Research and Practice in English Language Teaching in Asia

Edited by Richmond Stroupe and Kelly Kimura

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Research and Practice in English Language Teaching in Asia

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Richmond Stroupe & Kelly Kimura

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Acknowledgments

Initiated and underwritten by IDP Education, the annual CamTESOL conference series is now in its 9th year. The conference has grown from being a series of professional development workshops for local teachers to a respected international ELT conference with over 1500 delegates coming from more than 30 countries. Since the first CamTESOL Conference in 2005, presenters from Asia and beyond have been submitting papers for publication. The initial publication was known as *CamTESOL Selected Papers*. This publication had a small international Editorial Board. In the period 2005-2009 the number of papers submitted for consideration for publication grew substantially. It was therefore decided to establish an independent, fully-reviewed online journal in 2010. This new journal is called *Language Education in Asia*, abbreviated to LEiA.

The LEiA publication aims to provide a platform where regional and international authors can voice and discuss language- and education-related issues in the region. LEiA includes papers on research and teaching practice and also commentaries on a current ELT issue. Hitherto, there have been three volumes published online; all published articles are available at http://www.camtesol.org/index.php/publication.

In 2010, to commemorate the five years of *CamTESOL Selected Papers*, the Editorial Board was requested to select papers for a hard-copy publication. That book is called *English Language Teaching Practice in Asia*. Now, after another two years, the current publication, *Research and Practice in English Language Teaching in Asia*, is published with support from University English Centres Australia (UECA). The Editorial Board selected papers from the 62 published in the first three volumes of LEiA.

Dr Richmond Stroupe, who joined the *CamTESOL Selected Papers* Editorial Board in 2006, has led the LEiA Editorial Board as the Editor-in-Chief. Many thanks to Richmond for his work with the Advisory and Editorial Boards. Special thanks to Ms Kelly Kimura for liaising with editors and authors and her detailed editing work on both the online journal and the hard-copy publication.

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Professional Development in Asia: Issues and Challenges

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The language-in-education landscape in Asia is shifting towards younger learners, and the need for professional development has become more apparent as teachers struggle with new policy-driven curricula. Professional development programs aimed at overcoming subsequent issues such as confidence in language and communicative teaching skills are based on good intentions that are not always realized. This paper examines the situation of elementary and secondary school teachers and their professional development needs and suggests characteristics of successful professional development programs: stakeholder involvement in the preparation stage, experiential and reflective aspects for the teacher, development of collaborative learning communities, and sufficient duration and scope. An action research component is recommended to integrate these characteristics into a program. Professional development must go beyond imparting a standard set of knowledge and skills and address the needs of teachers in their particular contexts; lacking this, the communicative English abilities of students may fall short of expectations.

> Professional development is "any activity that is intended partly or primarily to prepare [teachers] for improved performance in [their] present or future roles . . ."
>
> (Little, Gerritz, Stern, Guthrie, Kirst, & Marsh, 1987)

There is little research that would support the view that professional development does not aid in, support, or make possible the successful implementation of curricular change. At the same time, there are many studies that outline the shortcomings of professional development schemes that have not fulfilled the expectations of local teachers, regional trainers, or national and international planners (Atay, 2008; González Moncada, 2007; Hayes, 2000; McDonough, 2006; Waters, 2006; Wedell, 2003). Riley (2000, as cited in Wedell, 2003)

stated that while teachers are key agents of change in any educational reform process, it is these very teachers who are sometimes left out of the decision-making process when new curricula are developed and eventually implemented.

Language Education Policy in Asia

The focus of successful professional development is the acquisition of information and abilities for teachers to provide enhanced learning experiences for their students. Additionally, successful professional development should be relevant to the needs of teachers, and lead to changes in teaching behavior (Kutner, Sherman, Tibbetts, & Condelli, 1997; Leaton Gray, 2005; Villegas-Reimers, 2003). As a consequence of the focus on English in national and local language-in-education policies in Asia, non-native teachers at elementary and secondary school levels who are expected to teach English are facing challenges in professional development. In particular, recently, large numbers of current elementary school teachers, who may have no prior background or training in teaching English (Butler, 2007; Hamid, 2010; Power, Shaheen, Solly, Woodward, & Burton, 2012) or confidence in their English teaching abilities (Fennelly & Luxton, 2011; Sakamoto, 2012), are expected to have at least basic competency in communicating in English as well as in teaching English as a foreign or second language. In many cases, national policy has placed teachers in situations in which they may be in need of significant additional support to implement new curricula. While the need for professional development may be common, the specific needs and support required may be different based on the teachers' professional level (elementary or secondary school) and teaching context (Villegas-Reimers, 2003).

Professional Development Needs of Elementary School Teachers

While there remains significant debate as to whether beginning second language instruction at increasingly younger ages is a wise policy (Baldauf, Kaplan, & Kamwangamalu, 2010; Kirkpatrick, 2010), national policy has increasingly focused on introducing English language instruction at earlier years in many educational systems in the Asian region (Baldauf, Kaplan, Kamwangamalu, & Bryant, 2011; Butler, 2004, 2005, 2007; Nunan, 2003; Wang & Sachs, 2011). One direct result of such initiatives is the new expectations that have been placed on teachers at this level, many of whom are apprehensive about their abilities for a number of reasons. Elementary school teachers may feel their English skills or knowledge are insufficient to teach the language (Fennelly & Luxton, 2011; Kusumoto, 2008). In the Asian context, where the concept of face is important, especially for figures of authority, teachers' lack of confidence in communicating in and

teaching English is a significant factor. The confidence of teachers teaching a language has been shown to be associated with target language proficiency (Seidlhofer, 1999, as cited in Richards, 2011). In some cases, teachers may have access to native English speakers as assistant language teachers (ALTs) (Fennelly & Luxton, 2011); however, this may result in non-native teachers of English having less confidence in their English proficiency in comparison to those who do not (Butler, 2004) and feeling that their English skills are insufficient to communicate well with their ALTs (Fennelly & Luxton, 2011; Kusumoto, 2008). In addition, elementary school teachers may rely solely on ALTs as the "voice of English" in their classrooms. In other cases, elementary school teachers may be the first and only exposure to English that their students have and are thus potentially important role models of successful second language learners. Teachers lacking in confidence or communicative abilities will not be able to provide such a positive model for their students (Power, Shaheen, Solly, Woodward, & Burton, 2012). While professional development programs may focus on imparting methodologies and developing teaching skills, most programs may not directly address teacher language proficiency (Richards, 2011).

Also at the elementary level, in classes that have traditionally been large and teacher-centered with a lack of student interaction, teachers may be expected to use language-teaching methodologies that are unfamiliar in their cultures (Hamid, 2010; Hu & McKay, 2012). Existing classroom cultures may make the wholesale adoption of Western methodologies such as communicative language teaching (CLT) or task-based language teaching (TBLT) difficult (Hu & McKay, 2012). Teachers may lack adequate understanding of the necessary methodology, or the communicative skills to implement it (Hamid, 2010). Adaptations may also inadvertently neglect optimizing speaking opportunities or fall short of developing cultural understanding (Flattery, 2007).

In such cases, where not only content but also expectations regarding methodology have been introduced, the need for support and appropriate professional development activities is even more pronounced. Clearly, successful changes in basic approaches to the learning process, including teaching methodology, require changes in materials used or activities implemented. However, for such changes to be truly successful, teachers' beliefs regarding what is the most appropriate methodology to be used must be challenged and swayed. Administrative structures and expectations must also be adapted to make room for these new methodologies and teaching techniques. These more comprehensive, systematic changes are often overlooked by professional development programs (Villegas-Reimers, 2003; Wedell, 2003), which may assume that simply providing CLT materials will

result in more communicative lessons. In reality, the change process is not quite so straightforward.

National policies may be vague on goals (Fennelly & Luxton, 2011) and implementation and rely on schools and local authorities to formulate and finance plans (Hu & McKay, 2012). When objectives and guidelines are not clearly stated and adequate professional development is not provided, teachers may handle the contradiction between policy and practice in different ways in the classroom (Kusumoto, 2008). This lack of clarity may also result in a patchwork of teacher training programs that offer varying levels of support (Butler, 2007). In addition, new curricula may result in contradictions between policy and practical needs. An often-cited example is the implementation of a communicative approach into an educational system that relies heavily on grammar-translation based examination schemes for entrance into the next level of school. In such a case, teachers may feel that elementary level curricula that are communicative-based cannot always prepare learners for grammar-based English entrance exams at the secondary level (Wedell, 2003). Additionally, elementary teachers may be concerned that more communicative exercises will not prepare students adequately for the more grammar-focused instruction they know their students will be required to study at the secondary level (Fennelly & Luxton, 2011; Sakamoto, 2012).

Some researchers have focused on pre-service training as a means by which to better prepare teachers at the elementary level (Ballantyne, Sanderman, & Levy, 2008). Fennelly & Luxton (2011) and Hamid (2010) recommended local university teacher training programs to prepare elementary school teachers to teach English; these programs should put stronger emphasis on English language learning and teaching to both future and current elementary school teachers. This has already started to take place in Korea, where the number of units of English required of future elementary school teachers has been tripled (Yook, 2011). However, in other countries, such as Bangladesh and Japan, training in English and the teaching of English remains a minor and sometimes an elective part of elementary school teacher training programs (Fennelly & Luxton, 2011; Hamid, 2010).

Professional Development Needs of Secondary School Teachers

While new English language curricula are being implemented in elementary levels of educational systems, secondary teachers may also continue to need support and resources to keep pace with changes related to English language instruction at this level. However, secondary instructors may not look for the same professional development experience as elementary school instructors (Gandara,

Maxwell-Jolly, & Driscoll, 2005). As students age, motivation may become a greater challenge for students and teachers. As a result, secondary level teachers may need increased emphasis on how to address motivational issues with students when compared to elementary level teachers.

While time management is also a concern for instructors at the elementary level, secondary level teachers may require different strategies and skills in this area when compared to elementary level teachers, possibly for different reasons. Teaching places demands on teachers' time at all levels, but the pressures may be different; therefore, professional development designed to provide skills to more effectively cope with these pressures likewise should be targeted for specific groups of teachers. One similarity between elementary and secondary teachers throughout educational systems seems to be the interest in additional opportunities to work collaboratively with their peers, although this was more strongly emphasized by secondary teachers in one study (Gandara, Maxwell-Jolly, & Driscoll, 2005). Likewise, for both elementary and secondary teachers, professional development that is not overly theoretical, but rather practical and relevant to the teachers' everyday experiences and results in improved student performance, is more highly valued (Ballantyne, Sanderman, & Levy, 2008; Gandara, Maxwell-Jolly, & Driscoll, 2005; Ingvarson, Meiers, & Beavis, 2005).

Professional Development Challenges

There is a clear need for targeted, appropriate professional development for teachers and administrators as new policies and curricula are implemented, yet what form that support should take seems less evident. Hayes (2000) suggests that a common form for professional development when implementing educational change is a "cascade model." In such a model, trainers are identified at higher levels within an institutional structure, are provided professional development programs, and then through subsequent training experiences, are given the responsibility to pass along expertise and skills to those professionals at lower levels. While a useful model for effecting change on a large scale, a significant criticism of the model is that minimal meaningful training reaches those at the lower levels of the cascade, those who are in fact directly responsible for effecting and implementing change in the educational system.

From a slightly different perspective, Wedell (2003) suggests that the challenge may not be with the specific educational reform or the training program put into place to support teachers through implementation, but rather that the significance of the change for teachers and institutions is often underestimated. He suggests that a cultural shift must occur at both the institutional and personal levels

for educational reform or change to be successful. This significance of change also includes to what extent change may threaten existing systems, what level of support teachers and others need to adapt to and accommodate change, and what implications these variables have on the resulting timing, duration, sequencing, and extent of professional development (Wedell, 2003). Clearly, educational reform combined with support for teachers and administrators is a complex process; however, oftentimes, associated professional development initiatives do not sufficiently address this complexity.

Characteristics of Successful Professional Development Programs

Nevertheless, in the literature on professional development, there are common recommendations that can lead to more successful support for teachers. Hayes (2000) suggests that at the preparation stage, all stakeholders should be involved in the planning of subsequent professional development programs, particularly teachers, on whom the success or failure of a particular implementation will depend (Hayes, 2000; Wedell, 2003). As an example of this process, Kusumoto (2008) developed a comprehensive questionnaire to assess issues important to teachers, including what they think, what they have, and what they want and need as the first step in developing a professional development program for homeroom teachers in educational systems which experience limits on both resources and government support. In regard to teacher acquisition of language proficiency, Butler (2004) suggested needs analyses regarding the English level and particular language skills and strategies required for specific policy or curricular implementation. Based on this initial investigation, level and context-appropriate professional development could be provided, and measurable proficiency guidelines for particular language skills could be drafted. In addition, ongoing professional development to provide language support would be an important component to continue to assist teachers in reaching appropriate proficiency levels.

Another aspect of successful professional development programs is related to the nature of the programs. While being based on theory and knowledge is important (Gandara, Maxwell-Jolly, & Driscoll, 2005; Ingvarson, Meiers, & Beavis, 2005), professional development programs should also be experientially based, focusing on reflection rather than emphasizing simple knowledge transmission (Birman, Desimone, Porter, & Garet, 2000; Hayes, 2000; Villegas-Reimers, 2003). In order to emphasize a reflective component, time must be made available for teachers to interact, for example through peer observations and self-evaluations, to provide the basis for the reflective process (McDonough, 2006). This may require changes in scheduling

or teaching loads to provide opportunities for teachers to interact with each other and reflect after trying out new activities and methodologies.

Closely related to this experiential characteristic is an emphasis on collaboration through the development of learning communities in different forms (Ballantyne, Sanderman, & Levy, 2008; Gandara, Maxwell-Jolly, & Driscoll, 2005; Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001; Ingvarson, Meiers, & Beavis, 2005; Villegas-Reimers, 2003; Vo & Nguyen, 2010). Vo and Nguyen (2010) reported on a process that emphasized the reflective process at a different level in the Vietnamese context. In their study, teachers made use of a critical friendship group (CFG) through which peers developed a collaborative community. This community provided a space for the (nonhierarchical) free exchange of ideas and opportunities for collaborative learning in a relaxed atmosphere. The authors reported that teachers involved in these groups believed that their teaching performance improved through these interactions.

Another example is district or school-based teacher learning communities or support networks that provide access to observation and practice of class activities (Emerson, Deyo, Shoaib, & Ahmed, 2010; Power, Shaheen, Solly, Woodward, & Burton, 2012). In one program, classroom support through materials (including videos which allow teachers to observe how communicative teaching methodologies are used in an authentic classroom) is buttressed by regular facilitator-led meetings with local teachers; these meetings provide time for reflecting, bringing up possible problems, and planning implementation of future class activities (Power, Shaheen, Solly, Woodward, & Burton, 2012). Fennelly & Luxton (2011) also recommended local development of a support network, whether official or volunteer-based. In their example of a volunteer-based program, through collaboration between universities and school boards, universities send students majoring in English and education to assist homeroom teachers in communicative English classes at elementary schools. In this way, student-teachers and homeroom teachers gain practice in class activities, and the homeroom teachers receive ongoing support and opportunities to observe how these future teachers carry out communicative activities.

