. Classification rates are presented in table 6. Following the definitions and procedures outlined by Kessel and Zimmerman (1993), several diagnostic proficiency statistics were calculated from these classification results: for GPA, sensitivity was 60%, specificity 64% and overall correct classification rate was 62%.

Table 6: Classification results from discriminant function analyses with IQ variables

Skills	Actual status	n	Predicted status	% Correct
			Unsuccessful / Successful	
GPA	Unsuccessful	46	28/18	60(Sensitivity)
	Successful	68	44/24	64(Specificity)
	Total	114	72/42	62 (overall rate)

4. Discussion

Determining the role of emotional intelligence in academic achievement produced divergent results depending on how the variables were operationalized. When the relationship between GPA and EQ was examined ($n=508$), total EQ and its subscales were found to be poor predictors of academic achievement.

Quite a different level of prediction was produced when EQ variables were compared in groups who had achieved a second-year university GPA of 85% or more versus relatively unsuccessful students who received a second-year university GPA of 59% or less. Important factors for success in academic achievement were found to be: intrapersonal, stress management, and general mood. In fact, results of the t-tests indicate that the emotional competencies which are effective in academic achievement include: The intrapersonal abilities which involve emotional self awareness (the ability to recognize and to understand one's feelings); assertiveness (the ability to express feelings, beliefs and thoughts, and to defend one's rights in a non-destructive manner; self-regard (the ability to respect and accept oneself), self-actualization (the ability to realize one's potential capacities), and independence (the ability to be self-directed and self-controlled in one's thinking and actions and to be free of emotional dependency), stress management abilities which involve stress tolerance (the ability to cope with and manage stressful situations) and impulse control (the ability to resist

or delay an impulse, drive or temptation to act), and general mood abilities which involve happiness (being satisfied with life, enjoying being with others) and optimism (maintaining a positive attitude even in face of adversity). (Bar-On, 1997). In addition, the findings on GPA were consistent, to some extent, with those of Parker et al. (2004), in which they found relationship between academic achievement and intrapersonal, stress management, and adaptability subscales.

GPA and EQ were strongly associated with intrapersonal abilities assessed at the end of the academic year. Collectively, these variables were found to be strong predictors in identifying both academically successful (nearly 60% of successful students were identified) and unsuccessful (nearly 60% of unsuccessful students were correctly identified) second-year students. Based on the scores of this emotional subscale of emotional intelligence-intrapersonal abilities - one can easily predict the performance of students' GPA at university. In fact, this subscale enjoys acceptable predictive utility, differentiating the successful from unsuccessful language learners at university.

Unlike the findings of emotional intelligence which came up with divergent results depending on how the variables were operationalized, examining the role of IQ in second language learning produced convergent results, demonstrating that the only subscale of IQ which is strongly correlated with academic achievement is the Vocabulary section (verbal intelligence). The results of correlation, t-tests, and discriminant function analyses all showed that the verbal intelligence is very important in academic achievement.

5. Conclusion

The findings of this study corroborated the statement of Elliot Aaronson, a distinguished social psychologist, who claimed that "Studies have demonstrated that EQ and academic intelligence are separate qualities, and that emotional intelligence is a better predictor of success in education" (2000, p. 102 as cited in Parker et al., 2004, p. 169). Although Aaronson has failed to provide evidence for the foregoing claim by comparing the predictive validity of IQ and EI in predicting academic performance via appropriate statistical tests for comparing differences among validity coefficients or regression parameters, our study attempts to furnish hard statistical data to support the hypothesis that IQ in general has little predictive utility for academic success, but EQ was found to be correlated with academic success. These findings are also compatible with the findings of Goleman (1995) who claimed that EQ more than IQ accounts for success in life and education.

According to this study, EQ competencies which play crucial roles in academic achievement of the students include: Intrapersonal, Stress management, and General mood.

The results, to some extent, are compatible with the findings of Parker et al. (2004), in which they found a relationship between academic achievement and intrapersonal, stress management, and adaptability subscales. To obtain better scores at university, students should foster a good relationship with professors and other students and to cope with stressful situations occurring in the classroom. Therefore, it seems to be natural that emotional intelligence can play a pivotal role in academic achievement at university.

As it was found IQ in general and verbal intelligence in particular can predict success at university at the end of the second year. It is not surprising to find that one of the most important abilities which can help students gain better results and be successful in their courses at university is verbal intelligence, because verbal intelligence deals with the knowledge of words, and the knowledge of words especially in the mother tongue is the cornerstone of all subjects and courses at university. Therefore, acquiring high levels of emotional and verbal intelligences can lead to success at university.

6. Implications

The findings of this study suggest several implications for the English language teaching profession. If we believe that emotional intelligence can be increased, trained and schooled (Elias et al., 1997), and if we assume that it may be possible to educate those who are low in emotional competencies to improve their abilities to better recognize their feelings, express them, and regulate them (Mayer & Geher, 1996), language policy makers are expected to include programs to raise emotional competencies of their learners. Curricula should seek to educate learners about the value of emotional competencies. They also seek to foster the development of specific skills in these areas (e.g., recognition of emotions in self and others, empathy, conflict resolution).

Besides, English teachers are expected to be familiar with the concept, and to try to enhance the emotional intelligence of their own learners. To this end, they themselves first should discover their own emotional intelligence abilities through answering EQ tests and questionnaires, and if it is low, they can strive to raise their own emotional competencies. It seems to be natural that a teacher with a low level of EQ may not satisfy the students' emotional needs, and so he will be of little help to them, failing to increase their emotional intelligence.

Materials developers are also required to include techniques which pay more attention to emotional factors, leading the learners to more self-and-other-discovery. Some helpful techniques which can be used to increase emotional intelligence in the classroom include: discussion, listening to light music, watching emotional clips, self-disclosure, designing

questionnaires and reading literature and psychological texts. For example, employing questionnaires or holding discussion groups on emotional competencies can highly contribute to emotional literacy. Well-organized questionnaires can make the learners be more aware of their own emotional competencies. Discussion groups in which the learners are asked to express their feelings freely and share them with others in an explicit way can make the learners know themselves deeply, foster good relations with others, and reduce stress and anxiety.

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Appendix

Wechsler (III)

The Verbal part of the WAIS-III (1981) is carried out through interview. The average time to do the interview is 30-50 minutes. In the Information section of the test, a testee is presented with one question at a time and asked to respond it. The testees' responses receive 1 point for correct responses and 0 for incorrect responses, allowing a range of scores from 0 to 29. In the Digit span section of the test, testees listen to sets of numbers, and are asked to repeat them on the spot. The testees' responses receive 1 point for correct responses and 0 for incorrect responses and the range scores are from 0 to 17. In the Arithmetic subtest of the test, testees are provided with some questions one at a time, and required to respond them in the allotted time. The testees' responses receive 1 point for correct responses and 0 for incorrect responses allowing a range of scores from 0 to 18. In the Comprehension part of the test, testees are provided with some questions one at a time and asked to answer them. The examinees' responses receive 0, 1, or 2 points, depending on how well he or she may answer the questions, allowing a range of scores from 28. In the Similarities section of the test, examinees are asked to find the similarities between some words. The examinees' responses receive 0, 1, or 2 points, depending on how exact the responses are, allowing a range of scores from 0 to 26.



Helping Daunted Low Level Adult EFL Learners Get a Fresh Start with a Literature Ladder

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Abstract

This paper explores the pedagogical changes Taiwanese EFL students have undergone over the last decade and a half, identifies one group (a small portion of college students who have thus far failed to attain the skills needed for basic reading tasks), and offers a goal for the members of this group: to become autonomous learners. The paper then proposes Krashen's (2004) literature based extensive reading model as a tool to help them attain the goal but notes that lower level students will have to overcome two challenges. First, lower level students cannot engage the material at the first rung of Krashen's model--graded readers--due to lexical difficulties: Because the passages in graded readers are much longer than typical EFL books, students who experience low lexical sight automaticity forget what they are reading by the time they reach the end of the paragraph. To help them improve their automaticity and thus their reading speed, the paper proposes using Anderson's (2002) rate build up reading technique, an adaptation of Samuels' Repeated Reading (RR) application (1979) and the i minus 1 hypothesis (Day & Bamford, 1998), as a prestage to Krashen's model to create a combined extensive reading ladder. Secondly, despite the surfeit of research espousing the benefits of extensive reading and the motivational advantages of using literature in the classroom, simply providing literature as reading material does not automatically guarantee low level students' interest either in the classroom or once they leave. Thus, teaching should be carefully organized both at the course level and in the presentation of the material so that students can enjoy and profit from the work both during the course and once they leave. To illustrate how each area can be addressed simultaneously, the paper outlines Krashen's contribution and then offers a classroom model that illustrates the use of the RBU procedure and a cyclical application of three skills areas: language based, literature for content, and literature for personal enrichment.

Key words: Low-level, autonomous learning, literature, graded readers, lexical automaticity, reading speed

1. Introduction

From Taiwan's first annual TESOL conference to the Ministry of Education's decision to lower the age of mandated English learning instruction to the first grade (Nunan, 2003), theorists and pedagogists, myself included, with the best intentions of course, have participated in the island's annual conferences. A decade and a half later, the Protean Generation--EFL students who have undergone and had to adjust to the gamut of educational trial and error which has resulted from our advice--is attending college. Some, despite the incessant pedagogic changes we have put them through, have succeeded. Others, regardless of our best intentions, have slipped through the cracks. Nevertheless, we, theorists and pedagogists, marching on hand in hand, continue to offer more suggestions.

The question is what do we do about this aging group: Do we forget about them, mark them as acceptable losses, and focus on our newest young arrivals, or do we attempt one last fresh start? The latter seems the more responsible course. While our time with these adult learners is at an end, theirs is not: The recent island wide General English Proficiency Test (the bench mark for many public and private sector jobs), helping their own children who will one day be attending school, and countless other English demands loom in the distance. These soon to be graduates do not have another decade or so to get it right, but we can do what we arguably should have done in the beginning: Help them to become autonomous learners, learners who have "acquired enough of the second language so that at least some authentic input is comprehensible, enough to ensure . . . the ability to acquire still more language" (Krashen, 2004, p. 9) and enough skills to continue to engage materials outside of the classroom in a meaningful and enjoyable way in order to continue to progress on their own.

One answer to helping these students begin a track towards life long autonomous leaning may be putting them in control of their learning by setting them on a path up a ladder model which is based on reading literary materials. To fully understand the ladder, we must examine the first part of it, Stephen Krashen's contribution. Krashen, speaking to the island's educators at the 2004 TESOL conference, presented a paper, *Applying the Comprehension Hypothesis: Some Suggestions*, and offered what appears to be a commonsensical gradation of reading materials for "elementary school all the way to the university level" (p. 13). The model, which avoids the heated debate about what place graded readers and other nontraditional reading materials hold in the field of literature (see Day & Bamford, 1998), begins with the introduction of graded readers--"extended simplified versions of classics, modern novels, fairy tales, and simple originals, mostly fiction, written in language reduced terms of structures and vocabulary" (Hill, 1997, p. 57)--and continues through a series of steps: light

reading, popular literature, contemporary serious literature, the classics, and comparative literature (table 1).

Table 1: Krashen's Comprehension Reading Model

Level 1: Graded Readers
Stage 1 includes reading very easy texts such as graded readers, language experience texts (stories dictated by student to teacher; teacher writes out the story), and newspapers written for EFL students. The only criterion for texts is that they be compelling. They need not provide cultural information or "make you a better person." Some reading can be done as sustained silent reading as students become independent readers.
Level 2: Light Reading
The focus of level 2 is "light" authentic reading, that is comics, graphic novels, and easy sections of newspapers, with continuing reading of graded readers and books especially adapted for second language acquirers. Class discussion includes the cultural background of some assigned readings as well as readings done in small groups (literature circles). Background readings are provided in the first language when appropriate, e.g. comparison to similar genres in the first language. Class activities also include teachers reading to the class from level 2 reading material as a means of providing additional comprehensible input and stimulating interest in books. Sustained silent reading (SSR) is provided about ten minutes per day. Students can read anything they like (within reason), including graded readers and other reading material from level 1. They are not "accountable" for what they read during SSR. Some orientation can be done at this level in the students' first language. This will consist of a brief introduction to age acquisition theory or "how language is acquired," illustrated by case histories of successful and unsuccessful second language acquisition. The formal study of grammar can begin here with a focus on aspects of grammar that are useful for editing. Instruction will also include the use of a grammar handbook and the spell-check function on a computer.
Level 3: Popular Literature
Reading at level 3 focuses on contemporary and light popular literature, including some current best sellers, popular magazines, and viewing of "lighter" films. Class discussion focuses on current culture and how values are expressed in current popular literature, e.g. gender roles, humor, how films and novels comment on issues of the day, the role of "gossip" magazines and newspapers, etc.

SSR continues, again allowing students to select their own reading, which can include reading at "lower levels."

Grammar study at this level can expand to include some "linguistics," i.e. language universals and language change.

I predict that many students will be "autonomous" by this time, able to understand a considerable amount of input outside the classroom.

Level 4: Contemporary Serious Literature

This level includes the heavier and more "serious" works of current interest published in English, as well as films, newspapers, and literary and philosophical magazines.

The approach will at first be "narrow," focusing on the work of one author or genre, e.g. the works of Kurt Vonnegut, plays by Neil Simon.

As before, SSR can include lighter reading. Only after students have experienced several authors or genres in depth will the "survey" be done.