Duration and scope of professional development programs may also have an impact on their success. Professional development programs should not be seen as a "one-off" type of activity, but as an ongoing component of an overall scheme of ongoing learning (Ballantyne, Sanderman, & Levy, 2008; Ingvarson, Meiers, & Beavis, 2005; Jeanpierre, Oberhauser, & Freeman, 2005; McDonough, 2006; Villegas-Reimers, 2003). Teachers need time to become accustomed to new curricula, expectations, or policies, and to experiment with differing approaches to implementation. The potential success of actual implementation of new approaches in the classroom will be higher if

teachers are given support during the process (Villegas-Reimers, 2003; Wati, 2011).   In some development contexts in Asia, a lack of infrastructure or personnel to administer professional development programs has led to foreign aid-based professional development programs (Hamid, 2010), which, although well-meaning, may not be able to address all aspects of the local situation (Kaplan, Baldauf, & Kamwangamalu, 2011). In one case, in an apparent effort to overcome this issue, a three-year pilot phase of a nine-year large-scale school-based teacher development program described by Power, Shaheen, Solly, Woodward, and Burton (2012) considered how the content of teaching and training resources to be provided would fit within the local situation to engage the teachers. Based on their findings, an in-school peer support system was instituted, bimonthly reflective meetings of district teachers held outside of school were facilitated by trained local teachers, workshops were provided, and stakeholders at various levels were involved.

The Role of Action Research

One method to integrate all four of these characteristics into a single professional development program is to include a component of collaborative action or classroom-based research (Atay, 2008; Jeanpierre, Oberhauser, & Freeman, 2005; McDonough, 2006). Once overcoming the belief that "research" is an activity conducted away from teachers' common concerns, carrying out action research projects provides teachers with the opportunity to more clearly understand the process of teaching and learning in their classrooms (Burns, 1999; McDonough, 2006). Much research has also shown that effective professional development programs are based on the realities that teachers face each day in their classrooms, with particular emphasis on helping teachers have a direct and improved impact on the learning process and outcomes of their students (Atay, 2008; Ballantyne, Sanderman, & Levy, 2008; Ingvarson, Meiers & Beavis, 2005). Action research projects can provide the vehicle for teachers to better understand, improve, and have an observable impact on their day-to-day teaching experiences.

The Way Forward

More research on what constitutes effective professional development in teaching English for schoolteachers at both the elementary and secondary levels in the various contexts that exist in Asia is essential, and the findings should be shared. Experience has shown that without shared knowledge, the same mistakes will be

repeated, wasting resources, and most importantly, countless hours of teachers' and students' time.

The economic ambitions behind the increasing emphasis on learning English make the consequences of inadequate professional development more significant. A qualitative analysis showed that English proficiency could have a major impact on potential salaries (Euromonitor International, 2012). In ASEAN communities, the competition for jobs caused by the 2015 economic integration may exert pressure for children to start learning English from a younger age. In Laos, English is being taught to third-graders, albeit those mainly in cities, driven by the fear of exclusion from a more competitive job market within the country and in the region ("Regional Integration," 2012). The rising use of private language schools, within local contexts and abroad (Baldauf, Kaplan, Kamwangamalu, & Bryant, 2011; Hu & McKay, 2012), which are perceived to be of higher quality (Euromonitor International, 2012), may reflect inadequate professional development in public school systems. As qualifications in English become more widespread as gatekeepers to social and economic advancement, the implications of the growing gap between those who can afford private instruction and those who cannot is of increasing concern (Baldauf, Kaplan, Kamwangamalu, & Bryant, 2011; Butler, 2007; Hu & McKay, 2012).

Conclusion

If national ambitions for an English-proficient workforce are to be realized, instituting well-organized, well-funded, long-term, and accessible professional development programs, starting well in advance of implementation of English programs and continuing throughout, is essential, or the opportunity cost will be huge. Nationally instituted programs should be able to work at local levels, engage with local governments, administrators, and teachers, and address particular local needs. Governments and administrators should not view professional development as only the responsibility of teachers. Rather, successful programs are holistic, focusing on all stakeholders, including teachers, administrators, and others involved in the educational process (Waters, 2006; Wedell, 2003). Policies, planning, and professional development at the elementary and secondary levels should be considered in the context of the entire educational system in question and take into consideration the needs of teachers as well as those of students. Lacking effective professional development, the imposition of English programs on inadequately prepared teachers will lead to the same question being asked a decade from now: Why can't our students speak English after years of study?

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Learning English in ASEAN: Myths and Principles

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Taking the ten countries which make up the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) as the context, in this paper I want to challenge some beliefs about language learning and propose some new principles. I shall argue that, in the richly multilingual contexts of ASEAN, the increasing tendency to introduce English earlier and earlier into the primary language curriculum not only threatens the long-term future of many local languages, but is also detrimental to the overall learning and cognitive development of many children, especially those who come from poorer socio-economic backgrounds. After showing that "traditional" English itself developed in contact with many languages, I shall also propose that a "multilingual model" of English should be taught. I shall further propose that the language learning focus of the ASEAN primary school should be on local languages, and that the teaching of English can be delayed.

How "Pure" Is English?

Far from being a "pure" language, English is, in fact a hybrid mongrel of a language. This is true of all varieties of English, but no more so than British English. British English has been influenced by contact with a wide range of other languages, including Classical Greek, Latin, Germanic languages, Old Norse and other Scandinavian languages, and Norman French. In more recent times, of course, it has also been influenced through contact with a host of other languages from all over the world, as a result of the period of British colonialism. For example, the "English" words *bungalow*, *chapati*, *cockatoo*, *kimono*, *judo*, *pyjamas*, and *typhoon* are all borrowed from different Asian languages.

Languages are dynamic; they change over time. During the long period between the twelfth and eighteenth centuries, English lost many of its inflectional endings (Burchfield, 1985). Today, only the *+s* of the third person singular present tense marking remains in the standard form. However, in vernacular and non-standard forms - and

these, of course, are the overwhelming majority of spoken varieties of English - earlier forms can be found. Thus in Yorkshire English, people still say "where's thou bin?" (where hast thou been / where have you been?), using the old form of the second person inflection of *have* (cf. German *habst*). The fiendish "northern subject rule" still occurs in some vernaculars of British, Irish, and American English (McCafferty, 2003), where the following sentence follows the rule. "Cooks peels the potatoes and then they wash and boils them." Note in this variety of English the plural nouns and pronouns take the +s marker on the present tense verb. The only exception is for the verb *adjacent* to a plural pronoun, which explains why *wash* does not take the +s, but *peels* does in the above example.

There have been parallel changes in pronunciation. The Great Vowel Shift, a gradual change which took place between 1400 and 1700, saw significant changes in the pronunciation of certain vowel sounds. For example, the English writer, Chaucer, would have pronounced "we do say it's time to go now" as something like "way doe sah it's teem to gaw noo" (Crystal, 2004, p. 252). Contemporary varieties of English are most easily distinguished by the accents of their speakers. The so-called "drawl" in the speech of people from the Southern United States turns *had* (a monophthong in standard British English) into a triphthong. In colloquial Australian English, the *main mine* diphthongs merge to *mine*. Thus the look of panic on the patient's face when she thought she heard the doctor say "You can go home to die." What the doctor actually said was "You can go home today."

Most varieties dispense with the dental fricative TH sounds (Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006). Hong Kong English is unique among Asian varieties in using a /f/ sound instead, so that the sign "RU34T" seen in a chain of tea houses in Hong Kong only makes sense when you realise that *3* is pronounced the same way as *free* in this variety of English. This so-called TH fronting is also seen in the native speaker variety of English known as "estuary English" spoken in and around London.

These examples of change and variation within and across varieties of English simply remind us that English is not a "pure" language, has always been and continues to be influenced by contact with other languages and is subject to constant change (Britain, 2010). This is important to understand, as the new Englishes that are developing, such as the many varieties of Asian English, are developing in exactly the same way as traditional Englishes have always done (Kirkpatrick, 2007).

"Myths" of Language Learning

This has significant implications for language learning. Carol Benson (2008, p. 2) has identified what she calls three myths of second language learning. They are:

1. to learn a second language, you must start as early as possible
2. the best way to learn a second language is to use it as a medium of instruction
3. the home language gets in the way of learning a second language

Acceptance of myth one has led to all regional governments, with the exception of Indonesia, introducing English as a compulsory subject in primary school, often from as early as primary one and usually from primary three. Apart from anything else, introducing English this early into the primary curriculum requires both material and human resources that very few governments have. China is obviously an extreme case, given the size of the population: it has been estimated that there are 350 million Chinese learners of English (Xu, 2010, p. 295), the majority of whom are schoolchildren. How many qualified and linguistically proficient English teachers would be needed to teach so many children? And in many countries, material resources are scarce, especially in rural areas. The following description of the lack of resources in the Philippines does not necessarily only apply there:

> To this day, only 66.07% of elementary and secondary schools throughout the country have electricity. 13.3% have landline telephones. Only 2.9% have fax machines and 2% have internet access. In addition, 181,257 (out of roughly 450,000) public teachers reported that they had to bring their own tables to school; roughly the same number brought their own chairs. A smaller number (about 9,292) reported that they brought desks and chairs for their students. (Martin, 2005, p. 274)

In addition to the concern over the lack of material and human resources, there is the concern that the introduction of English into the primary curriculum is necessarily at the expense of other subjects. As it is most often local languages that are cut to make way for English, the teaching of English almost always means the non-teaching of local languages.

The first two of Benson's myths are often conflated so that English is used as a medium of instruction - and sometimes from as early as primary one - to teach other subjects, usually maths and science. To

continue to draw on the Philippines as an example, the Bilingual Education Policy has been in force since 1974 (Benton, 1996; Gonzalez, 1996). Through this policy, children learn in two languages from primary one. They learn maths and science through English and other subjects through Filipino. Consider the linguistic demands that this puts on all but those middle class children who are fortunate enough to have been born in Manila. They are fortunate because Filipino, despite its name, is based on the language, Tagalog, which is spoken in and around Manila. They are fortunate because they have access to reasonable resources and their parents are probably English-speaking. Other children - and these are the great majority - are less fortunate. The Philippines is richly multilingual and these other children will grow up speaking other languages, their mother tongue and a regional lingua franca. This means that when they go to school, they will be required to learn and *learn other subjects in* two new languages. It is not surprising that the primary school dropout rate is alarmingly high. There are no pedagogic or cognitive reasons to support the teaching of maths and science in English at such an early age. To quote the Filipino scholar, Allan Bernardo:

> ...there seems to be no theoretical or empirical basis...to obligate the use of English in teaching mathematics, [and that] ...there are clear and consistent advantages to using the students' first language...at the stage of learning where the student is acquiring the basic understanding of the various mathematical concepts and procedures. (2000, p. 313)

It is reassuring, therefore, to note some recent changes in government policy with regard to the medium of instruction. The Philippines government, in an education order released in July 2009, has itself recently approved the use of vernaculars in the early years of primary school (http://mothertongue-based.blogspot.com/). The extent to which this will be successfully implemented, however, remains to be seen.

In another encouraging move, the Malaysian government has decided to abandon its project to teach English and science from primary one through English and re-introduce the use of *Bahasa Melayu* for these subjects in 2011-2012. In Singapore, as is well-known, English is *the* medium of instruction for *all* subjects.   Now Singapore's particular concern is over the relative lack of proficiency in Chinese - especially literacy in Chinese - of many of Singapore's ethnic Chinese. This is hardly surprising, however, as a recent census indicated that 60% of primary one children report that English is their home language. In a rare acknowledgment, Minister Mentor Lee Kuan Yew recently admitted that Singapore's bilingual policy had been a mistake and the

way that Chinese language learning had been carried out was "madness" ("MM Lee Admits 'Mistake,'" 2009).

It is to be hoped, therefore, that the experience in the Philippines, Malaysia and Singapore will lead other regional governments to think very carefully before introducing English as a medium of instruction in the primary school.

Acceptance of the third myth, namely that the home language gets in the way of learning a second language, leads to the deliberate neglect of children's mother tongues and vernaculars in the primary school. This can be wasteful, as a good command of the mother tongue not only acts as a bridge to learning the second language, but also provides children with self-confidence in their own identity (Jhingran, 2009). This self-confidence can be crushed if the children are told or infer that their mother tongue is somehow inferior and is not to be spoken in school.

Three Principles

The result of the acceptance of these three myths is that in almost all Asian primary classrooms, the focus is on learning the national language and English. This prioritizing of national languages and English is seen all over the world and has led to predictions that, if it continues, more than half of the world's 6,500 languages will have disappeared by the end of this century (Hans Rausing, 2008). I therefore propose three alternative principles to supplant the three myths. These are:

1. Delay the introduction of English until child has literacy in the L1 and until conditions and facilities merit it.
2. Wherever possible and feasible, use the child's L1 as a medium of instruction.
3. Adopt multilingual benchmarks to measure linguistic proficiency and adopt the "multilingual model."

It is, of course, difficult to persuade parents that it is in their child's best interests to delay the learning of English until secondary school. It is also true that, all things being equal, learning a second language early is a good idea. However, when the circumstances are not suitable for the teaching and learning of English in the early years, introducing it too early can do far more harm than good. Many scholars are therefore now proposing a shift from the traditional cognitivist perspective of second language acquisition (SLA) to a more social perspective (e.g., Cook, 2008; Firth & Wagner, 2007; Larsen-Freeman, 2007). The cognitivist perspective of SLA sees the primary goal of language learning as the acquisition of native-like fluency. Learners are

measured against native speaker benchmarks. But these benchmarks are not so relevant and appropriate in today's world where the major role of English is as a lingua franca. For example, in the ASEAN region alone, English is primarily used as a lingua franca by Asian multilinguals who have learned English as an additional language (Kirkpatrick, 2010). Thus, Indonesians and Filipinos will communicate with Cambodians through English. Multilinguals who use English as a lingua franca in this way do not need to sound like native speakers when they speak English. They do need to be internationally intelligible, however. Thus we argue that linguistic benchmarks should not be derived from native speakers, but rather should be derived from multilinguals who are able to communicate successfully in the regional and international arena. In the context of Cambodia, therefore, it would make sense to derive linguistic benchmarks for Khmer speaking children from Khmer speakers who operate successfully in English on the regional and international stage. As Garcia has argued, a multilingual education "doesn't accommodate to monolingual standards" and we therefore must "avoid the inequities in comparing bilingual children to a monolingual child in one of the languages" (2009, p. 386). The successful multilingual becomes the *linguistic* as well as the role model. In this more social perspective of SLA, therefore, the achievement of the learner is measured against the ability to use the language successfully rather than the ability to sound like a native speaker. As illustrated at the beginning of the paper, varieties of English are, by definition, characterized by variation. Multilinguals for whom English is an additional language do not have to sound and speak like native speakers, nor need they. They need to be intelligible in regional and international contexts.

The adoption of this multilingual model has a number of far-reaching implications for English language teaching in the region in terms of the language teacher, the pedagogy and the curriculum (Kirkpatrick, 2010; 2008). With regard to the language teacher, the local multilingual English teacher (MET) is a more appropriate and relevant model for the learners than a native English teacher (NET). It goes without saying, of course, that the MET must be trained as a language teacher and have a high level of English proficiency. This, in turn, means that the authority of the NET is diminished. If governments were to take this model on board, they would be able to re-prioritize their resources and spend far more on training local METs and far less on importing NETs.