This level, and the next, can be repeated several times, focusing on different authors and genres.

At this stage, language acquisition theory can be done in some detail, reading original works in English.

Level 5: The Classics

Students are now ready for "the classics," literature written in very different eras.

To help ensure comprehensibility, the approach will be "narrow," with a focus on one author or one genre, e.g., the romance, the historical novel of a certain period (e.g., World War I, the Depression).

Background readings in English and in the first language will also help increase comprehensibility.

Level 6: Comparative Literature

Comparative literature emphasizes universals: universal themes, universal plots, universal characters, universals of morality and ethics.

Krashen, 2004, p. 10.

For the latest generation of youngsters just entering the educational system, Krashen's steps compose a potentially sound plan, but in a world where the latest panacea has come much too late for our aging Protean Generation things are not that simple. Not only are these older learners daunted from a series of unsuccessful educational experiences, they have trouble fully engaging the material at the first rung of the Krashen's model--graded readers--for two reasons. First, because the longer nature of these texts--much longer than the

passages these students have typically encountered in EFL course books--has created an extra challenge: Graded readers, even those at the lowest level, 200 words, are beyond the ability of many low level EFL learners. The problem is not a matter of lexical knowledge: Students may know the words. It is a matter of low sight vocabulary with regards to a lack of automaticity because the students recognize the words too slowly, the result of which is a slow reading speed. Consequently, students with low sight vocabularies are likely to read with poor understanding, if only because their memories are taxed: The beginning of the paragraph is forgotten by the time they have struggled to the end of it (Nutall, 1996, p.54). Second, students have come to expect reading English to be an academically isolated, meaningless, and unenjoyable teacher directed task that they have absolutely no control over: Something which is fraught with mouthing words in front of a teacher and group of classmates or searching through an otherwise meaningless text to answer a set of questions that will determine a score on some sort of school based assessment--a gatekeeper which they feel successful students understand, but they never will--anything but an enjoyable autonomous life long out of class activity.

To help students start on an autonomous learning path at the first step of Krashen's model, graded readers, we need to help them address both areas. First, we need to help them learn a technique based on increasing automaticity: "over learning words [encountering repeatedly words with which they have some familiarity] to the point that they are automatically recognized in their printed form" (Day, Bamford & Richards, 1998, p. 16) so learners can carry "out the task without awareness or attention" (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1997, p. 28). Thus, less cognitive energy is spent on lexical processing whereby lexical automaticity of sight vocabulary increases and fosters reading speed increases (Anderson, 1999).

Samuels (1979) posed one such solution for this problem but with a different population: a repeated reading (RR) technique to improve learner automaticity with L1 learning disabled students. In this technique, learners increase their lexical sight automaticity through repeated exposure to vocabulary by reading the same material over and over until the recognition of vocabulary becomes automatic.

Niel Anderson, seeing a similar need in L2 settings, adapted Samuels' technique for use with L2 learners. Addressing a group of local educators at the Taipei 2002 PanAsian Conference, Anderson suggested an adaptation of Samuel's RR procedure, a Rate Build Up procedure (RBU), and suggested that it be used with material at student's *i* minus level --material that is below the students' *i* (current level of competence) (see Day, Bamford & Richards, 1998)--to increase lexical automaticity and reading speeds of Taiwanese learners of English:

In this activity, students are given a text appropriate for the level they read at or just below. Readers have sixty seconds to read as much material as they can. They then begin reading again from the beginning of the text and are given an additional sixty seconds. They are to read more material during the second sixty-second period than in the first. The drill is repeated a third and a fourth time. The purpose of this activity is to re-read 'old' material quickly, gliding into the new. As their eyes move quickly over the 'old' material the students actually learn how to process the material more quickly. The exercise does not really emphasize moving the eyes quickly, rather the material is to be processed and comprehended more efficiently. As students participate in this rate building activity, they learn that they indeed can increase their reading rate. (Anderson, 2002, p. 16)

For students who are unable to begin at the first rung of Krashen's steps due to low automaticity, the RBU procedure promises such an entrance. It should be noted, however, that while the RBU procedure proposes that students engage material below their *i* level, it should not be seen as a permanent delay or rejection of moving towards more advanced material. Instead, such a procedure provides an interim where lower level learners can take a step back to engage materials slightly below their level in order to increase their sight vocabulary; thereby reducing the load on their short term memory (Eskey, 2005) and increasing their reading speed. This reduced load, in turn, allows readers to devote greater cognitive capacity to higher comprehension skills (Anderson, 1999). Thus, the *i* minus 1 theory should not be seen as a challenge or a replacement of Krashen's *i* plus 1 (Eskey, 2005). Rather it fits into the long term growth of the students' abilities: It is a precursor, a place for low level readers to get started on Krashen's reading model to form a continuous learning ladder both in the classroom and after they leave.

The second thing we must do is also related to putting the students in control of their learning. After we have helped them to take control of improving their reading speed, we need to help them get past the idea that reading literature is an academically isolated activity. We need to help them discover that reading literature can be a meaningful activity they can have control over both in and outside of the classroom. To do this, we need to do more than simply supply them with texts and tell them to read. Despite the surfeit of scholarship that shows the benefits of extensive reading (See Day & Bamford, 1998; Krashen, 2005) and the clear advantages of the use of literature in the classroom from a motivational point of view (See Carter, 1996), introducing it will not automatically guarantee student interest, especially with learners who have had previous unsuccessful reading experiences. Thus, the introduction of literature should be "carefully organized, both at course level and in the presentation of the material, so that students can both enjoy and profit from the work" (Hill 1997, p. 23) Consequently, we need to guide them through behaviors that will help them to

see that reading can be a meaningful and enjoyable activity that they will feel confident to continue doing once outside the classroom.

This step is comprised of an empowering classroom model that explicitly explains the methodology behind the course, provides a large amount of comprehensible literary material, and trains them in three skill areas that they can transfer to their outside reading once they leave the classroom: language based literature exploration, literature for content, and literature for personal enrichment (Lazar, 2004).

2. Climbing the ladder: A classroom application

Our believing that the combination of the RBU technique and having and understanding of a set of skills offers a fresh start to Krashen's reading steps to form a continuous ladder that students can begin to use in the classroom and continue with on their own as autonomous learners once they leave and having our students accept our advice again is not a simple matter of implementation. Building confidence is not as easy as it used to be. We at the college level are no longer faced with a sea of eager young faces. When working with daunted adult EFL learners, unconditional trust is no longer something we can count on. What do we say to the downtrodden adult student who says, "I have to take this class for graduation, but I don't expect anything different"? How do we say, "Trust us on this one. It will be different. We *think* we have got it right this time, really"? Or, at least, "How about giving this a try?"

The answer to getting students started on the ladder is to re/gain their trust by gradually putting them in full control of their own learning. The first step is to visibly dispose of the "sage at the stage" approach they have come to expect by explaining everything (the theory and the pedagogy) to them up front as early as the first class: For low level learners, this can be done in the students' first language. Sharing these ideas in the students' first language will assure understanding of the girding of the course, and it will reduce the students' affective filters--attitudes uncondusive to language acquisition (Krashen, 1982)--by building a community of respect for the students' primary language identities, whether they be Mandarin, Taiwanese, or a combination of the two. If you speak the students' language(s), all the better. If not, enlist the help of a teaching partner. You can do this for the first class, the first couple of classes, or the entire term depending on the type of teaching partnership you adopt (Buckley, 1999). There is no need to cite theorists, unless, of course, a student asks, but you do need to cover the key points: The myth of age, comprehension related hypotheses (the input hypothesis, L1 and output, monitor use and correction) and grammar. You also need to define and explain the components of the course goal.

2.1 The myth of age

Dispel the myth that adults are slower learners than children. Explain that while there is some truth that children perform better than adults, such as pronunciation (Long, 1990; Browne, 2000), the rate of acquisition is not necessarily one of them. In fact, when "comparing children and adults who are learning a language by the same method . . . , adults are better" (Cook, 2001, p. 134). Yes, children do seem to acquire language more quickly, but the fact is they have more time and opportunities to do it. "Older acquirers," on the other hand, "thanks to their superior knowledge of the world, understand more of the input they hear and read" (Krashen, 2004, p. 10) and have generally a better rate of acquisition (Ellis, 2000). Encourage them that as adult learners they are in a very advantageous position to make a fresh start.

2.2 Comprehension related hypotheses

To further build students' confidence and demonstrate that you are releasing control, share the methodology behind the course: Outline the comprehension related hypotheses and other important matters that are applicable to the course you are about to undertake. Explain how the Comprehension Hypothesis, previously termed the "Input Hypothesis" (Krashen, 2004, p. 1), is closely related to other hypotheses and important items: L1 and output, monitor use and correction, and grammar).

2.2.1 The input hypothesis

Tell the students how the levels of a graded reader series fit into Krashen's *i* plus 1 hypothesis. If a learner's current is *i* (current level of competence), then "comprehensible input is *i* plus 1, the next step in the developmental sequence" (Cook, 2000, p. 47). Also explain that our language abilities improve on a continuum (Krashen, 2004), and that the graded difficulty of the graded reader series will help them to naturally move along this continuum.

2.2.2 LI and output

Be clear about how L1 and output will be addressed differently in the course than the traditional classrooms they have attended in the past. While there is a long history of not allowing L1 in the classroom, other than the reason that the teacher may not speak the language, there is little evidence to support absolute restriction of responsible L1 use (Anton & DiCamilla, 1998; Cook, 2000; Hosada, 2000), especially with low level learners (Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

Explain that there is a place for their L1 in your classroom, and that you will not ban L1 use. Instead, you, and your teaching partner if you have one, will speak the target language

much of the time and that you will encourage student attempts to use it (Willis, 1996), but that they can respond in their L1 until they feel comfortable. Add that oral output "emerges on its own as a result of building competence via comprehensible input . . . Speaking is a result of acquisition and not its cause" (Mitchell & Myles, 2004, p. 48). Assure them that "comprehensible input-based methods encourage speaking but do not force it. Students are not called on; rather, participation is voluntary" (Krashen, 2004, p. 8).

A demonstration of your commitment to this procedure will result in a few students speaking in English at first. Many others may remain reticent in the beginning, but, as they feel safe, more and more will join in. Some reading activities such as story telling, story retelling, role play, and drama can also encourage reduced reticence (Greenwood, 1998; Wessels, 1986).

2.2.3 Monitor use and correction

Talk about correction strategies. Even at the lowest level, your classroom will consist of some students with higher abilities than others and a variety of expectations with regards to correction, some of whom will focus on errors to the point that little output is attempted. Others will crave accuracy and the safety of teacher correction. These behaviors can seriously restrict output, so you need to address these areas right away. Explain that monitor use--the student's internal editor--can stifle communication due to an over attention to errors. You will have cases of under uses as well, students who apply the editor too infrequently. This can also be problematic but less so at early stages. Assure the students that they should apply their monitors only when it does not interfere with communication. You also need to clearly define a correction policy: Explain that you are focusing on fluency in the discussions at this early stage and will avoid interrupting communication for overt correction. If you feel you must employ correction at this stage, explain that mistakes are not to be discouraged. Instead, they should be seen as gifts to the class. Then, use gentle correction strategies that do not interfere with the flow of communication. There are many ways to do this such as making notes on the blackboard towards the end of class without noting who made them and addressing them as a group (See Harmer, 2003).

2.3 Grammar

Address grammar right away. Extensive reading and the input hypothesis are based on the idea that "if input is understood, and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided." Thus, "the teacher need not deliberately teach grammar" (Cook, 2000, p. 48), and there is an enormous amount of scholarship against doing so, especially at

the early stages. Nevertheless, with adult learners, there is no need to completely dismiss the discussion of grammar from the comprehension model as long as it is done in such a way that it facilitates acquisition and empowerment. In fact, strict avoidance may even be harmful. Adult students expect grammar, and they are painfully aware of it. It has hung over them in their traditional language classroom experiences, and if you do not confront it head on, they will wait uncomfortably until you do. Although direct teaching via traditional grammar exercises would perpetuate fears and subvert the acquisition approach you and your students are about to engage in, the material used at this level--graded readers--is based on a graded grammatical--among other attributes--system, and you should explain that to them. You can also responsibly address grammar by heightening the students' awareness of the forms they are going to encounter: In many reader series, starters will incorporate the present continuous, present simple, future going to, imperatives, some modal verbs; in level 1, the past simple, etc. (See individual series grading schemes: Hill, 1997, 2001). Addressing grammar in this way can place students in control of the material by helping them to become aware of structures and thus assist in acquisition. An activity that works well to heighten awareness is a brief overview of verb tense forms, not the meanings--meanings will come naturally from the context of the graded readers. Overviews of forms can be done either directly or through a discovery activity (See Harmer, 2003). The point is to put the students in control of what they read, whether it be graded readers in your class library or the ones you hope they will continue to encounter at libraries and book shops long after the class is over.

2.4 Define the course goal

Explain that the course is designed to help them become autonomous learners who can begin to climb the literature ladder and define what an autonomous learner is: learners who have "acquired enough of the second language [and enough skills] so that at least some authentic input is comprehensible, enough to ensure . . . the ability to acquire still more language" (Krashen, 2004, p. 9) to be empowered to continue to engage materials outside of the classroom in a meaningful and enjoyable way in order to continue to progress on their own. As a result, at the end of the course, they will not be completely proficient, "just good enough to continue to improve without us" (p. 7). Further explain that the course will assist them to do this by introducing several skills in the classroom that will help them gain an "understanding of what is read" (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1997, p. 193) and take control of their reading when they read literature outside of the class: attaining a basic reading speed and an understanding of skills in three areas, language based skills, literature for content, and

literature for personal enrichment.