ELT pedagogy would also see changes. Instead of insisting on English as the sole language of the English classroom, METs can adopt a multilingual pedagogy and use their students' language(s) in systematic ways to help in the learning of English (Littlewood & Yu, 2009). One example is Cummins' (2005) suggestion of dual language

books, whereby students are encouraged to write in their L1 first and then translate their L1 writing into English. One great advantage of this is that it allows the students to express themselves say what they really feel. This contrasts with the all too familiar experience of second language students only saying what they *can* say in the target language. Another example of the use of a multilingual pedagogy is the use of "languaging," whereby students can use their first language while working on a task, but must report it or write it up in English.

The adoption of the multilingual model also sees a radical new English language curriculum. Far from teaching subjects like maths and science through English, the English class provides an opportunity for an in-depth study of regional cultures, the cultures of the people to whom the learners are most likely to be communicating with in English as a lingua franca. The study of local and regional cultures is of particular importance, as the study of regional and local languages is currently so restricted. The only way many students will have access to local and regional cultures is through English. Such a cross-cultural curriculum should also include an introduction of regional and world Englishes to encompass the study of contrastive pragmatic and rhetoric. A third component of the ELT curriculum would be a study of literatures in English, as illustrated by this example from a Filipino secondary school (Thompson, 2003), where each year of the secondary literature curriculum is divided as follows:

S1: "I am a Filipino."
     (Students read Filipino literature in English)
S2: "I am an Asian."
     (Students read Asian literature in English)
S3: "I am an English speaker."
     (Students read English and Filipino literature in English)
S4: "I am a citizen of the world."
     (Students read world and Filipino literature in English)

Conclusion

To conclude, the theme of the conference was "One World-World Englishes." In this post-colonial and post-Anglophone world, descriptions which both fit Cambodia perfectly today (Clayton, 2006), the time has come to recognize that the major regional role of English is as a lingua franca spoken by multilinguals throughout ASEAN and Asia. It is also time, therefore, to recognize that the multilingual varieties of English spoken through the region are legitimate and appropriate models of the English language classroom.

The UNESCO report "Education for All by 2015" identifies school dropout rates by primary five as the main challenge facing many

regional education systems (cf. Heder, 2007 for information on Cambodia). To improve primary school retention rates, children first need to develop fluency in their mother tongue and the national language. This should be the focus of language education in primary schools, not English. To rephrase the three principles introduced above in a slightly different way, (cf. also Kirkpatrick, 2009) I propose that:

1. wherever possible, the mother tongue should be used as the medium of instruction; otherwise a local language should be used;
2. English can happily be delayed until at least the later years of primary school; and
3. the goal of learners of English in multilingual and lingua franca settings should be multilingual performance and proficiency - the multilingual model - not an idealized native-like proficiency.

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Using Standards for Internal Quality Assurance for Management and Program Administration

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This paper considers how local, national, and international standards can be used as a guide for management, administrative, or program development. Beginning with background information regarding the use of standards for accreditation, suggestions on how such standards can be used for other "internal" purposes will be presented. The goal of the use of such standards is not solely on the final objective of accreditation, but rather on how all educational institutions can utilize such standards as tools in the ongoing process of improving educational quality assurance in management and program administration. Recommendations for educational leaders and institutions will include prioritizing the areas in their particular educational contexts in which to apply standards, reviewing and selectively utilizing relevant international, national or local standards, and maintaining transparency and ownership.

Increasingly, quality assurance issues are being emphasized by educational agencies and institutions in all contexts, including those in developing as well as developed countries, and across all levels, including primary, secondary and tertiary (Stroupe, 2009). In Cambodia, the newly formed Accreditation Committee of Cambodia (ACC) is charged with accrediting and ensuring the quality of institutions of higher education (Sithol, 2010). Standards and benchmarks for all levels of the educational system in Japan are maintained and enforced by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) (Doyon, 2001; National Institute on Student Achievement, Curriculum, and Assessment, 1998; Teichler, 1997). In Australia, the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR), along with territorial agencies, oversees educational programs and institutions (DEEWR, 2010), while the National ELT Accreditation Scheme (NEAS) develops standards for English language teaching (ELT) and provides accreditation for ELT institutions and programs (NEAS, 2010). American educators are

familiar with the educational and institutional ramifications of the *No Child Left Behind* standards-based policies of the Bush administration in the United States, and resulting controversies (Balfanz, Legters, West, & Weber, 2007; Burch, Steinberg, & Donovan, 2007; Fuller, Wright, Gesicki, & Kang, 2007). More recently, the *Common Core Standards* developed by the National Governors Association Center for Best Practices (NGA Center) and the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) (CCSSO, 2010; Common Core Standards Initiative, 2010) will have far-reaching effects in the American education sector. In Europe and in countries outside the region which have chosen to adopt it, the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment* (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001) is increasingly being used to benchmark language learning. Additionally, individual institutions are regularly faced with accreditation requirements from a number of local, national, and international agencies and government institutions. In many ways, standards used to ensure quality are globally very much an integrated aspect of educational systems.

Using National and International Standards

National or international standards can also be used as a source of internal quality assurance, separate from the requirement of local, national, or international authorities. As an internal tool for evaluation or self-audit, such standards, which are readily available, can be utilized very effectively both by individuals and institutions (Stroupe, 2009). However, when first considering standards, leaders may become quite overwhelmed at the assumed expectations some standards impose, the complexity with which they are written, or the lack of immediate relevance to the local context. Mishra (2006) suggests that institutions consider their own contexts first, by asking how quality is defined and what internal and external forces drive the search for quality. This paper suggests that internal forces, including educational leaders or an institution which encourages an environment which supports quality assurance, can make use of available standards in an informal manner in order to support educators and administrative and program management as leaders and institutions strive to improve and maintain the quality of educational services.

The Competitive Education Marketplace and Standards in the Language Learning Context

In recent decades, a shift in educational philosophy related to language learning has occurred in many contexts. English is no longer viewed as only a subject to be studied objectively, but rather as a skill-based subject. Students learn how to use the language in practical

circumstances, including educational and professional situations. Along with this shift to a skills-based approach, performance standards are increasingly being used to evaluate students' success or achievement (Stroupe, 2007, 2009). Reaching performance standards, which are based on what students should know or how they should be able to perform after a course or educational program and which are measured on a continuum, is important: such results can be required of educational institutions by stakeholders or accreditation agencies, of scholarship applicants by donor agencies, of employees by potential employers, and more recently, of education institutions by prospective students. Educational leaders and institutions are being faced with increased global and local competition (Bolden, 2008) and requirements to meet state and local guidelines / requirements related to curriculum and assessment design, professional development of teachers, and accreditation / evaluation (Stroupe, 2009).   This increasing emphasis on performance standards is contributing to this growth in competition and the development of internal and external requirements of institutions, but may also provide opportunities for those same institutions to highlight and promote their successful programs.

As students become increasingly mobile (more able to travel great distances, in many cases internationally, to attend educational programs) and sophisticated in their personal evaluations of educational institutions, quality assurance issues are becoming more important. Students now have access to a global network of educational institutions, all of which are more and more appealing to an international student population. Parents, students themselves, and other funding agencies (such as administrators of scholarship programs, philanthropic organizations, and development agencies) are becoming more knowledgeable about different educational opportunities, and are increasingly concerned about the quality and cost of educational experiences. Such stakeholders are better informed of their rights as "education consumers" and are likely to hold educational institutions accountable with regard to overall quality of programs and whether stated goals and objectives are met (Mishra, 2006).

Institutions themselves have a vested interest in improving and / or maintaining quality: increased quality results in increased credibility as well as increased prestige and status to the institutions and their staff. In turn, increases in prestige and status can be utilized to attract higher quality student applicants and staff and to place graduates in more attractive positions after graduation (Mishra, 2006).

Quality in the education sector is most often associated with the classroom: how well are students learning, how qualified are teachers, and how well do teachers teach? However, in a competitive education

market, the classroom is merely one of a number of variables which may influence the choice of students to enroll in one institution over another (Figure 1). Along with the quality of educational programs, the reputation and prestige of the institution play important roles. Such variables may also affect how potential consumers evaluate the cost or convenience (for example, distance that must be traveled to the institution) of the institution weighed against its reputation. Relevance of programs to the educational or learning goals (academic, professional, content-specific) of prospective students can determine whether these potential students will show interest in a particular program. The number of relevant programs available in a specific area may increase the competition among those programs as potential students must choose between a number of options. Of course, the reverse is also true: if only one program is available, less competition may be realized. Many students may be concerned about the intellectual challenge (or lack thereof) which programs at an institution will provide them, or the general overall atmosphere of the learning environment provided (Higher Education Policy Institute, 2009). Additionally, administrative support and (non-academic) student services (e.g., counseling services, online student support services) may also factor into their decision-making process (Bolden, 2008). Education consumers make decisions on where, how, and when to study based on these variables of price, availability, and relevance. The decision-making process and the variables on which it is based are not static, but constantly changing and interrelated (Higher Education Policy Institute, 2009). Institutions can increase their visibility and marketability by proactively ensuring the quality of their services and programs through internal procedures. Employing standards to proactively evaluate and improve curriculum, staff development, management procedures, and program administration and services will ensure the quality of each component and the overall functioning of the institution.
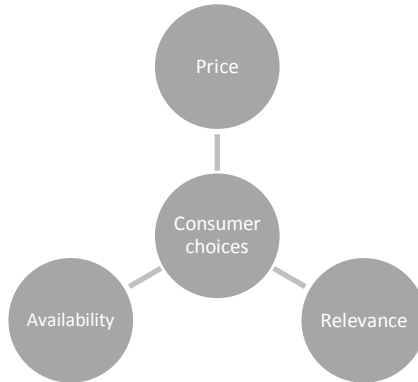
Figure 1. Interrelated variables affecting consumer choice in the education sector.

What Standards Are Related to Management and Program Administration?

When associated with management and program administration, standards deal with the ability of an institution to provide or deliver services. Like performance standards, standards for management and program administration are also based on observable or quantifiable evidence that is used to show that the standards are being achieved (NEAS, 2010). Administrative and program standards can include the assessment of students, program design, and hiring and promotion practices (NEAS, 2010; Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages [TESOL], 2003). Additional examples are listed in Table 1.

Table 1

Management and Program Administration Standards Categories: Some Examples

Management and Administration	Program Delivery and Assessment
• Mission statement / philosophy	• Instructor qualifications / credentials
• Management structure	• Professional development
• Leadership and support staff / services	• Curriculum development
• Organizational goals	• Student / teacher ratio
• Employment practices / conditions	• Timetables
• Professional development	• Teaching methodology / instruction
• Instructor evaluation systems	• Goals and objectives
• Channels of communication	• Program content
• Linkages with stakeholders	• Syllabus
• Confidentiality	• Equipment
• Quality assurance practices	• Resources
• Student administration	• Assessment procedures
• Learner recruitment, intake, orientation	• Course evaluation
• Planning systems	
• Marketing	
• Financial control	

Note. From National ELT Accreditation Scheme (NEAS). (2010). *Standards and criteria for ELT Centres - International*, retrieved from http://www.neas.org.au/international/standards.php and Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). (2003). *Standards for adult education ESL programs.* Alexandria, VA: TESOL Organization.

One organization which specifically targets international institutions (i.e., institutions outside of Australia) is the National ELT Accreditation Scheme (NEAS). This organization's standards for use in their accreditation process, *Standards and Criteria for ELT Centres - International* (NEAS, 2010), are available online (http://www.neas.org.au/international/standards.php). These standards have been developed based on consideration of the realities and constraints on institutions in the international context. They are also clear and concise, and therefore more accessible than other more complex and legalistic standards available through other agencies. In addition, the

NEAS standards have a number of categories related directly to management and program administration.

How Can Leaders Positively Influence Management and Program Quality?

Quality assurance issues challenge all institutions, regardless of the level of development of the particular country where an institution is located or the type of students to which an institution caters. Each institution must address the cultural, traditional, administrative, and employee barriers in its context which must be overcome or addressed when quality assurance issues are presented or when standards are implemented. In some cases, institutions or educational leaders only consider quality issues or standards when it is time for the annual accreditation review. While accreditation is a potential and valuable result, it is not an absolutely necessary impetus. Striving for quality assurance is a process that can be started at any time and can be continued with leadership and support (NEAS, 2010; Stroupe, 2009; Tatton, 2010). Educational leaders in institutions play a key role in this process. Bryman (2009) reports that one of the three top qualities of successful leaders in education is the ability to promote excellence in teaching and learning in a department or program. However, at the same time, Bryman (2009) points out that leaders can overload teachers, thereby lessening the chances that educational reform, including improvements in quality assurance, will be successful. In fact, inappropriate implementation of quality assurance systems can result in a reduction in the development of innovative approaches to the delivery of educational services.

Each educational institution exists in a unique context, with accompanying restrictions and limitations on resources and flexibility of operations. As a result, each educational leader should question what types of quality assurance measures are feasible. Appendix A presents a number of features of quality assurance systems; however, leaders must consider which are most relevant to their educational contexts. In addition, most institutions cannot address all aspects of the administrative and program management at once, but must prioritize based on where the greatest need may exist, and where the most beneficial impact could be realized. Appendix B lists a number of reflective questions for educational leaders when considering the quality assurance process. The challenge for educational leaders is to find the balance: determine what is feasible at a particular time and encourage quality, while taking care to avoid stifling innovation and creativity at the same time. This is a global issue that all educational leaders face (Leadership Foundation for Higher Education, 2006). The key to quality assurance is to start the process. Quality assurance is a system: Starting at one point within the system will lead to

advantageous changes in other parts of the system. One must start somewhere.

Recommendations on How to Start and Continue the Quality Assurance Process

Below are a number of steps which educational leaders and other educators can take in order to utilize standards as a tool to improve quality within institutional management and program administration:

Consider the context. As mentioned above, each educational context is unique, and each institution faces complex and varying internal and external challenges. Working with colleagues to identify potential areas for improvement is an effective initial step.

Expand ownership of the process. It is important that members of administrative units, including staff, managers, teachers, and other educational leaders feel that they are not only a part of the process, but that their views, recommendations, and objections are taken seriously and respected. Negotiating the emphasis, priorities, and features of the quality assurance system is important. This process may be time consuming, but will lead to a higher likelihood of success in the long run. Introducing the quality assurance system, establishing channels of communication for input from all interested parties, ensuring transparency, maintaining representation on committees of diverse stakeholders from all levels of the organization, and negotiating procedures with all involved is a lengthy but valuable process in which the institution as a whole can and should engage.

Consider feasibility. What really is possible given the situation of the institution? Consider available resources, the employment market, government policies, physical limitations, and competition from other educational institutions.

Prioritize the institution's needs. Where is change most needed? In most cases, it is not possible nor is it wise for institutions to address quality issues in all areas of management and program administration at once. In each institution, based on the input from all stakeholders, areas where the need is greatest, where change is feasible, and where the most benefit can be realized can be prioritized.