2.5 Explain the course model

Krashen's reading model and graded readers

Discuss Krashen's reading model and the first step, graded readers. Briefly outline each step of Krashen's reading model (Table 1). Then define graded readers and bring an armload of graded readers into class from each of the six levels. Explore each of the levels together, let students get familiar with them, and discuss the grammatical, lexical, and literary element structure of each level or at least the ones you will probably be using. You can find a description in the reader catalogue and in the preface of many readers. You may or may not wish to address the subject of whether readers are in fact literature or just a precursor to the model. Whether you accept that readers, because of the simplified literary elements found in each, regardless of gradation, are indeed literature or agree with those that heatedly argue they are not, it is important to point out the graded structure of the literary elements in readers are designed to help students gain a better grasp of the skills needed to engage more authentic literary materials as they climb to each level.

2.5.1 Increasing reading speed

Briefly discuss the importance of reaching a reading speed that allows students to understand longer passages. Explain that the average native speaker reads between 150 and 425 words per minute and adjusts his or her reading speeds for different types of reading activities. In extensive reading, for example, readers need to acquire a 200 word per minute level to effectively understand the passages and the *i minus 1* activity can help them to increase their reading speed to this level.

2.5.2 Building reading skills

After you have addressed reading speed, discuss the reading skills students will need to become familiar with to make reading literature both meaningful and enjoyable. Explain that reading is more than voicing graphemes, phonemes, or words on a page or answering a set of school based assessment questions. Reading can be an extensive activity that autonomous learners engage in. Explain that knowledge of or a heightened awareness of certain key skills can facilitate the autonomous process and make it a much more meaningful and enjoyable activity: Some are language based skills, others are in the area of literature as content, and still others, which make up a key element of self-access reading for personal enjoyment, help to make literature a form of personal enrichment (see Table 3). There is no need to go into

each area in too much detail at first. You can explore each more fully in conjunction with the RBU procedure during the daily lessons and activities as the course goes along. The main thing is to let the students feel you are putting them in control by telling them everything up front.

3. Getting started

After you have outlined the classroom model with the students, you need to develop access to large amounts of compelling reading material below, at, and above their *i* level. Finding students' exact *i* level is difficult, if not impossible, as this is often a vague term, but, for the purposes of the reading program, you can get a rough estimate by determining the students' reading levels. In a full self-access environment, students will often gravitate to the level they are comfortable with, some choosing to read above their level and some to read below depending on a number of variables (Gardner, Miller, & Swan, 1999), but for this stage, keeping with the theme of empowering the students with exit skills, you will want to introduce a more controlled method that students can meta-cognitively grasp and later use independently outside of the classroom. To do this you can use Betts' five finger method (Betts, 1946; Schirmer& Lockmann, 2001) or choose from a variety of other reading level applications (Calkins, 1998).

Once you have determined a mean level for the class, you will need to prepare the books. The amount of readers you choose to use at each level will depend on the length of your course and what type of approach you take: A traditional approach, a self-access class driven classroom, or a combination of the two.

In the traditional approach, each student will purchase and read the same set of graded readers and engage in activities which are tailored to each text with the class in the order presented in the teacher directed syllabus.

In a full self-access center classroom, materials and activities will be more self-directed: Students will engage in a variety of self-access activities where each student is reading a different text at a different time, but the activities are designed to be general enough to cover a variety of student text selections. For this type of class, one of a variety of types of class libraries or self-access centers will need to be established (See Gardner, Miller, & Swan, 1999; Baker & Hung, 2004; Lazar, 2004). Some institutions may have grant money or other funds available for the creation of such centers through initial bulk purchases, but for many teachers doing it on a small scale within the confines of the classroom community having students purchase the books is a much more attractive option because it offers students a sense of involvement with both the texts and the creation of the library: In a class of 25

students, for example, if each student purchases two graded readers and temporarily donates them to the semester or year long collection or makes them a permanent donation to the self-access center, you will have 50 books to choose from. Larger classes or classes that you teach several sections of can have even more. Book selections can grow exponentially with the purchase of more books per student and whether the donations are temporary, taken home at the end of the course, or become permanent donations.

In a combination classroom, students purchase a set of texts that will be read according to a teacher directed syllabus schedule. They also engage in specially tailored activities with one or more self-selected texts from the self-access library which can be read in a more a self selected manner, giving an authentic opportunity for extensive reading with the aid of the understanding of the skills they have learned in the more teacher directed lesson.

The fresh start stage

Once you have explained the course, determined the students' levels, chosen the type of course you will offer, and set up access to materials, you are ready to begin the fresh start phase. In this phase, regardless of which type of course you are involved in--a traditional approach, a self-access approach, or a combination of the two--begin this stage by having students read a few graded readers below their *i* level until they are comfortable with the longer nature and structure of readers. In this stage you can begin to work in other areas such as training students to learn how to select texts--strategies on how to explore the front and back covers, the introduction, and possibly reviews and author backgrounds as prediction exercises to whether they will find a work interesting enough to select it from the library or later from a bookshop--as well as language based skills, literature as content, and literature as personal enrichment activities you feel are appropriate (see Table 3).

After the students are comfortable with the length of the passages in the graded readers and have learned to how select them, you can begin using Anderson's RBU activity. Continue using this activity at least until the students reach a 200 word per minute level--the speed needed for extensive reading (Hill, 2001)--with materials at their *i* minus 1 level, or, you can, of course, continue to work on reading speed improvement throughout the course if you and the students wish to pursue this as a goal. Regardless of the duration of the application, practicing the RBU procedure at a predictable time in each lesson and having students record their progress on an RBU sheet (Table 2) will help to set up a predictable order for your classroom and create a sense of accomplishment as students see their reading scores increase.

Table 2: Sample student RBU progress sheet

Day 1					
Passage 1		Passage 2		Passage 3	
Reading 1	108 *	Reading 1	116	Reading 1	127
2	102	2	127	2	129
3	112	3	128	3	134
4	122	4	132	4	138
Day 2					
Reading 1	119 *	Reading 1	122	Reading 1	139
2	118	2	131	2	142
3	126	3	128	3	148
4	130	4	139	4	152
Day 3					
Reading 1	124*	Reading 1	131	Reading 1	149
2	127	2	138	2	152
3	149	3	141	3	150
4	158	4	149	4	164
Day 4					
Reading 1	131*	Reading 1	139	Reading 1	142
2	128	2	141	2	161
3	138	3	156	3	169
4	152	4	159	4	172
Day 5					
Reading 1	146*	Reading 1	138	Reading 1	141
2	143	2	142	2	158
3	149	3	158	3	161
4	156	4	161	4	165
Day 6					
Reading 1	159*	Reading 1	141	Reading 1	151
2	149	2	145	2	153
3	159	3	158	3	157
4	171	4	171	4	162

Note: This chart illustrates progress a typical student may experience, not actual data. The first reading score on the first passage of each day can be used to measure course progress. Day-to-day progress may fluctuate and occasionally retard and plateau, but overall progress is common for most students. Students may also experience a temporary drop if they move to a higher level text or encounter wider page sizes or larger type faces.

As your students continue working with the RBU procedure, you will want to continue introducing activities during pre, while, and post reading activities that illustrate other skill areas: language based skills, literature as content, and literature as personal enrichment (tables 3 and 4). Be sure to do this with communicative reading activities rather than teacher lectures or presentation as the latter two would go against the tenets of the EFL environment and putting the students in control. It would also, of course, be both unfeasible and

undesirable to try to introduce too much at once, but you can introduce a little at a time from each area with each graded reader and then return to recycle previous text's content in a cyclical pattern (tables 3 and 4) as each new skill is presented. Afterwards, you can allow the students to self apply all of the skills to a self selected text as they read it extensively without teacher direction or guidance.

In a combined course for beginning students where students are working with the Starter and Level 1 selections of one of the popular series such as the Oxford Bookworm or Heinemann series, one schedule could look like this (Table 3):

Table 3: Introduction schedule

Reading and Language Based Skills/ Book	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Determining one's level using Betts' method: counting the number of unknown words: no more than 5 per 100 words (This is done prior to the first book at as students move from level to level).									
RBU Procedure				x	x	x	x	x	x
Prediction skills through examination of the back cover, front cover, introduction, illustration, and chapter titles	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Reading for overall comprehension	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Vocabulary skills:									
--Guessing from context		x							
--using a dictionary			x						
--ignoring words that do not interfere with meaning			x						
--*Examining meaning (word metaphor and idiom, collocation, style and register), word formation (parts of speech, prefixes and suffixes, spelling, and pronunciation), and word grammar (nouns-countable and uncountable, etc.), and adjectives and adverbs (position, etc.) can be introduced or delayed as opportunities present themselves in the texts and in keeping with the students' levels.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Awareness of verb tenses and grammatical features			x						
Skimming and scanning skills				x	x				
Literature as Content									

Plot: Person vs. person, society, nature, themselves	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Setting: In the author's mind, minimal and generic, in dreams, fantasy, realistic places with real or fictitious names, and fictitious places with fictitious names		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Genre features			x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Time				x	x	x	x	x	x
Characters: major, minor					x	x	x	x	x
Characters: flat, round						x	x	x	x
Point of view: First person narrator who seems to be the author, an invented character (major or minor), heard the story from another person, multiple narrators who each tell part of the story from their own perspective/Second person for detective stories)/Third person (complete objectivity, limited objectivity, limited omniscience, complete omniscience)							x	x	x
Dialogue (forms, tags, indirect, and stream of consciousness)								x	x
Thoughts, description, personification, images as sounds and tone and style can be introduced or delayed as opportunities present themselves in the texts and keeping with the students' levels.									x
Literature as Personal Enrichment									
Activities can vary according to students' levels, interests, and needs.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

In a traditional syllabus, each of these areas will need to be addressed without the inclusion of the last text, as self selected texts would be omitted. In a full self-access classroom, each of these areas will need to be covered in a combination of mini-lectures and general self-access activates that are general enough to be used regardless of which text each student has selected.

You may want to adjust the schedule you choose to meet your students' levels and needs and the material you are using, but the cyclical nature of returning to previous text's content to review older areas as you introduce new ones can be a valuable tool to help you reinforce skills and set up a balanced teaching plan to help build your students' confidence. To examine how this can be done, please see the lesson plan that outlines the application with a

mid-course text (Table 4).

Table 4: Lesson plan

Course Name: General Education Elective Course: EFL through Literature

Students Description

The 45 students are all female with a mean age of 25.8 years (21-36 range). 41 are ethnic Taiwanese and 3 are Aborigines, are all nursing majors in the evening program, and all are taking the course as an elective portion of their general education requirement. The average foreign language level of the students at the beginning of the course is at ACTFL low to mid level novice (Browne, 2001). While finding a large group of students' average level is difficult, Betts' five finger reading test indicates the students are ready to engage material at level one of the Oxford Bookworms Series. This lesson plan assumes that the students will have been in the class for several weeks and have covered a variety of skills in previous lessons with previous graded readers (see table 3). As the students at the beginning of the course were only able to engage materials at the Starter level of the Oxford Bookworms series which is at the 250 word level and this book is at level one (400 words), the lesson assumes the students have been trained using the RBU procedure and are now able to engage material at this level.

Material

This lesson plan uses the Oxford Bookworm Series Level 1 Tom Sawyer, but, because of the universality of the lesson plan, other texts can be substituted to fit your class needs.

Lesson Objective

Students will review all of the skills they have learned up to this stage of the course (see table 3) and then apply them to the new text as they learn new ones. To do this, the lesson will be broken up into several stages: prereading, while reading, and post reading activities, each of which works on language based, literature as content skills, and an additional post reading extension writing activity which especially focuses on personal enrichment. The first three are spread over two days. The last one is a semester long course extension activity project.

I. Day 1

Prereading

Step 1: Warm up

- A. The instructor uses a Spot the Genre Technique to engage the students' schemata about the type of story they will be reading. The instructor puts up a genre table on the board which contains a list of genres and a space for titles students have read or seen. Students work in small groups to brainstorm books and/or films that fit into each genre (Figure 1).

Fig 1

Genre 1:	Genre 2:	Genre 3:	Genre 4:	Genre 5:
1.*	1.*	1.*	1.*	1.*
2. *	2. *	2. *	2. *	2. *
3. *	3. *	3. *	3. *	3. *
4. *	4. *	4. *	4. *	4. *
5. *	5. *	5. *	5. *	5. *

*Answers will vary.

Adapted from Greenwood, 1990, p.17.

- B. A student scribe comes to the board and the students fill in the table on the board. The instructor and the students then discuss what features are particular to each genre.
- C. Afterwards, the students add genres from the previous texts they have read.
- D. The teacher puts a circle around the lesson's selected genre and asks students to give a brief skeleton narrative of what they believe to be a typical one for this type of genre.

Step 2: Introducing the Text

- A. A small group of students give a brief report on the background of the author and other books he/she has written. To prepare the students for the report, the instructor can provide the reporting students with skeleton questions to guide their research, a web quest such as those found at <http://wehquest.org>, or give them the information found in the back of the Oxford Bookworms Reader Tom Sawyer on page 53.

Step 3. Building Students' Anticipation of the Text

- A. When the group of students are done giving the report, the teacher places a copy of the cover on the screen using a projector or asks the students to look at their own texts and elicit ideas of what they think the book will be about.
- B. Repeat elicitation procedure A by having the students read the material on the back cover of the book.
- C. To build further interest in the text, the teacher shows the students the chapter titles from the table of contents, places pictures from the text on the projector or hangs them on the board, or both, and has the students work in groups to produce a hypothesis about what will happen in the book. The teacher and students can return to check the hypotheses on the second class day after the students have finished reading the text.
- D. As this text is longer than can be effectively silently read in one class session, set the reading as homework. Be clear to explain the purpose of the homework reading: They are to read the text extensively for a general understanding. As they have had experiences reading

extensively and using skills with other texts in class, they should be able to do determine how to do this.

While Reading

Step 1. Addressing Language Concerns

The teacher should encourage the students to use several vocabulary strategies they have previously learned to the reading they are about to do at home:

1. Attempt to guess from context those that do using several methods:
 - Guess the meaning of the word
 - Guess a grammatical relationship
 - Guess a discourse relationship
 - Infer implied meaning
 - Guess about a cultural message
 - Analyze vocabulary using prefixes
2. The teacher asks the students to ignore-words that are too difficult to guess but do not interfere with meaning.
3. The teacher asks the students to try not to use a dictionary for this exercise but only to circle the words and indicate the number unknown on each page at the top of the page. Using a dictionary as a skill, but it is not one that is encouraged in this lesson. The teacher also tells the students that the teacher will review unknown vocabulary with them during the next class. This will accomplish two things. First, the teacher can find out the number of words per 100 words that students do not know in the level they have moved to (Level 1) by using Betts' reading testing technique to determine if the material is too difficult. Second, the instructor can model vocabulary strategies with the students.

Step 2. Focusing on Literature as Content

Give the students a set of events to put in order while reading each chapter of the text at home (Figure 2), each describing a different step in the narrative. The students can check their comprehension of these items using an online quiz site such as www.quizlab.com.

Figure 2

Events for Chapter 1

*Add more events as needed

II. Day 2

Post Reading Step 1: Addressing Language Concerns

Have students get in groups of four and choose one speaker and one scribe. The speaker collects the group's books and goes to the board with the scribe. The speaker tells the scribe which words each person missed and the scribe puts them on the board with the page number. Repeated words are only included once. Do not attempt to define the words. Simply move to the next step.

Step 2: Focusing on Literature as Content

Give the students a similar set of strips to the ones they found in the at home activity on the online quiz site and have them work in pairs to order the strips.

Step 3: Literature as Content

Working in groups, the students then engage in a chain summary activity where one person starts the story and then a second person tells the next part of the story. This is different than the at home' activity because the at home activity only provided very wide details and left a great deal out. In this activity, the students provide a more detailed description to fill in the missing parts.

Language Concerns

Step 4. Using Vocabulary Strategies

Point to the list of vocabulary words the students listed on the board and congratulate them on having been able to get an idea of the text and tell the story without looking up all the words. Tell them that they have indeed shown they can use the vocabulary skills intended for the

lesson.

Step 5. Focusing on Literature as Content

In this lesson, the teacher accepts the students have learned about setting, plot, and character in previous lessons and are now ready to examine point of view. To do this the teacher and students fill in a chart about each of the previous books (Figure 3). The lesson plan also assumes that the teacher will teach the remaining elements (Table 3) with future texts.

A. Review Setting

Review the key parts of setting that the students learned with previous books and then ask them to identify them in the present book:

- The setting is merely the landscape of the author's mind
- The external setting is minimal and generic.
- The setting takes place entirely in dreams.
- The setting is purely fantasy--places in imaginary worlds.
- The setting takes place in realistic settings
- The setting takes place in a realistic setting with a fictitious name.

B. Review Plot

Review what the students have learned about conflict and ask them to identify them in the stories they have studied up to now:

1. Explore the conflict of previous stories:
 - People versus people
 - People versus themselves
 - People versus society
 - People versus nature
2. Examine the suspense and development of previous stories.
3. Examine the resolution of previous stories.
4. Discuss how each part of the plot (1-3) applies to the current text.

C. Review Character Elements

Review what the students have learned about character types and ask them to identify them in the stories they have studied up to now:

- Major
- Minor
- Flat
- Round

Fig. 3

	Book 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Present Text: Tom Sawyer
Genre	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	Elicit from students.
Setting (type)	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	Elicit from students.
Plot (type)	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	Elicit from students.
Characters	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	Elicit from students.
-Major	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	Elicit from students.
-Minor	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	Elicit from students.
-Flat	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	Elicit from students.
-Round	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	Elicit from students.

Step 6. Examine point of view

After the teacher has reviewed the previous elements, he/she can ask the students to perform a brief role play of the text. Afterwards, the teacher uses a story telling technique to model different narrative techniques with texts the students have read previously. Then the teacher has the students break up into groups of four and asks them to tell the story in the point of view they performed or saw performed. The teacher might try having students tell the story in their L1 first and then retelling it in their L2 to build confidence and reduce reticence.

Groups 1-3 First person: Choose between a narrator who seems to be the author, a narrator who is a character (major or minor), a narrator who heard the story from another person, or several narrators, each of whom tell part of the story or his/her version of the whole story.

Groups 4-6 Second Person: Explain that this technique was once popular with detective stories and is an interesting way to tell a story.

Groups 7-9 Third Person Narrative (Complete objectivity, limited objectivity, limited omniscience, and complete omniscience)

After the students have practiced their assigned roles in groups (the teacher visits each

group and monitors progress), have one member from each group tell the story using the assigned point of view to the class.

III. Post Reading Follow Up Activity: Personal Enrichment

While there will be a number of opportunities for personal enrichment students will experience while reading, the teacher can introduce class activities too, one of which could be a guided activity which draws on expressivist writing methodology (a methodology which encourages personal enrichment more strongly than focusing on grammar, lexis, and sentence structure accuracy). In this type of activity students incorporate what they have learned from the study of graded readers (all of literary elements they have learned up to this part of the course including point of view) into a short story on a topic of their own choosing which they can write as a course project.

IV. The Next Book

While reading the next graded reader, the teacher can cyclically review all of the elements practiced with the new story and introduce the important literary features of dialogue, the next step in table 3. After which, the students can incorporate dialogue into the stories they are writing. The procedure can be repeated with the introduction of each new book and further literary elements throughout the course.

4. Moving beyond the classroom

Once students are comfortably working at or above 200 wpm and confidently applying the skills you select in each area from the checklist (Table 3), they should feel confident enough to continue working their way through the stages of the graded reader series and on their way up Krashen's ladder as they move out of the classroom and onto their own self selected texts where these skills will greatly profit them in their search for both meaning and enjoyment.

Towards the end of the course, to help students build life long autonomous behaviors, it is important to develop a link between their classroom progress and the rest of their lives. Helping students continue to develop their skills and move further having them make self selections from more authentic self-access environments outside the school--libraries and bookshops--can help them make this transition and send them on the their way with the tools they need and a place to apply them.

As your students begin to improve, both you and they will be naturally excited, but it is important to remember that some students will progress faster than others. Do not push progress. Let the increases in reading speed and acquisition of skills happen naturally: Have students read as many readers at each level as the need to become comfortable before moving on to the next level: 8 to 12 is often enough to help most students gain confidence. Some students, however, may need less, others more.

It is also important to note that as graded readers usually have five to six levels, and, if you are starting at the lowest level, it is unlikely that your students will be able to move through all the levels. In fact, you may only see them progress through a few over the course of the school year depending on your course schedule. Nevertheless, speedy progress is not the point. Progress that encourages autonomous learning is.

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How do Learners Perceive E-Language Learning Programs in Their Local Context

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Abstract

In many countries, such as in Turkey, distance education and e-language learning programs have been commonly used in teaching English as well as in other areas of education. However, the effectiveness of these language programs is closely linked with the conditions in the local context. Therefore, their effectiveness needs to be investigated considering the specific conditions where such programs are offered. In line with this idea, this study examines how e-language learning programs are perceived by the learners and the extent to which learners think these programs contribute to their language learning. To this end, questionnaires were administered and semi-structured interviews were held with students enrolled in e-language learning programs in Adana, Turkey. This paper presents the results and the implications reached.

Keywords: Distance education, e-language learning programs, student perception, local context.

1. Introduction

Over time, teaching methodologies, educational programs and materials go through changes due to innovative educational theories and improvements in technology. Web-based learning, the use of CD-ROMs and interactive computer programs are considered as the new forms of education of the future. Lately, in Turkey as in all over the world, distance education and e-learning programs have been commonly used in teaching English as well as in other areas of education. As distance education becomes more popular, teachers must consider students' perceptions of e-language learning (Peters, 2001).

Much of the research focus in on-line education has been on technical characteristics, as stated by Russo and Benson (2005). The researchers further add that technology does not operate independently to create a learning environment. In addition to cognitive learning,

another important indicator of distance learning success is affective learning, which represents the attitudes students develop about the course (p. 55). Thus, as Poulymenakou (2004) argues, it is critical that system designers assess the range of possible affective states that users may experience while interacting with the system. In addition to factors such as computer access, time constraints, individual computer skills and hardware issues (Peters, 2001), learner socio-cultural backgrounds, previous knowledge and learning experiences also contribute to their perceptions of the learning process (Elgort et al, 2003). In this regard, a detailed description of learners' experiences from their own perspective takes significance (Son, 2007). Thus, this present study attempts to investigate learners' perceptions of e-language learning program in the local context, however does not concentrate on technical issues and learner achievement

2. Purpose of the study

This study investigates how learners perceive e-language learning programs and the extent to which they think these programs contribute to their language learning. To this end, questionnaires were administered and semi-structured interviews were held with students enrolled in e-language learning programs in Adana, Turkey.

3. The study

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study were 138 students enrolled in e-language program at Cukurova University, Vocational School of Computer Technologies and Programming. Table 1 below presents characteristics of the participant students.

Table 1

Characteristics of the participants

Age range:	20-25
Gender:	48% male 52 % female
Language Learning Experience:	3-5 years
Computer Background:	5-10 years
Frequency of Computer Use:	Almost every day
Main Purpose of Using Computers:	51% for study, 41% for work, 8 % for fun
Types of activities engaged in on the net:	Getting information Downloading Sending and receiving e-mails Chatting

3.2. Data collection tools

The study was designed to elicit answers to the following questions:

1. How do learners perceive e-language learning program?
2. To what extent do learners think the program contributes to their language learning?

To find answers to our questions, we first administered a questionnaire at the end of the academic year. It was adapted from the questionnaires developed by McVay Lynch (2001), Brush (2000), Kizlik (2001) and Step-Greany (2002) and contained 38 statements with which students were asked to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed. The questions were designed to elicit information on students' perceptions in five categories: 1. students' readiness for e-language learning, 2. students' attitudes toward the e-language course offered, 3. students' perception of e-language learning experience, 4. students' thoughts on the contribution of the e-language course to their language learning, and 5. students' views of on-line and traditional language courses. Descriptive statistics were used in order to report the results of the questionnaire.

Our second source of data was the interviews held with 48 volunteering students at the end of the academic year when they become available for the sit-down final exam. The interviews were recorded and then transcribed for content analysis. In the interviews, students were asked the following questions:

1. Did you enjoy the e-language learning program? If yes, what did you enjoy about it?
If no, why didn't you enjoy it?
2. Do you think that you benefited from this e-language learning course? If yes/in what ways, if not/why not?
3. In what ways do you think e-language learning is good or bad?
4. If you had the chance now, would you choose an e-language learning course or a traditional language classroom? State your reasons.

4. Results

4.1. Results of the questionnaire

The first part of the questionnaire assesses learners' readiness to pursue on-line education courses. As Kizlik (2001) points out, in order to benefit from distance learning, one must have a mix of self confidence and the ability to seek, analyze, and synthesize appropriate information without constant face-to-face feedback. Parallel to this argument, we first aimed to find out whether our learners saw themselves ready for an on-line learning program. The students were asked to read the statements characterizing successful distance learners, and then respond either as 'yes' or 'no'. Table 2 below presents the responses in percentages.

Table 2

Students' readiness for on-line learning

Characteristics of good distance learners	YES %	NO %
Being comfortable on the net	72	28
Willingness to communicate on the net	61	39
Willingness to set time to study	65	35
On-line learning being equal in quality to traditional	67	33
Being self-disciplined	61	39
Being good at time management	76	24
Being able to set goals	75	25
Self responsible	78	22
Being good at problem solving	65	35
Being aware of how I can learn well	81	19
View of teacher as facilitator of learning	76	24
Ability to work with minimal support	34	66
Need for feedback	57	43

As the numbers suggest, the participating students not only found themselves comfortable but also willing to set time to communicate on the net. Moreover, the majority of the students reported that they possessed the skills required for being successful in a distance learning program. For example, 61% of the students said that they were self-disciplined. The percentage of students who believed that they were good at time management is 76. Similarly, it appears that 75 percent believed that were good at setting goals. Also 78% of the students deemed themselves responsible.

On the other hand, when they were asked to evaluate their ability to work with minimal support, more than half (66%) of the students confessed that they were not good at studying without support. Almost half of the students felt the need for feedback (43%). Despite the fact that students view the teacher as a facilitator of learning, their answers to the last two statements reveal a dependence on teachers' support and feedback.

The second part of the questionnaire includes statements revealing students' perception of e-language learning experiences. Students' attitudes towards the e-language course were one of the issues surveyed in the questionnaire.