Consider available standards. Standards are widely available in the public domain. Many organizations produce standards, local and national governments implement standards, and a number of agencies provide standards for use in their accreditation processes. In most cases, once accessing these standards, it will be necessary to adapt individual standards, adopt others, and disregard still others based on the realities of the context of each educational institution.

For example, in the case of the development of the program content of a Master's degree program in TESOL at the Japanese university where the author is a faculty member, the TESOL / NCATE accreditation standards from the United States for English as a Second Language (ESL) P-12 (preschool through Grade 12) Teacher Education Programs were used. Without specific curriculum guidelines, performance benchmarks, or quality standards in the Japanese context for such a program, these standards from another country were utilized to evaluate the curriculum during the development stage. In some cases, the standards, such as demonstrating knowledge of syntax, World Englishes, or phonology, could be used in their entirety. However, others, such as understanding the history and current situation of immigration in the United States, were deemed irrelevant for our purposes. For ESL teachers in the United States, knowledge of immigration issues is increasingly important; for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers in Japan, this knowledge is not necessary. In all, more than 95% of the approximately 70 standards for teacher education programs in the United States were relevant to our program in Japan. Although many had to be adapted, this set of standards allowed us to evaluate our program in an objective manner and led to informed decisions regarding curriculum changes that were to be made during the development process.

Consider the process, not just the product. Ensuring quality is a process that takes time. In a situation where an institution utilizes standards for internal purposes, the product may not be eventual accreditation. Rather, the process itself is what is important. Every institution should be implementing quality assurance practices. The use of available standards is one tool that can focus the quality assurance process and be used in self-evaluation for both institutions and the administrative and teaching staff involved. The use of standards can objectify the process of improving and / or maintaining quality, allowing all involved to address their concerns against an independent standard.

Ensure continuing ownership. Ensuring ownership by all members of stakeholder groups continues throughout a successful quality assurance process. Maintaining channels of communication, transparency, and respect are all important and will ensure that all members of the institution will "remain at the table" and continue to contribute effectively.

The key is to start the process. Regardless of the restraints educational institutions must function under, all institutions can implement quality assurance procedures. Institutions that stand still in regard to quality will quickly become obsolete in an increasingly competitive global education market. As institutions progress through the quality assurance process, there will be difficulties and challenges,

but the only wrong decision that may be made is to not start the process at all.

Conclusion

Globally, educational institutions are facing increasing competition from not only local but also international sources. Students, parents, and funding agencies are becoming more sophisticated in their ability to distinguish among the educational offerings available, and will make decisions regarding educational programs based on relevancy, availability, cost, and quality. Institutions engaged in effective quality assurance practices can provide themselves with a comparative advantage in this competitive education market. Making use of national or international standards is an opportunity for institutions to bring objectivity to the self-evaluation process. While special consideration should be given to adapting standards to the context of each educational institution, available standards remain a useful tool for educational leaders and educators in the process of ensuring quality in not only classroom activities, but also in administrative and program management practices. Educational leaders play an important role in ensuring the transparency of quality assurance practices, maintaining ownership among stakeholders, balancing the implementation of quality assurance systems, and ensuring flexibility to be responsive to changes in the field and the market as competition and the growth of an informed student population continue to increase. The quality assurance process should be viewed in a long-term perspective. And while there will be challenges throughout this process, the only misstep an institution may make is not to start the process at all.

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Appendix A
Academic Quality Management
(Leadership Foundation for Higher Education, 2010)

Academic **quality assurance and enhancement arrangements** in institutions usually contain the following features:

- A quality policy or framework which sets out guidelines, regulations, and responsibilities for managing quality and safeguarding academic standards. This policy will be published and available to all staff, governors, and students.
- A charter or equivalent that sets out the expectations and responsibilities of students and the standards of care and service that they can expect from the institution and its staff.
- A cycle of validations and accreditation for new programs of study and reviews of existing programs.
- Systems for recruiting, training, and reviewing staff and their performance.
- Systems and procedures for assessing and examining student attainment, including the recruitment of external examiners.
- Systems for seeking, reviewing, and acting upon feedback from students and other stakeholders.
- Performance targets and indicators in key areas (e.g., student recruitment, retention, and attainment).
- A program to support quality improvement and development, building on key indicators and regular self-assessment.
- A system for monitoring success (in relation to quality and standards), for undertaking systematic reviews and for resolving problems.

Appendix B
Quality: Key Questions [for Education Leaders]
(Leadership Foundation for Higher Education, 2010)

In carrying out their strategic responsibilities in relation to quality, [leaders] may need to address a number of key questions:

- What is our institution's quality policy?
- What use does the institution make of external benchmarks?
- How does quality and how do standards of attainment match up with those of competitors and partners (as judged by performance and statistical indicators such as quality judgments, degree results, and employability indicators)?
- What are the outcomes of accreditation and review processes?
- How do particular groups of students perform, and how does this relate to key strategic areas?
- How is quality enhanced and how are academic standards maintained or raised?
- Are reports on quality matters regularly reported to governors?

Fifty Ways to Develop Professionally:
What Language Educators Need to Succeed

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This paper discusses the importance and purposes of professional development in the lives of language educators in the Asian context and describes what teachers need to consider in designing a professional development plan. It provides a definition, rationale, and fifty professional development activities with references and resources found in the TESOL literature. Three steps are proposed in the formation of professional development plans: 1) determine one's strengths and weaknesses, 2) consider one's current stage of development and what one wants to accomplish, and 3) select long and short term goals and the resources needed to accomplish them. It is posited that continued development is the obligation of the professional language educator and that through reflection upon one's practice, awareness of opportunities, and a comprehensive plan, educators can obtain their professional development goals even with limited resources.

Definition of Professional Development

How does one become a professional educator? In order to answer this question, one must consider what it means to be "professional." To be considered a professional, one needs to possess the theoretical background, mentored experience, professional affiliations, and certifications to meet the standards of excellence in the chosen field. Nunan (1999) adds that professionals act as advocates for their field. Thus, professionals have the knowledge, skills, qualifications, connections, and accountability to engage in their professions as advocates. Those who are considered professional represent what is best in their fields and are endorsed and respected by colleagues.

Given this description of professional, it is reasonable to expect that becoming a professional educator does not end with one's pre-service or even in-service education. Professional development is a lifelong endeavor, a way of being, and a perspective on how one

practices as well the practice itself. It is possible to never become professional, or to lose one's professionalism. Some refer to this process in education as teacher development, and note that sustained learning is key. As Lange (1990) states, "Teacher development is a term used in the literature to describe a process of continual intellectual, experiential, and attitudinal growth of teachers . . . [It permits] continued growth both before and throughout a career . . . in which teachers continue to evolve in the use, adaptation, and application of their art and craft" (p. 250).

Reasons to Engage in Professional Development

Teachers are busy people, so the first question to address is why divert precious time and resources to ongoing development? Six reasons to engage in professional development are provided below, along with corresponding professional activities, related resources, and references. For an up-to-date, comprehensive list of over 70 papers related to professional development of language educators, see TIRF's (The International Research Foundation for English Language Education) *Professional Development of Language Teachers: Selected References* (2011), available online. For examples in the context of Laos and Thailand, see Fowle & Durham (2001).

Raise awareness of strengths and weaknesses. When teachers cannot articulate their strengths as language educators, they miss opportunities to build upon their strong points to make an even greater impact. Likewise, teachers who are unaware of weaknesses in their teaching are not able to know what to change because they are not sure what is hindering their effectiveness. Awareness, or being cognizant of one's decisions and one's strengths and weaknesses in teaching, is key to teacher growth and development. Several professional development activities in the literature, therefore, deal directly with heightening one's awareness and helping one to reflect critically upon one's teaching in order to make changes and improve. See Table 1 for activities and related resources.

Most of these activities could be accomplished with little or no cost, such as keeping a journal, learning a language, peer observations, engaging in team teaching, finding a mentor, or conducting a survey. While compiling a portfolio, recording one's teaching, and engaging in action research may require extra resources and / or expertise, the other activities require only initiative, time, and discipline.

Table 1

Professional Development to Raise Awareness of One's Strengths and Weaknesses

Professional Development Activity	Related Resources and References
1. Keep a journal and reflect on teaching	• Bailey, 2004 • Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001, Ch. 4 • Bailey & Nunan, 1996 • Johnson & Golombek, 2002 • Stewart & Lokon, 2003
2. Learn a new language	• Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001, Ch. 6 • Rubin & Thompson, 1994 • Sauro, 2003
3. Record and view one's teaching	• Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001, Ch. 7 • Richards & Farrell, 2005, Ch. 3
4. Be observed by a peer	• Bain, 2004 • Richards, 1998
5. Observe other teachers	• Deacon, 2003 • Wajnryb, 1992
6. Compile a portfolio	• Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001, Ch. 12 • Diaz-Maggioli, 2003 • Richards & Farrell, 2005, Ch. 7 • Tanner, 2003
7. Engage in team teaching	• Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001, Ch. 10 • Richards & Farrell, 2005, Ch. 11
8. Find a mentor	• Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001, Ch. 11 • Richards & Farrell, 2005, Ch. 10
9. Engage in action research	• Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001, Ch. 8 • Burns, 1999, 2010 • Edge, 2001 • Freeman, 1998 • Richards & Farrell, 2005, Ch. 12
10. Survey students on one's teaching	• Gordon, 2003

Note. Many of the activities listed in Tables 1-6 could be listed under multiple reasons to engage in professional development, but are listed only once for ease of reference.

Acquire new knowledge. Another reason to engage in teacher or professional development is to acquire new knowledge. In the TESOL Quarterly 40th Anniversary Issue, Canagarajah (2006) mentions several areas within TESOL that are new to the field, such as World Englishes (WE), digital communication, and critical pedagogy. These are examples of how the field of TESOL has changed, and professional educators need to keep abreast of these changes. See Table 2 for a list of activities to gain new knowledge and their related resources. Although activities such as attending a conference or enrolling in an advanced degree program may require financial resources, many of the others can be completed with no funding. For example, some professional journals are available online. Reviewing, writing, or editing a book requires some previous knowledge and expertise, but one can collaborate with more experienced educators and learn from them in the process.

The possibility of attending conferences or getting an advanced degree should not be ruled out if funding is the only obstacle. Many conferences offer competitive travel awards which are often reserved for presenters from developing countries (see http://www.tesol.org/), and there are also scholarships available for degree programs. In addition, choice of universities should not be limited to those in the West. Attending university in countries in Asia is more affordable and would likely be more appropriate for those who plan to teach in Asia.

Table 2

Professional Development to Acquire New Knowledge

Professional Development Activity	Related Resources and References
11. Attend a conference	• AsiaTEFL, CamTESOL, ETA-ROC, JACET, JALT, KATE, KOTESOL, TEFLIN, TESOL, ThaiTESOL
12. Read professional journals	• For a list of ELT journals, see pages 3-45 of this document: http://www.tesol.org/docs/pdf/1026.pdf?sfvrsn=2
13. Become active in organizations	• Braine, 2003 • Eisterhold, 2003
14. Write a book review	• Kupetz, 2003
15. Write a textbook manual or textbook	• Grant, 2003 • Tjandrawidjaja, 2003
16. Become a reviewer of textbooks	• See publishers' websites for more information
17. Enroll in an MA or PhD program	• Miller, 2003 • http://www.tesol.org/
18. Launch a teachers' reading group	• Sato, 2003 • Richards & Farrell, 2005, Ch. 6
19. Teach a different level or course, or in a different context	• Conrad, 2003

Solve a particular problem. Perhaps there is a particular problem to solve, such as how to take advantage of the different levels of English proficiency in one's classroom or how to address the use of L1 in the classroom. Professional development activities that may help target a particular issue are listed below with related resources in Table 3. Once again, many of these, such as engaging in a case study, interviewing colleagues, analyzing a critical incident, joining an online discussion list, or finding online resources, can be completed with few resources.

Table 3

Professional Development to Solve a Particular Problem

Professional Development Activity	Related Resources and References
20. Engage in a case study	• Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001, Ch. 5 • Richards & Farrell, 2005, Ch. 9
21. Interview colleagues	• Gorsuch & Beglar, 2003
22. Present at a conference	• Andrade, 2003
23. Analyze a critical incident	• Borg, 2003b • Richards & Farrell, 2005, Ch. 8
24. Conduct an online survey	• See www.surveymonkey.com
25. Join an online discussion list	• Algren, 2003
26. Find related online resources	• Chao, 2003 • Paulus, 2003
27. Start a special interest group	• Braine, 2003

Upgrade skills due to changes in society or the field. Ongoing in-service training and retooling is necessary for a professional language educator due to changes in both society and the field of language learning and education. This is perhaps most evident in the use of technology in the classroom. Knowing how to use these tools may require additional training, but much can be learned on one's own by going online. Professional development activities that lend themselves to practical hands-on retooling are listed below with related resources. Many of these require funding, but finding ways to learn from colleagues or perhaps offering help to others to upgrade their skills should not be overlooked.

Table 4

Professional Development to Upgrade Skills

Professional Development Activity	Related Resources and References
28. Attend a workshop in desired area	• Richards & Farrell, 2005, Ch. 2
29. Find ways to learn from colleagues	• Murphey, Connolly, Churchill, McLaughlin, Schwartz, & Krajka, 2003
30. Apply for a grant to learn a skill	• Averill, 2003 • Seymour, 2003
31. Take an online or distance course	• Green, 2003 • Pawan & Jacobson, 2003 • Roessingh & Johnson, 2005

Advance one's career. Professional development that is initiated by teachers and not just the institution has a better chance to succeed. The desire to get a promotion, tenure, or raise, or find a more challenging assignment can be a strong source of motivation. Professional activities that hold potential for advancing one's career are below in Table 5. Most of these, such as writing journal articles, co-writing a book, or creating a language program or school require some level of expertise or skills, but the simple act of volunteering in a professional organization or helping to produce a newsletter or publication can help one learn from others in the field at no cost.

Table 5

Professional Development for Career Advancement

Professional Development Activity	Related Resources and References
32. Get an advanced degree	• Miller, 2003
33. Engage in and write up research	• Borg, 2003a • Cohen, 2003 • McKay, 2006
34. Write a chapter or journal article	• Mattix, 2003
35. Co-write or edit a book	• Murphy, 2003
36. Apply for administrative positions	• Smith, 2003 • Stapa, 2003
37. Seek out positions as a teacher trainer	• Bailey, 2006 • Carbery & Croker, 2003
38. Develop a language course	• Graves, 1996, 2000
39. Create a language program	• Richards, 2001
40. Establish a language school	• Richards, 2001
41. Volunteer to serve	• Braine, 2003 • Eisterhold, 2003

Find fulfillment in one's work to prevent burnout. Promotions and advancement are not the only motivating factors to develop professionally. Finding fulfillment in one's work and preventing burnout are also good reasons to seek to grow in one's profession. Activities that respond best to this orientation include many of those already mentioned as well those listed in Table 6. A sabbatical may not be possible for most educators unless they are at a well-funded university; if that is the case, other options on this list, such as mentoring others, organizing a conference, or teaching less advantaged students, can be considered. Curtis (2006, 2008) notes that collaborative professional development has a better chance to succeed than individual efforts. Relationships formed though volunteer service at professional organizations are invaluable, as noted by many leaders in the TESOL, Inc. organization (see Christison & Murray, 2009).

Table 6

Professional Development to Find Fulfillment and Prevent Burnout

Professional Development Activity	Related Resources and References
42. Take a sabbatical	• Seymour, 2003
43. Start a student scholarship fund	• http://us.scholargrants.info/how-do-you-start-a-scholarship-fund
44. Organize a local conference	• Eisterhold, 2003
45. Volunteer in an organization	• Braine, 2003
46. Engage in international collaboration	• Carbery & Croker, 2003
47. Mentor other teachers	• Waldschmidt, Dantas-Whitney, & Healey, 2005
48. Teach less advantaged students	• Boucher-Yip, 2003
49. Start an ELT organization	• Braine, 2003
50. Be an advocate for students	• http://www.tesol.org/advance-the-field

Steps of Designing a Professional Development Plan

The three steps in designing a professional development plan are to determine one's strengths and weaknesses, consider one's current stage of development, and select one's long-term and short-term goals.

Determine one's strengths and weaknesses. A helpful way to determine what to focus on in one's professional development plan is to consider three areas, or domains, in which one can develop: knowledge, attitude / awareness, and skills. This can be thought of one's head, heart, and hands. Since there are many possibilities under each domain to consider, language educators may want to choose one particular area of strength to build upon as well as one particular area of weakness to develop, and focus their plans around those two.

Head: General knowledge of teaching and specific subject matter knowledge. In terms of knowledge or the cognitive domain, there are two types of knowledge to consider developing. The first is general knowledge of teaching, such as knowing about various theories of learning and current research in education and its implications. The other area of knowledge that language educators need to consider is what they know about the specific content areas that they teach, whether it is grammar, pronunciation, writing, or culture.

Heart: Attitude / self-awareness.   Attitude is key for the successful completion and sustaining power of any professional development plan. The literature on autonomy in language learning can be applied to teacher professional development. Essential elements in learner autonomy are motivation, choice, and responsibility. Teachers must consider how they can stay motivated to develop, be aware that they have choices about what and how they develop, and think about how they can be held responsible for their professional development plans. For example, teachers might seek out travel grants (which can help with their motivation) to present papers at conferences (on topics of their choice), and then share what they have learned with local colleagues upon their return (thus taking responsibility).

In terms of self-awareness, educators who cannot articulate their strengths and weaknesses could focus their professional development plans on raising awareness of their teaching.

A helpful tool to consider "blind spots" in one's teaching is the Johari Window (see Table 7). One's "open self" reveals aspects known to oneself *and* known by others. The fact that a teacher may teach in a nonlinear style may be evident to others as well as to the teacher herself, for example. The "secret self" is that which a person knows, but others are unaware of. For example, a teacher may feel insecure about teaching, although it may appear he has adequate confidence; this is known to the self, but hidden from others.

Table 7

Johari Window of the Four "Selves"

	Known to self:	Unknown to self:
Known to others:	OPEN SELF	BLIND SELF
Unknown to others:	SECRET SELF	HIDDEN SELF

The "blind self" has the most potential for growth. It is what others see, but which the individual is ignorant of. For example, a teacher may assume that his instructions in class are clear, but students may actually find them confusing. Or a teacher may think he is open to hearing students' comments and eager to listen to their questions, but his tone and nonverbal signals are sending unwelcome messages. Getting feedback from students, peers, and supervisors about what one

does in the classroom and how one is perceived will reveal aspects of one's "blind self."

The bottom right window contains the "hidden self" which is concealed from others and oneself. It may be the hidden potential one has as a speaker, writer, motivator, or mentor, for example, just waiting to be discovered. Being willing to take some risks and try new things may open one's eyes to the hidden potential one has as a professional language educator.

Hands: Skills such as language proficiency and pedagogical expertise. Skills is another area one may wish to develop. Some teachers may feel they need to improve their English pronunciation if students find their spoken language difficult to follow, while other teachers may need to improve their skills in using software or technology. Improving one's teaching skills, whether it is designing better assessment instruments or becoming more skilled at providing specific feedback to students, is part of being a professional. However, the question is, which areas are one's greatest needs and which strengths should be developed?

Table 8 provides a space to write down a domain (Head, Heart, or Hand), a strength, a weakness, and corresponding professional development activities that support them. Examples have been provided.

Table 8

Strengths, Weaknesses, and Related Activities

Domain	Strength	Related Activity
Develop skill (Hand)	I am good with and enjoy using computers	• Find ways to learn even more from colleagues • Join an online discussion

Domain	Weakness	Related Activity
Raise awareness (Heart)	I'm not sure what needs to be improved in my teaching	• Keep a journal • Ask a peer to observe me and observe a peer

Consider one's current stage of development. Before determining where to go, one must take stock of where one is. Questions to consider are: What is lacking in one's education or experience to move forward? What is needed in order to be regarded as a professional educator? A useful tool to determine the answer to these questions is a curriculum vitae, or CV. Samples of CVs can be found online. A CV contains a list of evidence that documents one's professional accomplishments and activities. Most CVs contain the following categories: formal education, teaching experience, presentations, publications, professional memberships, leadership positions in professional organizations, and professional services. Sharing one's CV with colleagues and asking for suggestions in terms of what to add or delete can be useful. One can also look for "gaps" or items not present that a potential employer may be looking for or items needed for an ideal position, and use this knowledge to create a professional development plan.

Surveys have shown that novice teachers are often more concerned with the "what and how" questions, such "What do I teach on Monday?" and "How do I get quiet students to participate more?" while more experienced teachers ask the bigger questions of "so what" and

"why" (see Richards & Lockhart, 1996). More experienced teachers might ask, "Why teach this way, and what difference will this course make to this student in the future?" Asking the big questions is important when considering who one wants to become as an educator. An important outcome of teacher or professional development is a renewed vision of the world and one's place in it. While it is impossible to produce final solutions to world problems, it is important to envision the world one hopes to create and consider what type of person is needed to sustain such a world. As educators, the task is to consider what type of learning experiences will help prepare students who will fashion such a world.

It is this vision and the process of re-envisioning that will help both faculty and students find hope when faced with the complexities and harsh realities of a world that is marked by glaring injustices and inequality. This process becomes both a starting and ending point of learning and development, for it encompasses that which impels one to start the journey (the vision), sustains one in it (hope), and can produce evidence of change once through it (responsibility and respect). Palmer's (2007) book, *The Courage to Teach*, is one that thousands of teachers have found to be useful in rekindling a passion for teaching, students, and the subject that one teaches. Palmer speaks about teaching who one is and exploring one's inner-self, finding an integrity which can sustain teachers. Thus, questions of not only where one is, but who one is, why one is teaching, and who benefits from it can be compelling inquires that help one chart a course in professional development.

Select long-term and short-term goals. One's strengths and weaknesses, one's journey thus far, who one wants to become, and one's professional aspirations should be kept in mind when filling in Table 9 below. A long-term goal (7-10 years), three supporting short-term goals (2-5 years) that will help accomplish the long-term goal, the resources, obstacles, potential solutions, and deadlines for each can be listed. What sources of funding may be available to help accomplish these goals? Who might be interviewed to find out how they accomplished their professional goals? What support groups or networks can be used to help ensure the plan will not be abandoned?

Table 9

Goals, Resources, Obstacles, Solutions, and Deadlines

Long-Term Professional Goal	Resources	Obstacles	Solutions	Deadlines
PhD in Applied Linguistics	PhD colleagues	No funding	Loans? Scholarships?	2021

Short-Term Professional Goals	Resources	Obstacles	Solutions	Deadlines
1. Identify programs	Online search	Too many to sort through	Keep notes of best options	2013 spring
2. Create finance plan	Mentor or university staff	Not aware of options	Email universities	2013 fall
3. Complete application	Colleagues	Writing a good essay	Ask colleagues to help edit	2014 spring

A final and important overarching consideration is whether the plan allows one to maintain and sustain a balanced social and family life. Cohen (2003) discusses the importance of nurturing relationships with friends and family when planning career goals.

Conclusion

This paper has argued for the importance of professional development, discussed several reasons why teachers might make it a priority, and provided numerous examples of how it can be

accomplished in spite of limited resources. It has outlined possible steps for language educators to take to create a professional development plan based on a reflective approach on one's practice, specific context, and personal goals.

I will conclude with a personal anecdote. After one of my very first TESOL presentations, entitled *Ten Communicative Projects to Energize Listening / Speaking Classes*, a woman rushed up to me with a pen and paper in hand and said, "I am so sorry, but I came in late. What was the name of your book again?" I was stunned by her question, because she obviously thought I had written a book. But I started thinking, well, why not? If she thinks I could write a book, then maybe I really can. On the plane home, I made a long list of possible titles for "my book," and some years later, it really happened. Those ten activities became ten chapters, and Cambridge published that book, which was on the market for over a decade. I don't know who that woman was, but she launched me on my professional journey. Sometimes all we need is someone to believe in us, someone who plants a seed of possibility that takes root and grows. So I put it to you: What's the name of your book?

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Supporting Self-Directed Learning:
A Framework for Teachers

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The language learning process is a complicated one, and
although classroom study forms the backbone of this process for
many learners, motivated students will also engage in their own
language study independent of the teacher. This paper
examines four aspects of the learning process that self-directed
learners are generally understood to be able to navigate:
planning, implementing, monitoring, and evaluating; it then
suggests ways in which teachers can foster these abilities in the
language learning classroom. By teaching specific strategies for
different learning tasks, encouraging reflection and self-analysis,
and raising learners' awareness of their own learning processes
in addition to features of the language they are studying,
teachers can help learners to assume more responsibility for
their own learning, and thus to become more effective language
learners.

In order to be successful, most language learners will have to engage
in independent study to some degree to master a language; the growth
of self-access centres in institutions around the world is a reflection of
the importance of this process. Institutions and managers have realised
that learners can only reach their full potential when they have the
flexibility to study according to their own needs, learning styles, and
interests, and that classroom-based learning scenarios are only a small
part of the overall process of learning a foreign language. Of those
learners serious about mastering a language, even those who do not
have access to a state-of-the-art resource centre will likely be engaging
in their own self-directed study, independent of their class work or
homework set by the teacher. This willingness to seek out their own
learning opportunities and engage with the language on their own
terms is a common theme seen in studies of identified "Good Language
Learners" (Griffiths, 2008). Such good language learners often develop
very effective strategies which help them make considerable progress

in their language learning; however, for every successful, motivated, independent learner, there are many others who, despite their efforts, struggle to make meaningful progress or experience problems with self-motivation and lack of confidence in their study strategies.

In these circumstances, the role of the teacher is vital. By providing support and guidance for learners, teachers can help their students develop the skills to be successful self-directed learners with clear goals, appropriate resources, and effective learning strategies. This paper aims to provide a framework to help teachers support their learners in developing autonomous learning skills which can enhance their language learning both inside and outside the classroom. It draws on the experience of the author, a Learning Advisor in a Self Access Learning Centre in Japan, in encouraging learners to analyse their own situations and develop the skills to be able to take full control of their own learning process. While a self access centre in which learners are aware of the need to make their own decisions about their learning may be an ideal environment for learners to engage in such analysis, classroom teachers can also foster independent learning skills in their students in a similar fashion by incorporating simple activities into their lessons and encouraging self-analysis during classroom tasks.

Literature Review

Self-Directed Learning: An Overview

The concept of self-directed learning first came to prominence within the field of adult education in the 1970s and is closely associated with learner autonomy, an area of research which has received increasing attention over the last two decades. It is now generally accepted that autonomous learners, that is, learners who are willing to assume more control over the learning process, will be more engaged, and that the decisions the learners make about learning will lead to more focused and effective study. References to learner autonomy can now be found in most published textbooks, and it is a stated aim on many language courses around the world, regardless of teaching and learning contexts. Existing definitions of autonomy are, however, often vague, and of limited usefulness for classroom teachers wanting to foster or even assess this aspect of their learners' development. According to Holec, an autonomous learner has the "the ability to take charge of one's learning" (1981, p. 3), but it is unclear as to exactly what "take charge" should mean, especially in many classroom contexts in which much of the control over learning content and activities are in the hands of the teacher. To complicate matters further, Nunan (1997) highlights that autonomy is not a characteristic or even a permanent state, that learners may be more or less autonomous at different times

and as regards different areas of their learning, and that learner variables such as personality, cultural context, and prior educational experiences will affect the degree to which learners may be willing or able to become more autonomous in learning. This presents a further challenge to teachers wishing to help learners develop these skills in a classroom environment.

Dickinson (1987) offers clear definitions of a number of terms surrounding autonomy which many other researchers and practitioners have a tendency to use interchangeably. Under the banner of self-instruction, "when a learner, with others, or alone, is working without the direct control of a teacher" (1987, p. 9), Dickinson distinguishes between *self-directed* and *autonomous* learning, with self-direction being one step on the path to full autonomy as a learner. He defines self-directed learning as a state in which the learner is fully in control of the decision-making process regarding the learner's own learning and accepts full responsibility for it, but "will probably seek expert help and advice" (1987, p. 12). This may mean that the learner chooses to study in a teacher-led environment or chooses to undertake and manage all learning tasks independently, in which case the learner would be regarded as fully *autonomous*, or any variation of these two extreme positions. For the purposes of this paper, the term self-directed learning is preferred over autonomous learning to emphasise the validity of a student choosing to undertake more traditional classroom study and to recognize the importance of the role of the teacher to many learners who are just beginning to take control of their own learning. Students who realize their own limits in certain situations and choose to seek guidance from teachers are nonetheless being self-directed; this decision-making process should be acknowledged and respected, despite being neglected by most definitions of learner autonomy.

Self-directed learning is also often closely associated with the field of self-access learning, although Dickinson (1987) points out an important distinction between the two terms. Self-access learning is a description of the way in which resources are organized and may be self- or other-directed, although many learners choosing to use self-access resources are likely to have assumed at least a degree of control over the decisions made regarding their learning. Self-directed learning is, however, equally possible without the provision of self-access centres or a great mass of learning resources. Accounts of good language learners (Griffiths, 2008; Rubin & Thompson, 1994) provide numerous examples of self-directed learning behaviour from learners with few physical resources available to them.

The Role of the Teacher in Self-Directed Learning

One persistent myth about self-directed learning is that it necessarily involves the teacher becoming redundant. This could not be further from the truth, with various studies highlighting the different, but equally important roles teachers or other professionals can play in helping students develop the skills to become more self-directed in their learning (Dam, 1995; Karlsson, Kjisik, & Nordlund, 2007; Little, 1991). The main tenet of this paper is that the teacher has a vital role to play in this process, and that considerable steps towards greater learner autonomy in self-directed learning can be made through simple adaptations to classroom activities or the inclusion of short discussions and reflections.

Literature on preparing learners for more independent learning emphasises that to become truly self-directed, a number of different kinds of preparation are needed: methodological, psychological, and social / political. Holec's oft-cited definition of autonomy refers mainly to methodological decisions that learners must be able to make (1981, p. 3), such as determining objectives, selecting resources, monitoring the learning process, and evaluating what has been learned. Little's (1991) definition pays added attention to the cognitive or psychological aspects of preparation that learners require, such as the capacity for critical reflection. Benson (2001) adds to these elements the need for learners to have control over learning content, including not only what to learn, but also how they learn, thus introducing a social and political element that educators hoping to foster autonomy must also address.