Table 3

Attitudes towards e-language course

	Agree %	Disagree %
The experience in e-language learning made this course interesting	71	29
I learned a lot from this e- language program	44	56
I enjoyed the e- language program	50	50
The e-language learning program was valuable for learning English	50	50

I feel that online delivery is a useful tool for learning English	52	48
I wanted to access the web site of the course outside the scheduled times	64	36
The learning environment was supportive for better language learning	50	50
The e- language course enhanced our language learning experience	46	54
There was less anxiety in e- language course as I worked by myself	50	50
Learning was fun with e-language course	58	42

Table 3 above shows that the most of the students found the experience in e-language learning program interesting and fun (71%), and wanted to access the web site of the course outside the scheduled meeting times (64). However, the learners were divided into half concerning the learning value, enjoyment, usefulness, supportiveness and enhancement of the program. Only the half of the students found the program valuable for learning English. Similarly, 48 percent of the students disagreed with the idea that online delivery is a useful tool for learning English. More than half (54%) of the students said that the on-line course did not enhance their language learning experience. We reached similar results when we asked the learners to evaluate the program for its contribution to language learning. Table 4 below shows students' responses for this issue.

Table 4

Contribution of the program to language learning

	Agree %	Disagree %
I learned more English language skills than I would have learned in a regular English class	36	64
The information in the e- language course contributed greatly to my knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary	33	67
The activities I performed in the e-language course were relevant to my real life need in the English language	51	49
I had a tendency to forget information obtained from the net in the e-language course as opposed to published materials	57	43
I gained confidence in my ability to use English	44	56

It can be inferred from the students' responses that there was an agreement among the learners when the success of the program in teaching English was questioned. Over sixty percentage of the participants stated that the program did not contribute to their language proficiency, neither in language skills nor in grammar and vocabulary. On the other hand, the participants were in disagreement regarding the language content of the program. While one half found the course language content relevant to their real life language needs, the other half did not. Another topic that was searched in the questionnaire was the role of teacher and peers in language learning. As the following table shows, the participants share similar views concerning the role of the teacher and peers in the process of language learning. Their view

of teacher as facilitator of learning as expressed in the first part of the questionnaire was supported in the second part as well. The presence of the instructor was not thought as an important factor by 62 percent. In contrast, the presence of the other learners in the online sessions was reported as an important component contributing to their learning English.

Table 5

Role of teacher and peers in language learning

	Agree %	Disagree %
Once I learned how to do the activities, the presence of the instructors was not necessary	62	38
The presence of the other learners in the online sessions contributed to my learning English positively	65	35

Finally, the students were asked for their opinions concerning their preference between on-line and traditional language course. Table 6 below presents the students' responses for their preferences.

Table 6

Preference between on-line and traditional language course

	Agree %	Disagree %
I would take another e-language course in English	52	48
If given a choice between a regular English class and e-language course, I would take e-language course	35	65
Traditional classes give a deeper understanding of language as opposed to e-language classes	64	36
It was hard for me to feel motivated enough to study in the e-language course	59	41

From their answers we can conclude that the participants would prefer a traditional language course to an e-language program. When asked, 65 percent of the students stated that they would not choose the e-language program if they were given a choice between a regular English class and on-line course. Sixty four percent of the students agreed that traditional classes give a deeper understanding of language as opposed to e-language classes.

4.2. Findings from the interviews

As mentioned above, part of our data came from the structured interviews held with the students (48) at the end of the academic year. Enjoyment factor was the first concern in the interviews. The majority (71%) of the respondents did not enjoy the course. Lack of opportunities for practice and face to face natural interaction, which in turn, leads to demotivation, having no feeling of ownership and class cohesion, unsatisfied needs for peer

cooperation and group work, active involvement in activities and problems such as getting ready to start studying and maintaining concentration were the reasons given by students. Out of 48 students, only 14 said that they enjoyed the program as they liked computer work. Moreover, according to these students, the program provided them an opportunity for independent study and flexible hours. This feature of the program was very important to them as they had limited time for study.

Similar to their answers in the questionnaire, most of them (73%) said that they had not benefited from the program as they needed constant teacher support and guidance to be successful. The students believe that e-language course is good only for those with previous knowledge of English. This was supported by the fact that many forgot what they had learned in the e-language course. Thus, the e-language course was not helpful for retention either. Thirteen students thought the e-language course was useful for revising old knowledge.

With the respect to the query as to what they thought about the efficacy of e-language learning. According to the answers given, the program was good as it provided a variety of exercises and clear grammar explanations. Self-assessment part in the program was the other component which was thought as good. However, the students thought that the e-language learning was bad because it lacks motivation and interaction. Difficulty in maintaining self-discipline and concentration were the other problems encountered by the students. The students also complained about the limited opportunities for learning everyday English.

Finally, only six students out of 48 said that they would choose an e-language course rather than a traditional course. To these students, e-language program was practical and flexible as it is available all the time. The availability of immediate feedback and teacher support, opportunities for real communication, peer collaboration and possibility of group/pair work were the reasons why students declared they would choose traditional language classrooms. In summary, from the students' responses it can be concluded that language learning programs that take place in front of the computer can not replace classroom based language learning successfully.

5. Discussion and conclusion

The effectiveness of distance or e-language programs is closely linked with the conditions in the local context. In a monolingual society, such as in Turkey, English is considered as course content rather than a medium for communication. Therefore, it would be almost impossible for learners to practice English outside the language classroom. On the other hand, language learning requires interaction among learners for target language production. However, this interaction in e-learning programs is limited to exchanging e-mails and sharing documents on

the web without using language for real communicative purposes. Therefore, this form of learning may not fully meet the students' academic, social and emotional learning needs. For this reason, language learning programs that take place in front of the computer may not successfully replace classroom based instruction.

Moreover, in the culture of traditional educational systems, which is also prevalent in Turkey, the teachers are placed in the center of the learning process, and the learners are used to being teacher-dependant. Considering these local contextual conditions and the learner profile, perhaps e-language learning in the absence of direct teacher guidance may lead to unsatisfactory learning results. To sum up, when designing such language programs, the local context should be taken into consideration and required modifications should be made towards a more learner-centered framework which would better match specific needs.

6. Implication of the study

Motivation and skills for self-regulated learning have an important role for success in distance education programs. Kizlik (2001) argues that those who profit most from distance education are those who have heightened senses of autonomy. However, according to Collis (in Elgort et al, 2003), students do not automatically have good study skills, discipline or motivation. Instructors need to create conditions to promote learner autonomy. Teachers may also need to make modifications to the e-language program considering their local context and the specific learner group they are teaching. As the roles of the instructors in distance learning classrooms are not the same as the roles in traditional classrooms (Beaudoin, 1990 in Inman et al, 1999), teachers in e-language programs should adopt a new role. This might require explicit teacher training.

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Japanese EFL Students' Preferences toward Correction of Classroom Oral Errors

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Abstract

Many language educators and researchers (e.g., Nunan; 1987; Horwitz, 1988; Schulz, 2001) maintain that matching the expectations of teachers and students is important for successful language learning. Accordingly, it is beneficial for teachers to discover their students' perceptions toward instructional practices. This article discusses the findings of a questionnaire administered to 588 EFL students at several Japanese universities. The questionnaire, utilizing 5-point Likert-scales, investigated (1) students' attitudes toward classroom oral error correction; (2) their preferences for correction of different types of oral errors; and (3) their preferences for particular correction methods. The results show that the students had strongly positive attitudes toward teacher correction of errors and indicated a preference for correction of pragmatic errors over other kinds of errors. The most favored correction method was for the teacher to give the student a hint which might enable the student to notice the error and self-correct.

Introduction

Students differ in terms of their learning styles and preferences for instructional practices. Horwitz (1988) notes that any language teacher employing a communicative approach will have to contend with students who complain if teachers do not correct their every oral error. In contrast, students who value communicative effectiveness over accuracy are likely to have negative reactions to teachers who constantly correct their utterance. Numerous studies revealed mismatches between teachers' pedagogical practices and learners' learning preferences (e.g., Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Hawkey, 2006; McCargar, 1993; Oladejo, 1993; Peacock, 2001; Schulz, 1996, 2001). Many language educators and researchers support the view that a mismatch between teacher and student perceptions about the effectiveness of instructional practices can result in unsatisfactory learning outcomes (e.g., Green & Oxford, 1995; Horwitz, 1988; Nunan, 1987; Schulz, 2001). Accordingly, teachers can benefit from

discovering their students' preferences in instructional practices. Nunan (1995) proposed that "teachers should find out what their students think and feel about what and how they want to learn" (p.140).

As many language educators and researchers (e.g., Edge, 1989; Hendrickson, 1987) maintain, making errors is a necessary and natural process of language learning. Inevitably, learner errors and feedback to errors have been of great interest to language teachers and researchers. Although the literature on teachers' responses to students' errors is abundant, the literature on students' perceptions regarding error correction is limited in both ESL and EFL research (e.g., Bang, 1999; Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Chenoweth, Day, Chun & Luppescu, 1983; Oladejo, 1993). Particularly concerning Japanese ESL learners' preferences for oral error correction, there is very little research in the literature (Chenoweth et al., 1983; McCargar, 1993). Chenoweth et al. (1983) examined adult ESL learners' attitudes toward interaction with native-speaking friends. They found that these learners with different cultural background such as Japanese and Koreans had positive attitudes toward error correction. Similar results were observed by McCargar (1993) who investigated adult ESL learners' preferences for error correction in his study of cultural differences in teacher and student role expectation. The Japanese ESL learners in these studies may have different attitudes from Japanese EFL learners because these two types of learners study in different settings where the learners' levels of exposure to the English language differ. In the EFL settings, where learners do not need English to satisfy daily life requirements, there may not be a demand for accuracy in English usage, and consequently, their preferences for error correction might differ from those of the learners in ESL settings.

Since EFL classes in Japanese universities almost always have a large number of students, it would be especially difficult for teachers to modify their preferences and practices in order to cater to each individual student's preferences. However, if successful language learning depends largely on matching the expectations of teachers and learners, it will be of value to obtain information on students' views on error correction and to utilize the information in dealing with classroom errors.

This study employed a questionnaire survey and examined attitudes towards and preferences for classroom oral error correction among EFL students in Japanese universities.

Research design and method

Research Questions

In order to investigate Japanese EFL learners' attitudes and preferences regarding classroom oral error correction, the following questions were addressed:

1. What are the attitudes toward classroom oral error correction among EFL students in Japanese universities?
2. What are the students' general preferences for classroom correction of different types of errors (e.g., pronunciation and grammar)?
3. What are the students' preferences for particular types of error correction methods?

Data collection instrument

A questionnaire (shown in the Appendix) was developed based on a literature review of previous studies of learner errors and teacher feedback on errors in order to elicit information on students' attitudes regarding error correction. The original questionnaire was constructed in English and translated into Japanese. Both versions were modified several times based on the results of pretests and reviewed by two bilingual professors of Japanese to ensure accuracy of translation. This study employed the Japanese version. The questionnaire contains four sections. The first section contained questions eliciting demographic information. The second section addressed Research Question 1 and asked the students' general opinions about the correction of oral errors in the classroom. The section contained four statements illustrating certain views that have been controversial among language researchers and educators for decades. These views included: whether or not learner errors should be corrected; when learner errors should be corrected (i.e., constantly or selectively); and who should correct errors, teachers or peers. The students were asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with four different statements. Response options were coded to 5-point scales, with 1 representing *strongly disagree* and 5 representing *strongly agree*. The students were given the option of explaining the reasons for their rating in order to provide this research with "useful/insightful" qualitative data (Nunan, 1992, p. 145). The third section addressed Research Question 2 and asked about students' preferences for classroom error corrections of different aspects of the language. The students were asked how often they wanted classroom error correction of different types of errors: grammar, phonology, vocabulary, pragmatics, and discourse. Instead of the term phonology, the words "pronunciation, accent, and intonation," were used in the questionnaire. Errors in pragmatics were presented as "inappropriate expressions," and discourse errors as "organization of discourse." Participants rated each item on a 5-point scale, with 1 representing *never* and 5 representing *always* with respect to frequency of correction.

The last section addressed Research Question 3 and asked about students' preferences for particular types of error correction methods. The students were asked to rate ten different methods of error correction (shown on section D of the questionnaire in the Appendix) provided by teachers, first as feedback to students' grammatical errors, and then as feedback to students' pronunciation errors for each technique. Examples of errors were presented in the

questionnaire. The rating for students' opinions about each method was measured on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 representing *no good* to 5 representing *very good*.

Participants

Data was collected from 588 respondents enrolled in 21 EFL classes at six universities located in three different cities in Japan. Regarding gender, 353 students were female and 233 were male. Two respondents did not indicate their gender. They were English literature majors (139 students), education majors (98 students), English as a foreign language majors (92 students), economics majors (77 students), medicine majors (23 students), foreign language majors (22 students), and other majors (137 students).

Data Analysis

Frequency distributions were calculated to analyze the Likert-scale responses for (1) general attitudes toward classroom oral error correction, (2) general preferences for correction of different types of errors (e.g., pronunciation and grammar), and (3) general preferences for particular types of correction methods of classroom oral errors.

Results and discussion

The following results and discussion address the four research questions.

Attitudes toward Error Correction

Section B of the questionnaire addressed Research Question 1: What are the attitudes toward classroom oral error correction among EFL students in Japanese universities?