These three kinds of preparation for self-directed learning may seem to place a heavy burden on already busy teachers, but Dickinson (1992) highlights ways in which these aspects can be incorporated into the classroom without significant disruption. He identifies six different roles for teachers in developing learners' independence. As part of the psychological training, teachers must legitimize independent learning by showing that they approve of more self-directed learning behavior. Teachers must also help learners adjust to new roles for both learners and teachers by convincing learners that they are capable of successfully making their own learning decisions. On a methodological level, teachers must also provide opportunities for increased independence in the classroom through introducing elements of student choice into the curriculum and language tasks, developing learners' language awareness, and sharing their own knowledge of language learning to help learners solve learning problems effectively. Teachers can also help learners develop learning strategies through awareness raising, explicit instruction, and provision of opportunities for strategy use (1992, p. 2-3). By incorporating this degree of choice

into the curriculum, Benson's (2001) social and political aspect of the process can also be addressed.

One of the main roles of the teacher in developing greater independence in learners is often seen as that of learning strategy instructor (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). The field of language learning strategies has gained much attention in recent years. Various attempts have been made to describe and categorise different learning strategies (Chamot, Barnhardt, Beard El-Dinary, & Robbins 1999; Oxford, 1990), or organize them into hierarchies (McDonough, 1999), but no consensus has yet been widely agreed on. By introducing strategy instruction and integrating it with language instruction, teachers can help to develop their learners' capacity to be self-directed. Chamot et al. (1999) propose a model of language learning that requires four metacognitive processes: planning, monitoring, problem-solving, and evaluating; they assign their strategies to one or more of these areas, suggesting ways in which the strategies can be taught in a classroom context. Chamot et al. (1999) emphasise the need for learners to have opportunities to try out strategies and to realize that they work, characterizing this as the most effective kind of instruction, a view also espoused by Dickinson (1992).

The literature clearly shows that to be successful, learners need some kind of training or preparation as they embark on self-directed learning, and that teachers are ideally placed to help learners develop the necessary skills. While practical or methodological concerns such as learning strategies are extremely important, without cognitive or psychological preparation such as that described by Little (1991) and Dickinson (1992), attempts to prepare students to take more control over their learning process may meet with less than complete success; any teacher looking to encourage effective self-directed learning should bear this in mind.

Self-Directed Learning in Practice: Four Phases

As the review of the literature has shown, there are a number of key skills which learners are able to employ if they successfully assume full control of the learning process. This section of the paper addresses these methodological aspects of self-directed learning, offering concrete ideas for teachers wishing to help their students develop these skills. To lend a degree of structure to the introduction of activities to help learners acquire these skills, four phases of a self-directed learning cycle were identified and are used as a basic framework. These have been developed and adapted from Holec's (1981) account of autonomy and Chamot et al.'s (1999) strategy inventory: planning, implementing, monitoring, and evaluating.

The central idea of reflection runs through all these phases. With less direct intervention from teachers to tell them where they may be going wrong, learners must make their own decisions based on critical reflection of their own situation. This requires a certain insight into the learning process, which a teacher can help them to develop. As the term *cycle* suggests, these four phases are in fact recursive, and learners fully aware of their learning process are unlikely to proceed through the steps in a linear manner without re-addressing some areas at some time. Nevertheless, such a framework is useful to bring some structure to the introduction of each phase and corresponding activities. By developing these skills, it is hoped that learners who choose to engage in study outside of the classroom will be more focused and thus more successful in their endeavours.

Planning

Analysing needs. Any account of self-directed learning will inevitably highlight the need for learners to plan what and how they are going to learn. Traditionally, this will start with a needs analysis. Needs analyses first became popular in the area of curriculum design (Munby, 1978), and it is now common practice for teachers or institutions to conduct a needs analysis with a class before finalizing the syllabus. In self-directed learning, the onus is on learners to analyze their own situation and decide on learning priorities. In the author's experience, this involves more than just looking at specific present or future needs for the language. Learners have to take into account their wants and interests. For self-directed learning to be successful, learners must be engaged and motivated. Where language wants and needs do not converge, learners who feel they must study strictly according to extrinsic needs when their real interests lie elsewhere may find their motivation for independent study lacking. By broadening the concept of a needs analysis to include wants and interests, learners can become aware of potential mismatches in their choices and be better placed to deal with them if they arise.

Appendix A is an example of a needs analysis questionnaire to be used with learners who are preparing for learning outside the classroom. Although a needs analysis traditionally takes the form of a questionnaire, this is not the only option available to teachers and learners. Equally useful may be a group discussion using similar questions to the questionnaire as prompts, although to get the full benefit from the discussion, learners should be encouraged to make a written record of what they talked about.

Analysing current skills. Once learners have determined which areas of language they want or need to focus on, the next step is to determine their current skill level. A learner who needs to be able to

deliver a formal presentation in English and thinks he needs to work on his pronunciation may in fact have no significant problems in this area. Instead, he may be lacking the academic vocabulary necessary to transition between sections of his talk. By determining his current level in the skills identified in the needs analysis, the learner can then choose specific areas of language on which to focus. This may be done by seeking teacher or peer feedback on written or spoken performance, or by completing a comprehension task in the case of reading or listening. If possible, a record of this activity should be kept to enable a smooth evaluation process once self-directed learning has been initiated.

Setting goals. When learners are able to analyse their own situation and current skill level, they are then able to set priorities and decide on specific goals for self-directed learning. Goal setting has been well-documented in existing literature (Cotterall & Murray, 2009; Dam, 1995; Karlsson et al, 2007) as a pivotal process in planning self-directed learning. Goal setting helps learners focus their study and break it down into manageable chunks. Learners may have one or two overall goals, but may also choose to set themselves more manageable weekly goals which will help them achieve their more general goals. This can have benefits for motivation, as by making noticeable progress towards a specific goal, learners are more likely to want to continue studying.

Choosing resources. Once learners have analysed their needs and set goals, they must also choose appropriate learning resources. Such resources may be one of two kinds: resources designed for language learning (textbooks, dictionaries, internet sites) or examples of authentic language use (newspapers, radio or TV programmes, podcasts, movies, proficient speakers of the language). In the case of the latter resource type, learners must also decide how they are going to use the chosen resources in a way that will help them achieve their goals. For this, it may be necessary for the teacher to model and have students experiment with certain learning strategies in class. It is important, however, that learners do not lose sight of their goals during this process; sometimes enthusiasm for a newly-found resource or strategy can throw learners off their goal focus.

Making a plan. Once the "what" and the "how" of the self-directed learning have been decided upon, it is useful for learners to make some kind of formal record of their plans. This could take the form of a simple record of goals set, a more detailed plan in which weekly goals, materials, and study activities are laid out, or even a learning contract signed by both the learner and teacher stating that the learner will engage in a certain kind of study for a set time each week or month.

Examples of a basic learning plan and a learning contract can be found in Appendices B and C.

Implementing

After completing a thorough planning process, learners are then ready to start implementing their plan. As Dickinson's (1987) definition suggests, self-directed learners may differ in the degree to which the implementation of their learning activities, as decided through the planning process, is regarded as autonomous. In many situations, learners may opt for a teacher-based form of instruction over more autonomous learning, in which they decide on their own materials and design their own study activities. In cases where learners do opt to work predominantly on their own or without specific teacher guidance, it is useful for a clear record of study to be kept. This is for two reasons. By keeping a record of the work they are doing, learners will build up a kind of portfolio that can give them a degree of satisfaction with the work they are doing and motivate them to continue. At the same time, this record can also aid with monitoring and evaluating their learning as they progress through their plan.

A learning record can be kept in a number of ways; learners should be encouraged to choose a method which suits their own preferences and the study they are doing. Some may choose a simple log of what has been studied and when, with titles of worksheets or chapters recorded, along with any test scores they may have. Others may prefer more detailed reflective diary entries. Examples of these kinds of recordkeeping can be found in Appendices D and E. Visual devices, such as graphs or charts of progress made in comprehension tasks or learners' level of satisfaction with their performance, may also be used (Cotterall & Murray, 2009).

Monitoring

Developing good monitoring skills involves encouraging both learners' self-awareness and their awareness of the language they are learning. Keeping detailed records of learning, as mentioned above, is vital to this process. In addition to the types of record-keeping introduced, Richards and Lockhart (1996) suggest several ways for teachers to monitor and reflect on their performance. Some of these methods, such as task observations or recordings, may also be suitable for students focusing on their own learning processes. Effective monitoring is the key to good self-directed learning and ensures the recursive nature of the cycle. Learners who fail to monitor their work may lose focus and waste time on study which does not sufficiently address the needs and goals they previously identified. Two types of

monitoring can be effective in self-directed language study: mid-task monitoring and study balance monitoring.

Mid-task monitoring. Learners should be encouraged to examine their study activity mid-task and ask themselves whether the resource or activity they have chosen is actually addressing their goal areas, and if necessary, change their study. For example, a resource chosen in the belief that it will help with academic listening may in fact prove to be more business-oriented. However, learners may be reluctant to give up halfway through a task, even if it is not as beneficial as they believe. Through successful monitoring, students will be able to focus clearly on their goals and avoid spending time on unhelpful activities or resources.

Study-balance monitoring. As any teacher versed in communicative methodology knows, learning a language requires more than just learning about the language. To be successful, students also need to have opportunities to *use* the language in context, and to *review* vocabulary and grammar learned, if they are to remember it for future use. Far too often, however, these important stages in the learning process are neglected in favour of pure study. By encouraging students to monitor their study balance, for example by working out what percentage of their weekly work has been Study, Use, or Review, teachers can raise awareness of which areas may be lacking.

These forms of monitoring can also be encouraged during classroom tasks. Learners can be asked to consider how the work they are doing in class relates to their own language goals and to identify whether a task is helping them to Study, Use, or Review language. In this way, they will be more likely to apply these concepts to their own self-directed study.

Another important aspect of monitoring that teachers can promote in the classroom is language awareness. Research has highlighted the importance of noticing in language learning (Robinson, 2006); by paying more attention to their own language input, be it grammar, vocabulary, or wider discourse or genre features, learners can maximize their own opportunities to acquire the language to which they are being exposed. Such activities could be introduced in class as guided discovery grammar or vocabulary activities (Thornbury, 2001).

Evaluating

The final process which is considered vital for successful self-directed learning is that of evaluating the learning and progress being made. Whereas the monitoring strategies described above primarily examine the learning process, evaluating is often more concerned with the product of that learning process. Evaluation generally takes place once learners have been undertaking self-directed study for a certain

period of time, usually at least a month. The main way in which an evaluation can be conducted is through a controlled comparison. This is only possible if learners have investigated and recorded their original skill level in their goal areas during the planning process and have kept a study record of the work they have been doing. For example, having made a recording of a conversation on a certain topic before starting their study, they may now decide to record a similar conversation and compare the two recordings. By comparing their level after engaging in some study with that of their skill before embarking on self-directed learning, learners can determine whether the way they have been learning has had the desired effect on their language proficiency in the focus area. If this turns out not to be the case, they will have to examine their study plan and change it to better fit their goals.

Evaluation can work equally well in the context of classroom activities, with teachers asking learners on completion of a task to evaluate their own performance and to suggest ways in which they could improve in the future. This is particularly useful if learners have the chance to re-do the task. By taking the time to introduce this element to a classroom task, learners can be more confident of their ability to do so during more self-directed learning.

By breaking down self-directed learning skills into this four-step framework, it is hoped that the process of becoming more self-directed will be more manageable for both students who wish to move in this direction and teachers who wish to help students do so. The clear framework can also aid teachers wishing to assess this aspect of their learners' development, as each of the four stages can be clearly evidenced through such aids as learning plans, reflective diaries and learning logs.

Challenges to Successful Self-Directed Learning

There are a number of issues which may represent a challenge to teachers or institutions aiming to help learners to become more self-directed. Teachers may not feel they have the class time to devote to helping learners organize their learning or may lack confidence in their ability to do so. However, many of the techniques introduced in this paper can be incorporated into existing classroom tasks, and may simply involve including short discussions where students can reflect on and share their ideas and experiences of learning. Learners and teachers themselves may also hold beliefs about language learning and the roles of the student and the teacher which make them resistant to the idea of students assuming more responsibility for their own learning (Dam, 2008; Little, 1991). As previously stated, psychological resistance to autonomy must be addressed, and learners must see the advantages of planning and monitoring their own learning if they are to

fully engage in the process. Some learners may choose to reject self-directed learning altogether; however, it is hoped that by introducing certain elements of self-directed learning into classroom activities, those learners who are motivated to learn outside the classroom will do so more effectively.

Conclusion

While each of the four phases introduced in this paper are very important for effective self-directed learning, learners need help if they are to succeed in planning, implementing, monitoring, and evaluating their own learning. By explicitly introducing these aspects of the learning process to learners, and providing opportunities for learners to experiment with them, teachers can play an important role in supporting learners engaging in self-directed learning and developing autonomy as language learners.

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Appendix A
Example of a Needs Analysis Questionnaire

Study Analysis

Wants, Interests, Needs (WIN)

1. What are your English Wants,

     Interests,

     Needs?

2. What kind of English do you need for these situations? (e.g., spoken / written, formal / informal, technical vocabulary)

Goal Setting

Look at the kinds of English you've identified above (2). Which of these are the most important for you to improve? (Think about your own strong / weak areas, how important each aspect is, how much work you think you need to do to improve.)

3. Rank your most important ideas in order of priority:
    1) _____
    2) _____
    3) _____

These are your **language goals**. Now SMARTEN them up – make sure they are:

Specific
Measurable
Attainable
Realistic
Timely

Choosing Learning Materials

4.   How do you think you learn best? Circle all that apply to you.

finding rules   learning rules   repeating   writing things down
testing yourself   reading   translating   role-play / practicing
doing grammar exercises   speaking
listening / watching (TV / other people) alone / with others

Mind your surroundings! Think about what English there is around you. (e.g., tourist brochures, newspapers & magazines, satellite TV, DVDs, novels, radio programmes, people!)

What English study resources do you have access to? Textbooks, dictionaries, Internet, teachers

How could you use these to help with your GOALS? Think about how you like to study.

5.   Choose 1 or 2 of these resources.
     Material 1: _____

     Material 2: _____

Planning Your Time

6.   How long do you need to reach your goals?
      _____ years / months / weeks

7.   How long can you REALISTICALLY spend on studying each week?
      _____ hours

Planning your weekly study:
Each week, ask yourself the following question:

                 What are you going to study this week? How?

Remember, good study should have a balance of **Study**
                                                  Use
                                                  Review

Before you start, check your current level for each of your goal areas. This will help you to see if you're improving over time. How can you find out? (e.g., word test, recording your speaking, writing sample, reading speed test)

Appendix B
Example of a Basic Learning Plan

Goal: _____

Focus area(s): _____

Resource(s): _____

_____

Now describe how you will use this resource for these goals. Include STUDY, USE, or REVIEW. Remember you can change the order of SUR, and repeat one or more of the areas if necessary.

Study / Use / Review	Time:
Study / Use / Review	Time:
Study / Use / Review	Time:

Appendix C
Example of a Learning Contract

_____'s Learning Contract with Mr / Ms _____

My English goals:

_____

_____

_____

_____

How I will study:

_____

_____

_____

_____

I, _____(name)_____ will spend _____ hours / minutes on these activities each week / month.
I will submit a weekly / monthly record of my work.
I will do my best to fulfill my obligations as presented in this contract.

Signed (student): _____   Date: _____

Signed (teacher): _____   Date: _____

Appendix D
Example of a Reflective Diary

Week One

1. Describe your learning goals for this week:

    _____

    _____

2. What materials did you use? Give details (title, URL etc.)

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

3. How did you study? (Give step-by-step details of what you did.)

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

4. Post-study reflection. What was successful about your study this week? What will you change in future? Give reasons for your choices.

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

Appendix E
Example of a Learning Log

Learning Log

Keep a record of all the independent study you do using this log sheet. Each time, please explain what you did and evaluate your activity.

Date	Time Spent	Materials	Evaluation / Comments
04/30/10	45 min. approx.	About a Boy (graded reader / DVD)	I watched the movie - but only a 10 minute scene. I chose a scene I really enjoyed but have had trouble understanding. Having a script (the graded reader) and some background information about the movie helped me. Because I am trying to build my vocabulary, I think it is good to study while reading and watching. I learned an interesting expression for everyday conversation: 'Cheers' which means "Thank you."

Plurilingualism in University English Classes: A Case Study from Timor-Leste

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Codeswitching between languages in English language classrooms has been disparaged by textbook writers, methodologists and educational policymakers in many countries. This paper reports an action research project which examined language use in English classes in Timor-Leste. The first aim was to identify the extent of codeswitching by audio-recording four lessons and the second to explore the teachers' attitudes in follow-up interviews. Transcript examples of codeswitching show that while one teacher used only English throughout the lesson, the others used varying amounts of Tetum, Portuguese, and Bahasa Indonesia. Extracts from interviews will report the teachers' views. The data suggests that plurilingualism rather than multilingualism is a more appropriate term for the use of different languages in the increasingly complex linguistic context in which English is taught in many Asian classrooms. The findings also support recent published arguments (e.g., Cook, 2010) for a more positive attitude towards plurilingual use in English language classrooms.

The paper begins with an explanation of the difference between multilingualism and plurilingualism (Canagarajah, 2009), and the implications this distinction has for plurilingual use in language classes.

This is followed by a brief review of recent literature outlining reasons for rejecting a monolingual approach to foreign language teaching, and outlining arguments and evidence in favour of the use of language alternation in language classes where plurilingual usage is a common social and educational phenomenon. The linguistic context and the aims and procedures of the present study are then explained before the presentation and discussion of examples of transcript data from audio-recordings of English language lessons. A quantitative analysis of the observational data of this study shows that in this particular context, the extent of plurilingual usage by English language instructors varies from zero to more than 50% of the lesson. Moreover, in some cases, elements of three or four languages were incorporated, even within one utterance. Some of the views of the teachers expressed in semi-structured interviews are provided to indicate the range of beliefs about the value of mono- or plurilinguistic practices held by teaching staff within one department. Evidence from these interviews suggests very strongly that the extent of plurilingualism depends on the beliefs of the teachers concerned, rather than on national language policies or decisions made by senior management. The paper concludes with recommendations for teachers to undertake action research projects to explore their own classrooms in order to develop a principled approach to language use.

Plurilingualism and English Language Teaching

Multilingualism may be seen as the distinct use of different languages within a speech community; an example of this is the diglossic situation found in Eastern Malaysia, where speakers often use an indigenous language such as Bidayuh in complementary distribution to the national language, Bahasa Melayu (Dealwis, 2007; Dealwis & David, 2009). Such multilingual competence may be regarded as additive or subtractive; in the latter case, one language dominates another to the linguistic and sociocultural detriment of the dominated language and its users. By contrast, *plurilinguistic competence* is perceived as where two or more languages are integrated into an individual's personal repertoire. Thus, "[i]n plurilingual communication, English may find accommodation in the repertoire of a South Asian, combining with his or her proficiency in one or more local language" (Canagarajah, 2009, p. 7) and each language influences the other's development. Canagarajah also distinguishes plurilingualism from codeswitching, arguing that the latter "assumes bilingual competence, displaying considerable rhetorical control by the speaker" (2009, p. 8), whereas plurilingualism can be practised without bilingual competence.

This is precisely the case in Timor-Leste, where Tetum and Portuguese are the official languages and English and Bahasa Indonesia

are constitutionally designated as working languages. According to The Asia Foundation (2004, p. 86), 88 percent of East Timorese people speak Tetum, 49 percent speak Indonesian, and "Portuguese is spoken by only seven percent of the public, mostly older, educated, higher income and in Dili." The Asia Foundation also reports that only one percent of respondents in the foundation's third national survey in 2002 said that they could read English (2004, p. 87), although it may be inferred that the use of English might be greater among the more educated groups, and also that English may have become more widespread in the years since the survey was carried out. With regard to the medium of education, Hattori, Gomes, Ajo, and Belo (2005, p.10) claim that "the government dictates that the language of instruction should be Portuguese, but teachers are often of the younger generation that has little Portuguese proficiency, having been taught under the Indonesian occupation" and recent empirical research in primary classrooms bears this out. Quinn (2008, 2010) has shown that neither teachers nor learners can use Portuguese proficiently and that there are insufficient pedagogic materials in Tetum; thus both parties resort to co-constructing understanding plurilingually, blending all the available languages, including varieties of Tetum and other indigenous languages. In some of these languages, both teachers and students will be fully competent, but in others - notably Portuguese, as noted above - their grasp is tenuous. As will be presented below, similar patterns of plurilingual co-construction can also be found in university English-language classes in Timor-Leste.

While alternating between languages is a very common social phenomenon in multilingual countries, the use of students' first languages in English language classrooms has tended to be frowned on by textbook writers, methodologists, and educational policymakers in many countries. The exclusive use of the target language has dominated English language teaching methodology for over a century, since the rejection in theory (but usually not in practice) of Grammar-Translation, and its replacement, successively, by the Direct Method, Audiolingualism, and Communicative Language Teaching. Mainstream Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research over the past forty years has consistently conducted experiments using only the target language, assuming the rightness of monolingual teaching and discounting the value of the use of other languages. Only two empirical SLA studies which explore the value of translation in language learning have been internationally published: one by Källkvist (2004, 2008) and another by Laufer and Girsai (2008).

However, there has been a resurgence of publications arguing that codeswitching in English language instruction can be socially, pedagogically, and educationally valuable (e.g., Antón & DiCamilla,

1998; Gumperz & Cook-Gumperz, 2005; Macaro, 2005, 2009a; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). Vivian Cook (2001) has argued that "treating the L1 as a classroom resource opens up several ways to use it" both by the teacher to convey meaning and organise the class, and by the students to incorporate into collaborative learning and to develop their personal learning strategies. More recently, Guy Cook (2010, p. 201) has argued that claims for monolingual teaching are "quintessentially unscientific for a number of reasons." He makes the point that "translation can help and motivate students in a variety of pedagogical contexts . . . [and] is suited to different types of teachers, and different ages and stages of students" (2010, p. xvii). Almost twenty years ago, Widdowson (1994) argued that monolingual methods of teaching English have excessively privileged the status of teachers who are first language users of English, a matter which has given rise to organisations which have sought to redress the imbalance such as the Nonnative Speaker Movement (Braine, 2010). From a wider perspective, Phillipson (1992) pointed to the connection between linguistic imperialism and the hegemony of monolingual teaching of English. Since then, he has continued to argue that the overwhelming dominance of English has led the "deplorable neglect" (Phillipson, 2009, p. 207) of indigenous languages in academic discourse as well as a pandemic threat to academic freedom. Thus, there are convincing reasons for the use of codeswitching in foreign language classes, and these are especially cogent in the increasingly multilingual world of the twenty-first century.

The Present Study

As part of an internal academic development programme, a number of action research projects were started during 2009 at the Universidade Nacional Timor Lorosa'e, one of which is the present ongoing study. The aims of the initial phase of the project, reported here, were to explore the extent to which different languages were being used in the English Department classes and the reasons the lecturers gave for their language use. The overall language policy of the institution has been that Portuguese should be used as the medium of instruction in all faculties except Medicine, where for historical reasons the classes have been taught in Spanish, and the English Department, whose main purpose is the initial training of English language teachers for the nation's secondary schools and for which English has been considered the appropriate medium of instruction. In fact, the institution was closed down for five months in 2009 so that all staff, including the English lecturers, could attend intensive courses in Portuguese.

The four classes which were observed were intact lessons towards the beginning of the sixth semester, i.e., at start of the third year of

their four-year programme. There were approximately forty students in each class, and the lessons were taught by their regular teachers, who were also members of the project team.

Data were collected in two ways: firstly, by observing four normal lessons taught in the course of a single week towards the beginning of the second semester by members of the research group, and secondly by semi-structured interviews with the observed teachers to elicit their reactions to the observational findings. The audio-recorded lessons were fully transcribed and the data have been quantitatively analysed to calculate the extent of talking time in different languages, and by classifying examples of plurilingual usage. It might be noted here that the project team had assumed that there would be a fairly consistent use of both Tetum and English across all four lessons, but were surprised by the disparity within the eventual findings.

The Observational Data

In Table 1 below, each of the four teachers has been identified by an initial, and it can be seen that the length of the intact classes they taught ranged from 40 to 80 minutes, with an average of just over one hour. Typical of language classes, a lot of talking went on in most of the lesson – a mean of 84%. There was an above-average proportion of silence in Teacher C's reading lesson and consequently proportionally less teacher talking time (TTT). In the other three classes, there was much more teacher-talk, and an overall average of 60%, which is very much in line with empirical research into classroom interaction elsewhere - indeed, according to Wragg (1999, p. 8), ever since a very early observational study (Stevens, 1912), which found that in 100 random observations of lessons, teachers talked for about 64% and pupils for 36% of the time.

Table 1

Tabulated Classroom Interaction Data

	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D	Range	Mean
Class time (min)	80' 0"	79' 21"	39' 50"	67' 30"	40 – 80	60.7
Silence (%)	9.0	7.0	40.5	10.0	7 - 40.5	16.0
Total TTT (%)	47.5	91.0	31.5	69.0	32 - 91	60.0
Total STT (%)	43.5	2.0	28.0	21.0	2 - 44	24.0
TTT English (%)	100.0	36.0	60.0	71.5	36 - 100	67.0
TTT Tetum (%)	-	61.0	29.0	25.0	0 - 61	29.0
TTT Bahasa Indonesia (%)	-	2.5	1.0	3.0	0 - 3	1.6
TTT Portuguese (%)	-	0.5	4.0	0.5	0 - 4	1.25
TTT unintell (%)	-	-	6.0	-	6.0	6.0

What is interesting is the disparity among the teachers of their use of languages other than English. Teacher A used exclusively English, while all the others used varying proportions of Tetum, Bahasa Indonesia, and Portuguese. Teacher B used almost twice as much Tetum as English, and both Teachers C and D spoke Tetum at least 25% of the time. As can be seen, Bahasa Indonesia or Portuguese were used to some extent, and some of Teacher C's utterances were unintelligible. Before the teachers' views on their use of these languages are reported, we will present some of the examples of the ways in which they alternated between languages.

Codeswitching in the data from Teachers B, C, and D was frequently used for brief repetition of explanations or instructions either from English to Tetum, as in Extract A, or from Tetum to English, as in Extract B. The italicised words in parentheses are direct translations of the previous utterance in Tetum.

Extract A:

    T: . . . ya translate ba Tetum (*translate into Tetum*) and find out the meaning. Which part of speech? ida be metan ne'e tenser translate ba Tetum depois ita boot sira (*those words in black colour please translate into Tetum and then you*) pronounce orally, arti ba Tetum ne'e saida (*what it means in Tetum*). (Teacher C: minutes 05'37" to 05'50")

Extract B:

    T: Se la kumpriende karik husu pergunta. If you don't understand, ask question (Teacher C: minutes 07'48" to 07'50")

Another use was to explain grammatical points in more detail:

Extract C:

    T: OK, we move on. "A friendly writer, a writer taught me a few words of Italian." OK. What type of sentence? You. What can you tell us?
    S: Um. Past
    T: Yep
    S: Past. Simple past
    T: Simple past. How do you know?
    S: Because the
    T: What is the key for a verb?
    S: Oh
    T: Yeah. Taught. What is simple present?
    S: teach some
    T: I teach someone. I taught someone. All right? So that's the key, OK? Ne'e mak imi tenki hatene, setiap kaliamat, setiap sentence, imi atu halo definisaun nebe klaro, imi tenki hare mak nia vervo. Kumprende ga lae? Vervo importante, vervo imi tenki hatene. (*This is what you need to know that if you want to understand a clear definition of every sentence, you must look for the verbs. You understand or not? Verbs are very important and you must know the verbs.*) Regular verb, and . . . ?
    Ss: Irregular verb
    T: Regular tanba beraturan (*because it is in order*) . . .
    (Teacher C: minutes 16'12" to 17'17")

There were also appeals to students to help each other, and it may be argued that the use of Tetum in the following extract was intended to establish a sense of personal and social solidarity with, and among, the students.

Extract D:

> T: I'll give it to you - two copies - but please make your own group to help each other out. You may copy some items. I believe you, almost all of you, are working but any case some of you are not working or working but with low income, small salary, tiny salary, please help each other. Importante ema aprende laos hanesan balu lalehan ho rai kedas balu as lalimar matenek lahalimar, balu rabat rai sei dollar hela ne'e labele. Istuda hamutuk ne'e iha nia dimesaun social tulun malu tanba se mak hatene hodi tulun malu, o agora matenek loron ruma o hetan . . . monu ba susar ruma nia bele tulun o. *(The important thing is to learn and help each other not to become arrogant. Therefore studying together as group has a social dimension and it is a social act to help one other, not to compete against one another.)* You may laugh at it, you may ridicule it, but it, it, that's the reality I think. We need to work together, we need to talk to each other. So, for those who have, please - give. Because the more you get the more you get and the more you get the more you give. Komik ga lae, (Is it that funny?) ema Belanda nia provervo ne'e hanesan (the Dutch proverb says) the more you give the more you get. (Teacher B: minutes 12'10" to 13'47")

The above extracts exemplify the use of codeswitching between utterances. There were many more examples of plurilingual codemixing *within* utterances using combinations of all four available languages: Tetum (T), Bahasa Indonesia (I), and Portuguese (P), as well as English (E).

1. *Ida metan ne'e tenke (T) translate (E) ba Tetum (T).*
   [Translate the bold words into Tetum.]

2. *Single (E) ida (T) means (E) ida katak (T) single (E) ida (T).*
   ["Single" means one, one single means "*one.*"]

3. *Oinsá (T) how languages change over time (E), ne'e ita ko'alia (T) …*
    [How, how languages change over time, we'll talk about
    this …]

4. *Imi taka tiha sorin (T) hmm? Close the other side (E). Se lae imi bele*
    (T) copy (E) de'it (T).
    [Cover up the other side, eh? Close the other side.
    Otherwise you could just copy the answers.]