Whether or not errors should be corrected. In the questionnaire (Section B-a), the students were asked whether or not they agreed with the statement, "I want teachers to correct my errors in speaking English." Adding together the numbers of students who agreed or strongly agreed, 77.6% of the students agreed with the statement (Table 1). The students were given the option to explain the reasons for their rating, and 66.4% of the respondents provided reasons. The following discussion considers only those who provided optional comments. The responses were categorized, and frequencies of the responses for each category were calculated. The most frequently cited reason for this positive attitude toward error correction was that students wanted to improve their accuracy in English.

Table 1: Attitudes toward error correction

Item	N	Strongly	Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly	Mean	SD
		1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)		
I want teachers to correct my errors in speaking English.	586	1.5	3.9	16.9	36.3	41.3	4.12	.93
Teachers should correct all errors that learners make in speaking English.	587	17.0	30.3	32.2	14.3	6.1	2.62	1.11
Teachers should correct only the errors that interfere with communication.	587	9.5	23.2	27.3	24.7	15.3	3.13	1.21
I want my classmates to correct my oral errors in group work.	584	4.1	14.4	30.8	34.2	16.4	3.45	1.05

* Some rows do not add to 100% due to rounding.

The students' strongly favorable attitudes toward receiving error correction in the present study is consistent with the results of studies among ESL students conducted by Cathcart and Olsen (1976), Chenoweth et al. (1983), and McCargar (1993) as well as those conducted among EFL students by Oladejo (1993) and Bang (1999). In a more recent study (Katayama, 2006, 2007a), I investigated students' perceptions toward oral error correction in Japanese classrooms in the US, and found that 92.8% of the respondents expressed their strongly favorable attitudes toward teacher correction. Schulz (2001) observed FL students' strongly favorable attitude toward explicit grammar instruction and error correction, and speculated that "perceptions could be the result of the way FLs are taught or tested (i.e., with predominantly form-focused, discrete-point tests) or both" (p. 255). Edge (1989) maintained that accuracy is important as well as fluency "because a lot of examinations are based on how accurate a student is in constructing correct pieces of language" (p. 20).

Correcting all errors vs. selective correction. Section B-b and B-c asked the respondents when learner errors should be corrected, that is, constantly or selectively.

Nearly half of the respondents (47.3%) disagreed with the following statement: "Teachers should correct all errors that learners make in speaking English" (Table 1). 64.6% of the

respondents provided reasons. As an explanation for their response, the students most frequently stated that they did not desire all their errors to be corrected because they thought that ‘correcting all errors would affect students’ feelings.’

When asked whether or not they agreed with the statement, “Teachers should correct only the errors that interfere with communication,” 40% expressed agreement, 32.7% disagreed, and 27.3% neither agreed nor disagreed (Table 1), and 46.5% of the respondents provided reasons. As a reason for their preference, the students most frequently responded that they agreed with selective correction because erroneous English is all right as long as it’s understandable. On the other hand, those opposed to selective correction most often responded that correcting only errors that interfere with communication is not sufficient.

It was impractical for the teachers to correct all errors that they made because of the large size of the classes (thirty to sixty students) in which the respondents were enrolled. This might have affected their responses regarding the correction of all errors. In fact, 7.4% of the respondents who provided the reasons for their rating expressed that correcting all errors in large classes is impossible.

Peer correction. A total of 50.6% agreed with the following statement (Section B-d): “I want my classmates to correct my oral errors in group work” (Table 1). 46.7% of the respondents provided reasons. The belief that peer correction is beneficial was the most frequent reason for this positive attitude.

I postulated that EFL students in Japan have negative attitudes toward peer correction based on the assumption that the students do not expect to have their oral errors corrected because peer correction violates the concept of ingroup harmony, an important cultural value in Japan discussed by Gudykunst & Nishida (1993). Contrary to my assumption, only 5.5% of the respondents who provided the reasons for their rating expressed that they felt uncomfortable with peer correction.

Types of errors students wanted to have corrected

Section C of the questionnaire addressed Research Question 2: What are the students’ general preferences for classroom error correction of different types of errors (e.g., pronunciation and grammar)?

As can be seen in Table 2, the majority of the students wanted to have their errors in pragmatics (61.8%) *always* corrected.

Table 2: *Types of errors students wanted to have corrected*

Item	N	Never			Always			Mean	SD
		1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)			
Pragmatics	586	.7	1.5	7.8	28.2	61.8	4.49	.76	
Phonology	586	.9	3.6	10.9	38.6	46.1	4.25	.85	
Vocabulary	586	.5	3.9	18.3	47.3	30.3	4.02	.83	
Grammar	587	2.0	9.9	35.8	32.4	19.8	3.58	.98	
Discourse	586	2.9	12.6	34.2	32.2	18.1	3.50	1.02	

* Some rows do not add to 100% due to rounding.

The strong positive attitude toward correction of this type of error might be explained by the Japanese education system. In junior and senior high school, students are taught the English language primarily through the grammar-translation method (Takahashi, 2004). Graduates of this type of instruction have good knowledge of English grammar and a wide range of vocabulary. Although they may produce grammatically correct sentences, may not be sure whether or not their utterances are appropriate in a specific context. This may help to explain why the students in this study showed great interest in the correction of their errors in pragmatics.

Another striking finding is the students' strongly positive attitude toward the correction of phonological errors. This supports the findings of the study by Matsuura, Chiba, and Hilderbrandt (2001) that examined Japanese EFL student and teacher beliefs about learning and teaching communicative English. The majority of the students expressed their interest in learning correct pronunciation. Japanese phonology does not share the same features as English phonology (Vance, 1987). Therefore, the acquisition of English pronunciation, accent, and intonation patterns is difficult for many Japanese EFL learners. In addition, EFL classes are mainly taught by Japanese teachers in junior and senior high schools. Consequently, the students lack exposure to English spoken by native speakers. The students' high interest in the correction of phonological errors could be considered very predictable.

The students' strong interest in the correction of vocabulary errors could also be explained by the education they received. EFL teachers in Japan are expected to prepare their students to pass university entrance examinations (Gorsuch, 2000). In addition to complex grammatical knowledge, reading comprehension skills, and other skills, examinees of the entrance examinations are expected to have a wide range of English vocabulary. Although the

required number of vocabulary for senior high school students to learn is up to about 2900 words, the examinees of some private universities need to know around 10,000 words (Takahashi, 2004). The students simply memorize words and phrases instead of learning them in meaningful contexts. Consequently, they may lack confidence about using appropriate words and phrases in a real-life setting. This could be the reason that the students in this study showed high interest in correction of vocabulary errors.

Methods of classroom error correction

The last section of the questionnaire addressed Research Question 3: What are the students' general preferences for particular types of error correction methods? Based on the results of respondents' rating on the five-point scale, the methods were categorized into three types: 1) most favored correction methods; 2) disliked correction methods; and 3) methods neither liked nor disliked. For these last methods, the respondents were fairly equally balanced in terms of positive, neutral (3 on the five-point scale), and negative responses. Therefore, no tendency in either direction could be determined.

Favored correction methods. Table 3 lists the methods of grammar correction that the majority of the students favored. These methods are listed in the order of preference based on the percentage of the respondents who gave scores of 4 and 5.

Table 3: *Favored correction methods for grammatical errors*

Correction Method	N	No Good					Very Good	
		1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Mean	SD
T gives a hint which might enable S to notice the error and self-correct.	576	4.0	9.2	16.8	36.3	33.7	3.86	1.10
T explains why the utterance is incorrect.	575	4.3	11.8	19.7	29.0	35.1	3.79	1.17
T points out the error and provides the correct form.	574	3.8	9.9	22.1	32.2	31.9	3.78	1.11
T presents the correct form when repeating all or part of the S's utterance.	569	2.1	9.8	27.4	34.1	26.5	3.73	1.03

* Some rows do not add to 100% due to rounding.

Among the ten types of correction, the most popular was the one in which the teacher gives a hint which might enable the student to notice the error and self-correct; 70% chose this method. The second most favored grammar correction was the one in which the teacher explains why the student's utterance is incorrect; 64.1% endorsed this method. An equally popular method was the one in which the teacher points out the error and provides the correct form. A total of 64.1% of the respondents liked this correction method. One last favored method was that in which the teacher presents the correct form when repeating all or part of the student's utterance; 60.6% liked this method.

Table 4 displays the correction methods of pronunciation errors that the majority of the students favored. The students' most favored method was the one in which the teacher gives a hint which might enable the student to notice the error and self-correct; 64.4% favored this method. The second most popular correction method was the technique in which the teacher points out the error and provides the correct pronunciation; 64.1% endorsed this method. Another favored method was the one in which the teacher presents the correct form when repeating all or part of the student's utterance; 63% liked this method. Still another favored method was that in which the teacher explains why the student's utterance is incorrect; 62.9% selected this method.

Table 4: *Favored correction methods for pronunciation errors*

Correction Method	N	No Good					Very Good	
		1	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD
T gives a hint which might enable S to notice the error and self-correct.	569	4.4	12.1	19.2	33.6	30.8	3.74	1.15
T points out the error and provides the correct pronunciation.	567	4.1	9.9	22.0	30.9	33.2	3.79	1.13
T presents the correct form when repeating all or part of the S's utterance.	557	2.3	8.6	26.0	34.8	28.2	3.78	1.02
T explains why the utterance is incorrect.	569	4.6	12.7	19.9	28.5	34.4	3.76	1.18

* Some rows do not add to 100% due to rounding.

The majority of the respondents liked four out of the ten possible correction methods for both grammatical and pronunciation errors in different orders of preference. The most favored method of correction for both grammatical and phonological errors was the one in which the teacher gives a hint which might enable the student to notice the error and

self-correct. This indirect correction method is intended to indicate that the student has made an error without embarrassing the student, allowing the student to ‘save face.’ In large classes of Japanese universities, the students might feel more comfortable with this correction method. Another favored method that attempts to elicit self-correction was the technique in which the teacher explains why the student’s utterance is incorrect. Many researchers promote self-correction (e.g., Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Chaudron, 1988; Cohen, 1975; Corder, 1967; Hendrickson, 1978; Kasper, 1985; van Lier, 1988). Ellis (1994) suggested that students are less likely to respond negatively to self-correction than to teacher correction. Edge (1989) noted that people usually prefer correcting themselves rather than being corrected by someone else. He further noted that “self-correction is easier to remember, because someone has put something right in his or her own head” (p. 24). Comps (2003) maintained that language teachers should encourage students to self-correct in the foreign language classroom context so that they can continue to develop their skills for self-correction outside the classroom.

As these findings indicate, one of the favored correction methods was the one in which the teacher presents the correct form when repeating all or part of the student’s utterance. Lyster and Ranta term this type of correction ‘recast’ (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p.46). Recasts were frequently employed by the teachers in some observational studies (e.g., Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Doughty, 1994; Fanselow, 1977; Lyster, 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Loewen & Philp, 2006). Some studies suggest that recasts are effective for acquisition (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998; Long, Inagaki & Ortega; 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Morris, 2002, Philp, 2003). On the other hand, the potential ambiguity of recasts has been noted by many researchers. Learners may perceive recasts as conversational responses such as confirmation of meaning rather than feedback on their ill-formed utterances (e.g., Chaudron, 1988; Fanselow, 1977; Lyster & Ranta, 1997, Truscott, 1999). In order for recasts to facilitate acquisition, learners need to notice the gap between their erroneous forms and the correct forms (Gas & Varonis, 1994; Philp, 2003). Chaudron (1988) proposed that recasts could be made less ambiguous by shortening the correct utterance to locate the error and/or adding a stress for emphasis on the correct form. Even with this technique, learners may not notice errors or correct-incorrect mismatches. One of the methods which can draw the student’s attention to the error is the one in which the teacher overtly points out the error and provides the correct form. The students in this study favored this method in which the error and the correct form are overtly contrasted. Gass and Varonis (1994) suggested that awareness of the correct-incorrect mismatch may lead to changes in the learners’ L2 knowledge. Nevertheless, some teachers and researchers oppose the use of the learner’s error when providing correction.

Grew (1964) claimed that teachers should never give the incorrect form because, strangely enough, the class is more prone to retain the incorrect form than the correct form when the students have heard the teacher use it. Although we may appreciate Grew's claim, such explicit correction can save time. It not only locates the error, but also gives the correct form, and therefore minimizes any disturbance to the flow of the activity.

Disliked correction methods. The respondents did not favor two methods of correction for grammatical and phonological errors. The least favored method was the technique in which the teacher ignores the student's errors. 88.6% rated this technique 1 and 2, with 1 representing *no good*. The students in the studies of Cathcart and Olsen (1976) and Oladejo (1993) also disliked this technique. Despite its lack of popularity among learners, ignoring learners' errors is one of the techniques often used by teachers in the study of Fanselow (1977). The second least favored method was the one in which the teacher repeats the original question. 61.8% of the respondents disfavored this method to correct grammatical errors, and 65.8 % disfavored the method to correct pronunciation errors. This method is potentially unclear to students. They may perceive the question as a follow-up question, not as the original one. Even if they succeed in realizing that they have made errors, they may not be able to locate the errors nor correct the errors by themselves.

Methods neither liked nor disliked. Several correction methods were neither favored nor disliked by the students of this study. One of them is the method in which the teacher indicates that the student has made an error by using nonverbal behavior, such as gestures and facial expressions. Another is the method in which the teacher repeats the student's utterance up to the error, and waits for self-correction. The method in which the teacher asks the student to repeat the utterance also received this type of indeterminate response. One last method in this group was that in which the teacher simply indicates the error. All these methods to elicit self-correction except the last one could be ambiguous to students. It could be speculated that students may perceive the corrections as conversational moves such as agreeing or confirming, and may not be aware of their errors. Even if they can recognize their errors, they might not be able to self-correct successfully because none of these methods give them any clues to assist self-correction.

Conclusions

This study revealed that certain differences appear to exist between the students' expectations and the teachers' pedagogical practice. Just like the classes (thirty to sixty students) in which

the respondents were enrolled, Japanese university EFL classes are usually large. The teachers often have the students engage in communicative activities in pairs and groups (O'Sullivan, 1996). Unavoidably, the teachers cannot observe or correct all the errors the students make. Despite the strongly positive attitudes toward teacher correction that the respondents expressed, it was not feasible for teachers to spend much of the instruction time dealing with errors.

Nunan (1987) argued, "One of the most serious blocks to learning is the mismatch between teacher and learner expectations about what should happen in the classroom" (p.177). Many language educators and researchers support this view (e.g., Green & Oxford, 1995; Horwitz, 1988; Schulz, 2001). Given that matching students' and teachers' expectations is vital for successful language learning, it can be hoped that teachers will take the time to discover their students' attitudes toward pedagogical practice. When circumstances do not allow the teachers to modify their classroom practices, they should explain their rationale to their students. Such explanations could at least partially minimize conflict in expectations between teachers and students (Katayama, 2006, 2007ab).

Although the sample of this study provided a varied population mix, no generalization can be drawn because the study sample was not a true random sample. Despite this drawback, however, it can be argued that the findings of this study provide useful information that may contribute to our understanding of students' perceptions of classroom error correction.

The findings of this study lead to implications for future research. One recommendation is research that addresses the reasons for the students' preferences for particular correction methods as well as their preferences for classroom error corrections of different types of errors. Another recommendation is investigating cross-cultural differences to find out whether learners' perceptions differ across cultures. In fact, some differences were observed between the findings of this study and those of my study of American JFL students (Katayama, 2006, 2007a). For instance, American students had more positive attitudes toward teacher correction of oral errors than Japanese counterparts: 92.8% of the respondents in Japanese classrooms in the US wanted their teachers to correct their oral errors, while 77.6% of the respondents in EFL classes in Japan did. Another difference is regarding perception of peer correction. It could be speculated that these differences are due to cultural differences.

Notes

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Appendix

Questionnaire

A. Please check the appropriate answers or write an answer in the space provided.

1. University:
2. Major:
3. Gender:
4. How long have you stayed in an English-speaking country?
5. Do you speak English outside of class?
6. Do you want to improve your speaking skills in English?

B. The following questions concern correction of spoken errors. For each question, make your choice based on your foreign language learning experience up until now, including in high schools and private conversation classes. If you *strongly disagree* with a statement, circle “1.” If you *strongly agree*, circle “5.”

<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>strongly agree</i>
------------------------------	---------------------------

- a) I want teachers to correct my errors in speaking English. 1 2 3 4 5
Please try to provide the reason for your choice.
-

- b) Teachers should correct **all** errors that learners make in speaking English. 1 2 3 4 5
Please try to provide the reason for your choice.
-

- c) Teachers should correct **only** the errors that interfere with communication. 1 2 3 4 5
Please try to provide the reason for your choice.
-

- d) I want my classmates to correct my oral errors in group work. 1 2 3 4 5
Please try to provide the reason for your choice.
-

B. How often do you want to have your errors corrected?

If you prefer *never*, circle “1.”

If you prefer *always*, circle “5.” Circle the appropriate number for each item.

<i>Never</i>	<i>always</i>
--------------	---------------

- a) grammar 1 2 3 4 5
b) pronunciation, accent, & intonation 1 2 3 4 5
c) vocabulary (words, phrases) usage 1 2 3 4 5
d) inappropriate expressions 1 2 3 4 5

(e.g., When offering a drink in English: “Would you like some coffee”? is more appropriate than “Do you want to drink coffee”?)

- e) organization of discourse (e.g., how to negotiate or persuade) 1 2 3 4 5

- D.** Teachers' reactions to students' errors in speaking the target language are various. The following a) - j) are examples of correction techniques. They are sometimes used in combination. However, please rate them as individual methods here. If you think a method *no good*, circle "1." If you think a method *very good*, circle "5."

Example of grammatical error:

Teacher: "Where did you go yesterday"?
Student: "I **go** to the park."

Example of pronunciation error:

T: "What kind of flowers do you like best"?
S: "I like **loses** best."

no good *very good*

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------|
| a) Teacher (T) ignores Student's (S) error. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| b) T presents the correct response or part of the response.
For grammatical error:
"I went to the park." or " Went ."
For pronunciation error:
"I like roses best." or " Roses ." | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| c) T points out the error and provides the correct response.
G: " Go is wrong. You should say went ."
P: " Loses is wrong. You should say roses ." | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| d) T indicates that an error occurred by nonverbal behavior,
such as gesture and facial expressions. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| e) T repeats the original question.
G: "Where did you go yesterday"?
P: "What kind of flowers do you like best"? | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| f) T asks S to repeat the utterance.
G: "Please say that again."
P: "Please say that again." | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| g) T gives S a hint which might enable S to notice the error and
self-correct.
G: "Where did you say you went yesterday"?
P: "What color of roses do you like"? | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| h) T repeats S' utterance up to the error and waits for self-correction.
G: "I..."
P: "I like..." | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| i) T indicates the error.
G: "No. Not go ."
P: "No. Not loses ." | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| j) T explains why the response is incorrect.
G: " Go is the present tense. You need the past tense here."
P: (Using a picture of a mouth) "When you pronounce r for
roses , your tongue should not touch the roof of the mouth.
It should..." | 1 2 3 4 5 |



Some Strategies for Teaching English to Multi-level Adult ESL Learners: A Challenging Experience in Australia

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Bio Data:

Pham Phu Quynh Na's teaching experience includes teaching English to Vietnamese and Korean university students at University of Social Sciences and Humanities of Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam for seven years, tutoring Singaporean students at National University of Singapore for two years, teaching Hong Kong and Korean teenagers/ students for EF Language Travel, ABC Study Groups, and some other colleges in Australia. She is now teaching ESL to adult learners at Sydney Community College and at MTC Training Solutions in Australia. She also worked as an educational writer and a professional translator in Australia. Her research interest include: Translation Studies, Vietnamese-English Translation, Error Corpus, Functional Grammar and its application in Vietnamese Language, Translation and Language Teaching.

Abstract

The paper describes the experience of the author as an ESOL teacher in LLNP program (Language, Literacy and Numeracy Program) at MTC Training Solutions in Australia. LLNP is a program funded by the Australian government and Department of Education, Science and Training of Australia to assist newly-arrived immigrants with low level of English proficiency to adjust to Australian society or to find employment. MTC Training Solutions is a company offering English language training programs under this scheme. In these classes, most of the learners are funded to learn English over the period of 800 hours during the period of 2 years, divided into 5 blocks of 160 hours each. The text books required for this training program are Certificates of Spoken and Written English I, II and III (CSWE I, II and III). At the end of each 160-block, four assessment tests are required to show that the two macro-skills of each learner have been increased. These assessment tests have to comply with the criteria set by National Reporting System of Australia. In these English classes, learners come from different corners of the world with different ethnic, socio-cultural and educational backgrounds. More than half of them are from Asian background (Taiwanese, Chinese, Korean, Vietnamese and Indonesian Chinese), the remaining are mostly Lebanese, Sudanese, Turkish and Moroccan. There is a huge discrepancy in the language proficiency levels of the learners. As new learners are admitted to the class at the beginning of every month, there are always learners at very different proficiency levels in the same class. The discrepancy is also broadened by the fact that each learner has two different macro-skills that need to be improved in each 160-hour block. Firstly, this paper aims to describe the types of problems that the learners tend to have in these multi-level classes regardless of the difference in their nationalities. The paper then explores how the trainers in these classrooms handle their lessons to attract the attention of the learners. Then it will suggest some strategies to successfully 'teach' these learners, given the fact that they all have different language skills that need to be improved.

Introduction

In the 2001 census, 2,843,851 (of 19,436,000) Australians are reported speaking a language other than English at home. 76.9% of Australians are Australian born and 23.1% are foreign born. Asian Australians were 7.96% of the Australian population in 2001 and occupy 17.59% of population in Sydney. Besides, nearly half of Sydney's population is either immigrants or children of immigrants. In this context, cultural difference in society as well as in English class is unavoidable. As a consequence, it is crucial for ESL teacher to use the appropriate strategies to teach English to adult learners coming from different background.

In this paper, I will describe the general picture of a multi-level ESL class in Australia and relate them to CSWE, the program used to teach these classes. I will then suggest the 6 different strategies for the ESL teachers to cope with a multi-level class in which students come from different backgrounds.

What is a multi-level ESL class?

Multi level classroom is an umbrella term to cover a multitude of situations. In a multi-level ESL class, there are following types of learners:

- a) learners with no literacy skills in their home countries;
- b) learners who preferred writing to speaking or vice versa;
- c) learners with different writing systems;
- d) learners with very different motivations and educational and cultural background.

So, what is the picture of a student in a multi-level class?

In a multi-level class, learners can be good at different skills. That is to say, one student may be very good at speaking skill but may not know anything about math. Besides, some learners are not streamlined and the result is the existence of learners with different levels of proficiency in one class.

Apart from the fact that learners begin the class with different levels of proficiency, they also progress in different paces of learning. Because they come from different backgrounds and countries, they often have different learning strategies, learning behaviours, learning aims and expectation. Because of these features, the quality of teaching and learning in a multi-level ESL class can be affected by many factors, such as a) pace of learning; b) gender issues; c) culture issues; d) learning styles; e) learning disabilities

Advantages and disadvantages of a multi-level ESL class

Although it looks like a multi-level class is not a very desirable, these classes still display

some advantages such as:

- Students can use their skill to help each other.
- Teachers can learn to provide more teaching activities and improve their teaching skills.
- Competition among students is minimised. Students in these ESL classes often accept that each student is at a different place in his/her learning.
- Students learn to be responsible for their own learning strategy and learning behaviours.

In reality, these multi-level ESL classes display more disadvantages than advantages, which are very challenging to ESL teachers. These disadvantages are:

- Students of lower level may feel threatened, left out and frustrated.
- Students of higher level feel bored and discouraged.
- Teachers have to do more work for class management and teaching material preparation. The result is the planning is often time-consuming and the classroom management is exhausting.
- It is difficult to use one source of teaching materials.
- There is less time for each group of students.

Language, literacy and numeracy program (LLNP) classes

LLNP program is a program funded by Australian government for newly-arrived immigrants or citizens who had problems finding jobs because of their lack of English proficiency. In this program, adult learners from different countries are funded to learn English over the period of 800 hours during 2 years, divided into 5 blocks of 160 hours. At the end of each 160-hour block, learners are expected to pass 4 assessment tests to show the increase in two macro-skills. The assessment tests have to comply with the criteria set by National Reporting System of Australia.

In this program, because new students are admitted to class every month, there are always learners at different levels in the class although they have been assessed and streamlined into one level. In the same class, every student has different macro-skills that need to be increased.

Certificate in spoken and written English

The Certificates I-IV in Spoken and Written English provide a framework for learners of English in Australia to develop the language and literacy skills required to:

- undertake further education and training
- seek and maintain employment
- participate in the community

The Certificates differ from traditional language curricula in that language is not represented merely as syntactic forms; rather it is seen as a resource for making meaning. Using language involves choosing from systems of text structure, grammar, vocabulary, phonology and graphology. Learning language therefore involves learning to choose from these systems in ways that enable language users to communicate effectively in a variety of context.

The Certificates I-IV in Spoken and Written English aims to provide a common language for describing the characteristics of learners and course provision. They are accredited, nationally registered and meet the principles of the Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF). They use criterion-referenced assessment to assess learner achievement.

The Certificates I-IV in Spoken and Written English integrate spoken and written language through the study of whole texts. They are based on a theory of language which systematically relates language to the contexts in which it is used. They describe progression in language learning in terms of interacting with increasingly demanding contexts of language use.

This program supports explicit and systematic teaching practice and they can be delivered via face-to-face tuition and by distance and e-learning modes.

National reporting system NYA Level 1 to Level 4

At the present there are 4 Levels that are taught at MTC Training Solutions.

- NYA are the level for non-native speakers who cannot read, write, speak or understand English. These students often do not receive much schooling in their home country.
- Level 1 learners can read, write, speak and comprehend a bit of English and can use dictionaries.
- Level 2 learners can speak, read explicitly and think to find their answers in reading comprehension activities.
- Level 3 learners can read between the lines to find the answer and speak more confidently as they have more vocabulary

Six strategies to engage students' attention and improve teaching quality in multi-level ESL classes

Due to the lack of motivation from the students, these ESL classes are often considered as not very desirable for second language teaching. However, given the fact that these classes still exist and there are some learners who really attend the class to learn, some following

strategies are suggested to improve the classroom situation and engage the students' attention in the best possible way.

Strategy 1: Bring on an exercise or project that engage students in the way that can help them to develop their own skills.

In these classes, to engage the students' attention, it is more effective to use projects or games than using grammatical lessons. Because the adult learners are often intimidated by papers full of English words and grammatical rules, they tend to take off their guards when presented with a 'hands-on' project to do or a problem to solve. These projects can be in the following forms:

1. A guessing game in which learners have to guess the meaning of a word from given clues.
2. An activity in which learners have to buy or sell, negotiate or bargain, etc.
3. An activity in which learners have to find or locate visual information in their surrounding environment or classroom

Strategy 2: Each student must be appropriately challenged.

As adult learners are easily discouraged, they should not be given tasks which are too difficult or too easy compared to their current level. For students of lower levels, a too challenging task may make them feel threatened, left out and frustrated. For students of higher level, they may feel bored and discouraged if faced with a very simple and easy task. Thus it is essential that teachers should be prepared to include activities that meet learners' expectations (Wrigley & Guth, 1992). Different groups of students in the same class should be appropriately challenged so they can be engaged in the lessons. All students are given the same basic task (as will be demonstrated in the following lesson plans), but at different levels according to their abilities.

Strategy 3: Create tasks with different levels of difficulties for different groups of learners of different proficiency levels

Teachers can differentiate tasks by three categories: a) the language levels, b) the complexity of tasks or c) the amount of support provided. From the same teaching material, the teachers can design different tasks of different levels of difficulties for different groups. Teachers can mix and match groups and pair learners provided that each students must feel comfortable in their own groups and do not feel threatened when they are asked to exchange or seek help from groups of higher level of competency.

Through the group activities, a good relationship among the students and between the

students and the teacher can be established.

Strategy 4: Do not give the learners the pressure to be correct and to be the best learners of the class.

As adults, the learners are very sensitive. If feel being forced or face-threatened, they tend to withdraw and refuse to participate in the task. It is very important that learners do not feel the pressure to perform correctly. As long as they enjoy the learning experience and participate enthusiastically in the task, the activity is considered successful.

Strategy 5: Focusing on topics rather than language skills.

In these ESL classes, most students often resist the idea of learning specific language skill. They find it quite hard to ‘digest’ and memorise grammatical or any language rules, as a result, teachers should direct them to a certain topic in daily lives, rather than focusing on language skills. These topics could be found in self-access materials which allow learners to take initiatives to choose exercises suitable to their levels (Bell, 1991, Berry & William, 1992). When the pressure to perform correctly is taken away, the learners can engage themselves easier to the task.

Strategy 6: Each group should be given a certain amount of time to finish an activity from the same project/ text/ teaching material. Students from different groups will take turn to provide their answers to the class. That is to say, the same task will be given to all the students; however, each group will be given a different task that is appropriate to their level.

The following session of the paper will suggest some lesson plans in which the above-mentioned six strategies can be applied to facilitate the teacher in a multi-level ESL class.

LESSON PLAN 1

Reading an information text



If you have been unemployed for **more than 2 months** and are receiving intensive Support services, your Job Network member will also:

- assess your skills, experience and capabilities and with you, develop a Job Search Plan to help you get work
- help you to improve your job search skills by giving you intensive Job Search Training and additional support to help you make better job applications
- contact you regularly...at least every 3 months and more frequently if you have been unemployed for more than 12 months.

Subject to your needs and eligibility your Job Network member may also provide:

- help with access to employment and training programmes, counselling, work experience and other services
- more intensive job search activities and work preparation with fortnightly contact to help you into a job
- interpreter services, travel assistance (if you are referred to a job interview by your Job Network member) and other services
- support while you are settling into your new job.

Job Network members are responsible for providing this guaranteed level of service.
If you are not satisfied with the service you receive, you can complain to your manager or supervisor.
If you are not satisfied with the service you receive, you should first speak to your Job Network member. If you are still not satisfied, call the customer service line at **1300 805 260**. You will speak to a trained telephone operator from the Department of Employment, Education and Training or the state you are under. Your Job Network member is responsible for providing Job Network services. You can complain to your Job Network member. You can complain to your Job Network member.

Your guarantee of service

Service Guarantee

This brochure tells you about the services you can expect from your Job Network member.

JobNetwork
Delivery Customer Experience

Pre-reading activities:

Level 1 group:

- Think of a place you will ask for help when you need to apply for a job

Level 2 group:

- Name 2 companies that can help you with job vacancy information and job search skills in Sydney (or in Australia)

Level 3 group:

- From the cover page of this brochure, what do you think could be the different services that Job Network offers?

what's going on?

You will receive regular information on services you can get through your Job Network member. This includes a **JobSearch guarantee**.

From July 2003 all members will change to a new service and continue to receive job services.

From July 2003 services:

- you will receive an interview with your Job Network member. They will tell you what you have done
- your Job Network member will discuss your skills and experience and ask about any new and old goals you have
- your member will be interested in discussing your job search
- services will be arranged to meet your needs and the job opportunities available

Customer is just the place you go to for customer support. And that's why it's called customer support.

While you are unemployed, your Job Network member will:

- provide you with job vacancy information and job match facilities through JobSearch kiosks
- advise you on job search techniques, career options, employment, training programmes and other services
- give you feedback on job interviews they arrange for you
- help you to meet your Preparing for Work Agreement obligations while you are looking for work.

How does it work?

From July 2003 all Job Network members must give you a certain guaranteed level of service.

You will receive ongoing employment services provided by your preferred Job Network member.

These services will be culturally sensitive to your circumstances and background as well as tailored both to your needs and available job opportunities.

While-reading activities

Read the following brochure and answer the following questions:

Level 1 group:

- What is this brochure about?
- Which organisation does this brochure advertise for?

Level 2 group:

- What should you do if you are not happy with the service you have received?
- What is the Customer Service Line?

Level 3 group:

- How can you find the copies of this brochure?
- What website should you visit if you want to find out more changes to Job Network?
- What can a Job Network member help you if you have been unemployed for more than 3 months?
- Is this brochure only published in English?

Post-reading activities

Speaking:

Level 1 group:

- A student from Level 3 will interview you. You should answer all his questions about your name, age, nationality, gender, education, skill.

Level 2 group:

- Ring Job Network at its Customer Service Line.
- Ask the customer service all the information that you need to know about this service.

Level 3 group:

- You will play the role of a case manager working at Job Network. One student from Group 2 will ring you to ask for information. You will answer his questions.
- You then will ring a student from Group 1, who was an unemployed referred to you by Centrelink, to offer help and ask her some information about herself before you can start the case with her.

LESSON PLAN 2

Reading a bus timetable

Pre-reading activities:

Level 1 group:

- What is this? When can you find this?
 - Where can you find this?
 - Do you have to pay to get this?

Level 2 group:

- What information can you get from this?

Level 3 group:

- Imagine three situations where you need to ask the bus driver for this timetable.

While-reading activities

Read the timetable and answer these questions

1. What is the operating time of the bus 922 on Sunday?
2. What time does the 922 arrive at Bankstown Station if it starts at 6.00am from East Hills Station?
3. Where is the last stop of this bus if it starts at 6.32 pm from East Hills station?
4. I want to arrive at Bankstown Station at 5.30 pm. What time I should catch the bus from East Hills?
5. I want to arrive at East Hills station between 10.10 and 11.30 am. What time I should catch the bus at the corner of Canterbury and Chapel Road?
6. How many stops are there from East Hills Station to Bankstown Station on the 7.30 bus on weekdays?
7. If I want to be at East Hills Station at 12am on Sunday, what time should I catch the bus from Bankstown Station?
8. Does bus route 922 operate 365 days per year?

Post-reading activities:

Speaking:

Level 1 group:

- Asking a bus driver what is the time the bus will start or stop at East Hills Station or Bankstown Station

Level 2 group:

- Discussing with your friend the best time to catch the bus 922 if you have to reach Bankstown Shopping Centre at 12 pm on Sunday

Level 3 group:

- Discussing the advantages and disadvantages of the operating timetables of this bus route with a classmate.

Writing:

Level 1 group:

- Writing down at least 5 words that you can remember from the timetable.

Level 2 group:

- Designing a timetable for the bus route you often take to go to English class.

Level 3 group:

- Designing advertisement material for this bus route using the information provided in the above timetable.

LESSON PLAN 3

Reading an advertisement



Pre-reading:

Level 1 group:

- Who is in the picture? Write down her name.

Level 2 group:

- Name at least 1 of her songs that you know. If you cannot remember the title, you can sing it to the class

Level 3 group:

- Describe the singer in the picture.

While-reading activities

Level 1 group:

- What is the venue of the concert?
- What date is the concert?

Level 2 group:

- When will the ticket be on sale?
- Which telephone should you ring to buy the ticket?
- Who is the special guest of the concert?

Level 3 group:

- Is telephone the only way to book or buy the ticket?
- Which websites should you visit to have information about the concert?
- Who are the three sponsors of the concert?

Post-reading activities:

Level 1 group:

- Can you collect some of the famous songs of this singer.

Level 2 group:

- Write a biography of this singer

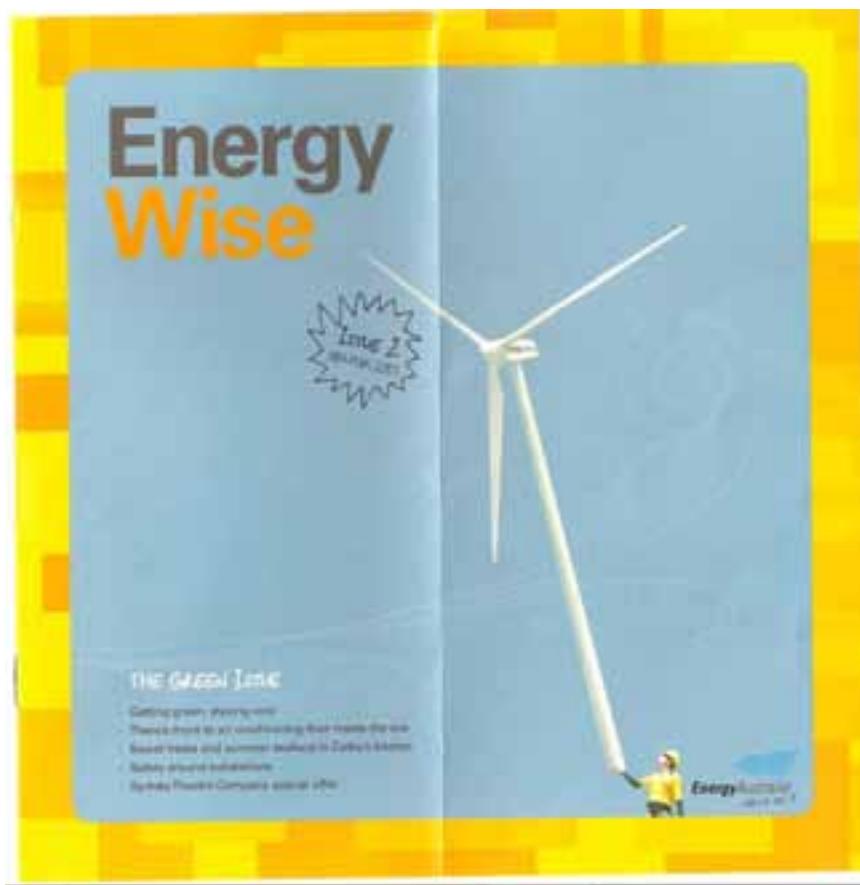
Level 3 group:

- Write a letter to your friend explaining why you are very interested in a show of Beyonce.

The following three lesson plans only focus on one type of activity, i.e. pre-reading activities or while-reading activities.

LESSON PLAN 4

Reading a short information text



Pre-reading

Level 1 group:

- What do you think is this brochure about?
- Use your dictionary to find the meaning of ‘energy’ and ‘wise’

Level 2 group:

- What do you think is inside the brochure?
- What does that mean by ‘Energy-wise’?

Level 3 group:

- Which company is the brochure for?
- What are the five main contents which will be mentioned in the following pages of this brochure?

LESSON PLAN 5

Reading short instructions



While-reading

Level 1 group:

- Write briefly five tips to save energy in the summer.

Level 2 group:

- What is PureEnergy 10?
- How can you find out more information about this?
- How much does it cost to run a ceiling fan in a year?

Level 3 group:

- What is the recommended thermostat setting for a comfortable room setting in summer?
- How can you take advantage of the breeze blowing?
- What does that mean by 'nature's air conditioning'?

LESSON PLAN 6

Reading a newspaper subscription form

Pre-reading

Level 1 group:

- Name some magazines or newspapers that you are interested in reading in English or in your language
 - Use your dictionary to find the meaning of the word '*to subscribe*', '*subscription*'

Level 2 group:

- What do you do if you want to subscribe a certain type of newspaper?
 - Name some ways to subscribe newspaper.

Level 3 group:

- Tell the teacher the type of newspapers you like to read and the reason why.

SOME DOS AND DONT'S

DQs

- Give the students the impression they are doing, not studying.
 - Provide structure to support and give feedback to different groups

- Make students of higher level feel it is a benefit for them to mix and help students of lower level.
- Make students of lower level feel learning with more advanced students benefit them, not threaten them.
- Use activities that develop skill other than language (problem solving, guessing) to boost the self-esteem and confidence of students at beginner level.

DONTS

- Focus on the ‘correctness’ of the answer
- Put students in the same groups with those they consider to be higher in social status.
- Criticise a silent observation, as it may be necessary for some

Conclusion

This paper has presented some strategies which can help teachers engage the students' attention in a multi-level class. As a multi-level adult ESL class is a challenging learning environment, it is essential that teachers have great skill and sensitivity to handle the class. It is hoped that this paper can provide some practical tips for the teachers to versatile grouping strategies and have an efficient use of self-access learning materials.

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