5. *Okay (E), wainhira iha (T) kata (I) ne'ebé iha livru laran (T) always,*
    usually sometimes (E) ida ne'e uza parte (T) simple present tense (E).
    [Okay, if you find words like "always," "usually" "sometimes"
    in a book, it's usually simple present.]

Sometimes any two of the four available languages were alternated
within an utterance:

6. *You (E) ketua (I)!*
    [It should be, you, chairman! (humorous)]

7. *… begitu (I) ita dehan (T) …*
    [once we say …]

8. *Em termo de (P) meaning (E),…*
    [In terms of meaning, …]

9. *… setelah (I) ita haree ida-ne'e sa'ida maka ita (T) menarik*
    kesimpulan (I) hosi ne'eba konkluzaun si ne'ebá (T)
    [… after a closer look at this, we can draw the conclusion
    from there, the conclusion from there]

The following examples show how three languages were merged
within an utterance:

10. *Haree (T) verbo (P) iha(T) kolom (I) nia laran ne'e mak imi muda (T).*
    [Look at the verbs in the column and then change them.]

11. *Spoil (E) iha mos (T) arti (I) rua (T).*
    ["Spoil" also has two meanings.]

12. *Irregular verb (E) selalu berbeda-beda (I). Hanesan (T) put put put …*
    (E)
    [Irregular verbs are always different, for instance "put put
    put" …]

13. *Ida ne'ebé (T) imprestar (P) ne'e bolu (T) borrow (E).*
    [The one who borrows is called borrow.]

14. *Submit (E) kedas (T) compriende (P), se la (T) finish (E)*
    [Submit it immediately, understand? If not, you're finished]

15. *Not Europa. What is Europa? (E) Europa e Portuguese (P).*
    Komprende ka lae? (T)
    [Not "Europa." What is "Europa"? "Europa" is a Portuguese
    word. Do you understand?]

Even in relatively short utterances, four languages are sometimes
merged:

16. *Ita foin tuur (T) lima-belas menit (I) quinze minutos (P). Ha'u laos (T)*
    karang-karang (I) de'it (T)!
    [We'll just sit down for 15 minutes. 15 minutes. I'm not
    just making it up!]

17. *Ne'e (T) noun (E) fatin (T) acontesemento (P), tkp (I – abbreviation*
    for tempat kejadian peristiwa).
    [This is a noun, meaning crime scene. Abbr. The place
    where the event happened.]

And here, multiple codeswitching is humorously taken to an extreme:

18. *Hanesan ne'e, wainhira (T) analisa (P) didiak (T), masalahnya apa (I).*
    La iha probleme (T), no problem (E), nao tem problema (P), hakuna
    matata (Swahili)!
    [Likewise, if we analyze this carefully, what looks like a
    problem is not a problem at all. No problem, no problem, no
    problem, don't worry about it!]

Tetum incorporates many loan words, and according to Teacher D,
"Officially, Tetum Dili has about 60% of its vocabulary borrowed from
Portuguese." Whereas Tetum is an isolating language, in the data
shown above, the following items can be fairly easily identified as
Portuguese because they are inflected: *em termo de* in Extract 8, *verbo* in

10, *imprestar* in 13, *compriende* in 14, *quinze minutos* in 16, *acontesemento* in 17, and *analisa* and *problema* in 18.

However, there are less direct examples: for example, in Extract 15 (*Komprende ka lae?*), the Portuguese word has been incorporated into Tetum both graphologically and syntactically, as has *La iha probleme* in Extract 18. The same may be said about *ne'ebé iha livru laran* in Extract 5, and *hosi ne'ebá konkluzaun hosi ne'ebá* in Extract 9 because both *livru* and *konkluzaun* derive from Portuguese - although the latter may well have been borrowed from English. Whatever the origins of these words, they seem to have been incorporated into the teachers' classroom language in order to facilitate interaction. As Canagarajah (2009, p. 17) points out, "Plurilingual communication works because competence does not rely solely on a form of knowledge, but rather, encompasses interaction strategies...In other words, participants have to engage with the social context, and responsively orchestrate the contextual cues for alignment."

There is no evidence in the observational data that the three teachers' plurilingual use caused any strained comprehension or miscomprehension among their students.

The Interview Data

In the follow-up interviews, the teachers expressed a variety of views about the languages they used in their classes. Teacher A, who used only English, argued that "Since it's the English Department, English should be used as much as possible . . . We need to get students in the habit of using English." He also added that "Students in this class are of a higher proficiency, since they are in the 6th semester and they will become English teachers, and lecturers must provide a model for students." In contrast, Teacher B (who taught the same students in a different lesson) said that "If I speak Tetum, students may be more comfortable to speak or participate in lessons." Also, despite the monolingual policy of the institution and department, he argued that

> we need to avoid linguistic imperialism by promoting and developing Tetum, which is an index of our national identity. Currently, Tetum is Number Two to Portuguese educationally - but I believe Tetum should be taught and used in all domains, including the English Department. (Teacher B)

Teacher C explained that "we are multilingual people, and so are our students and I use codeswitching for ease of understanding for students, for example contextual solutions to content." Economy of use is also a factor in choosing which language to use; for example, he

added, "to say the number 1999, English is easy to use [*nineteen ninety-nine*], but in Indonesian or Portuguese one has to say 'one thousand, nine hundred . . .' etc." Teacher D echoed the first point above by saying "I feel it's easy for students," and said that he repeated words or phrases in other languages, for socialising, humour (it was he who included a Swahili phase in Extract 18), or to keep the students' attention.

> Sometimes students haven't eaten breakfast or lunch before class, it's hot, and the classroom is uncomfortable, etc. It's very important that teachers find ways to engage students if they want their teaching to be successful. Also, teachers often repeat words / phrases in a few languages to ensure students' understanding. (Teacher D)

Because he is a multilingual speaker himself, Teacher D explained that "codemixing just comes out automatically because it's the way I think." Although Teacher B is competent in Portuguese, he used that language sparingly, explaining

> I read Phillipson and Canagarajah (as well as Calvet) and I feel that it's good to use Tetum not to resist English but Portuguese, and to show that there is something wrong with our language policy and planning. I believe that it's not languages that kill each other but it's the policymakers and politicians who do the damage. (Teacher B)

Teacher C used Portuguese somewhat more frequently, and when asked why this might be, he said "I feel comfortable speaking Portuguese when I need to." When asked about the extent of his codeswitching, Teacher D replied, "This is a dilemma because should one borrow from Indonesian, English, or Portuguese? Also, *which* Tetum should be spoken? Officially, Tetum Dili has about 60% of its vocabulary borrowed from Portuguese."

This raises another point - that the national language, Tetum, has a number of varieties, and the one used in the capital city is in many ways distinctly different from those used in other areas of the country. As Teacher D said, while the Dili variety incorporated a large number of lexical items from Portuguese, this would not be true of varieties spoken in rural areas; those closer to the border with Indonesia are more heavily influenced by Bahasa. These varieties, of course, are the results of historical as well as geographical factors, and languages do not stand still. The growing number of English-speaking workers, military and police personnel, and aid agents in Timor-Leste will

undoubtedly enhance the impact of the English language on the future development of Tetum. Thus, while many Timorese students are indeed users of different languages, their competence in any of the codes will be variable and unstable; for example, their spoken and aural competence in Portuguese is less than that of their teachers - as, of course, is their competence in English. The present cadre of teachers learnt English as a third or fourth (or fifth) language and were themselves educated in Bahasa Indonesia. Future generations of teachers will not have the same productive competence in that language, although it is likely that their reading skills in Bahasa will be maintained until the majority of school and university textbooks are produced in one or the other (or both) of the official languages. Which variety of Portuguese or Tetum will become standardised in the education system remains to be seen. Given this inevitably unstable linguistic situation, plurilingualism rather than multilingualism is likely to be an enduring feature of life, work, and education in Timor-Leste.

What emerges from these interviews is that all of the teachers had reasonable grounds for their respective positions. Teacher A not only strictly adhered to the department's language policy, but also explained that he considered the students in his class were sufficiently competent in the target language to follow exclusive English-medium instruction. In strong contrast to this pedagogical point, Teacher B (teaching many of the same students) adduced political reasons for using Tetum in his class, and did so to clearly express his sociopolitical views to the class. The other two teachers alternated between available languages on pragmatic, rather than principled, grounds. They pointed out that plurilingualism was a normal communicative practice for them and their students, both inside and outside the classroom, and switching between languages simply made classroom interaction easier. To the extent that these teachers' explanations for their respective language use can be considered reasonable, the question arises as to whether it is necessary for teachers to strictly conform to any institutional language policy, whether monolingual or otherwise. Apart from the possibility of a threat to the academic liberty of university lecturers to teach in the way they consider best, it should be clear that the issue of effective teaching should be based not on the specific medium of instruction which is adopted, but on how teachers and learners use whichever language to enhance the quality of learning that occurs in and beyond the classroom.

Reflections and Implications

There are inevitably a number of limitations of a small-scale action research project such as this: only four classes and their teachers were

observed (and the latter group interviewed) at a particular time in one institutional setting. Despite these limitations, some interesting data were systematically collected and the findings carefully analysed. Only one of the four teachers held to a strictly English-only practice in his classroom, while the others used four languages to a greater or lesser extent.

We do not feel that there is actually a problem in regard to the specific issue of plurilingual use in our classrooms. As Canagarajah says "plurilingual competence does not mean that students cannot produce 'standard' language for formal production when the context requires it" (2009, p. 20). Rather, teachers and students should call upon their various linguistic resources to negotiate meaning to achieve this aim - a point made strongly by both Vivian Cook (2001) and Guy Cook (2010). After all, second and foreign language classrooms, like any other, are intended to promote meaningful learning and the exclusive use of the target language may hinder the negotiation and co-construction of understanding. It seems to us that teachers should use their professional judgment about which language(s) to use, and for what purposes, in the classroom in order to bring about optimal learning conditions for their students. If the teachers' judgments and alternative views can be openly and collegially discussed - although not necessarily shared - they could and should inform language policies, at least at the local level. As was noted earlier, the official institutional policy has been that students in the English Department should use exclusively English both in the classroom and across the campus; this policy has now been somewhat relaxed.

Participating in the action research project opened our eyes to the nature of language use in our classrooms and of our colleagues, and the various reasons given for both monolingual and plurilingual usage. More importantly, perhaps, it gave us an opportunity in our busy professional lives to understand the extent of convergence and divergence of beliefs and practices among us. As in many other relatable contexts across Asia, most of the English lecturers in East Timor work part-time at the university and need to seek employment elsewhere in order to maintain a reasonable standard of living. This means that it is difficult to meet to collaboratively discuss professional issues to maintain an effective community of practice (Wenger, 1998) within which colleagues can share experiences, learn from each other, and co-construct practical solutions to professional issues. We feel that this action research project and others, which were going on at the same time, have enabled us to maintain momentum in our emerging community of practice so that we can continue to identify problematic areas within our working context and explore possible solutions.

One of the implications of empirically-based projects such as this is the need for teachers to become aware of their plurilinguistic practices - and those of their students - and to understand and explain the reasons for their choice of language(s) within and beyond their own classrooms. Engaging in such reflective practice (Farrell, 2004, 2007) and conducting modest and collaborative action research projects can empower the teachers involved (Burns, 1999, 2011). In this way, individuals may feel justified in either maintaining or revising their own classroom language practices - whether monolingual or plurilingual. Collectively, a group of teachers can decide their own standards based upon empirical investigation in their own classrooms and the growing body of evidence from case studies elsewhere (e.g., Barnard, in press; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009) as well as recent theoretical arguments by scholars such as Canagarajah (2009) and Macaro (2005, 2009a, 2009b, 2009c). Thus armed, teachers can engage the institutional policymakers in constructive dialogue about the optimal balance between monolingual and plurilingual pedagogy within their specific contexts.

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Use of the Mother Tongue in Teaching a Foreign Language

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This article addresses the controversy around teacher use of the mother tongue (MT) in foreign language (FL) teaching. Empirical and theoretical knowledge advocates that the MT should be incorporated by teachers in FL classrooms. The present study was conducted among 112 English language teachers in Hebrew-speaking elementary and secondary schools in Israel. The research tool was a questionnaire designed specifically for the purpose of the study. Findings demonstrate that teachers' overall attitude towards MT use in FL classrooms is positive; they report using the MT for teaching purposes and a small number use the MT for classroom management purposes. Elementary and secondary school teachers differ in their use of the MT. Findings may be useful to language education policy-makers in designing more formal and concrete guidelines to help FL teachers use students' MT judiciously. The article offers a model for an efficient use of the MT in FL classrooms.

The question whether the students' mother tongue (MT) should be used in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms in Israel has been re-opened to controversy recently, after many years in which the MT was discouraged on pedagogical grounds in the teaching of foreign languages (FL). This situation exists in many other countries where English as a foreign language (EFL) is taught, given the processes of globalization worldwide, e.g., German as the MT in EFL lessons in German schools or Thai as the MT in EFL classrooms in Thailand. In the state of Israel, it was difficult in the past for teachers to incorporate Hebrew as the MT into EFL classrooms for two reasons: (a) Israel was founded by Jews who immigrated to Israel from all parts of the world; thus, many English teachers were newcomers and did not speak Hebrew themselves, and (b) classes were characterized by a multiplicity of MTs. However, later, when Hebrew became a commonly spoken language for more teachers and students alike,

teachers often avoided using it in teaching because it was considered pedagogically inappropriate.

In Israel, EFL lessons start in Grade 2 or 3 of elementary school. Although most secondary school graduates speak English at different levels and may be exposed to English on the Internet and television, English is rarely heard or spoken on the streets.

This article addresses the controversy that revolves around the pedagogical appropriateness of teacher usage of students' MT in FL teaching. It presents findings from a study conducted among English teachers in a Hebrew-speaking environment: elementary and secondary schools in Israel.

Literature Review
Change of Attitudes Over Time Towards the Use of the MT

For over 120 years, the prevailing attitude in FL teaching has been anti-MT and discouraging of the use of students' MT in language teaching (Cook, 2001). The main principle of FL teaching was monolingual or intra-lingual, rather than cross-lingual (Cook, 2001). The prevailing method of instruction was the Direct Method, which did not encourage the use of comparative analysis between the MT and the FL. MT-free lessons were a "badge of honor" (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009, p. 24). Translation had pejorative overtones in teaching and was often avoided. Only more recently have researchers concluded that "translation provides an easy avenue to enhance linguistic awareness" (Cook, 2001). They recognized the importance of comparative analysis between the MT and the FL and that the FL does not aim at substituting for the MT. This paradigm shift to the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis has occurred recently (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Cummins, 2007) and indicates a welcoming attitude to teacher usage of students' MT in teaching. However, in practice, the "judicious and principled use" of MT (Turnbull, 2001, p. 536) remains an unresolved issue; teachers often feel guilty for straying from the path of teaching using only the FL and feel the use of the MT is professionally inappropriate (Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Swain, Kirkpatrick, & Cummins, 2011).

An example of how attitudes have changed over time can be seen in the *English Curriculum for All Grades* (Spolsky, Ben Meir, Inbar, Orland, Steiner, & Vermel, 2001), which refers to the usage of MT as an integral part of English language education. The curriculum consists of "four domains of language abilities and knowledge: social interaction, access to information, presentation [of information], and appreciation of literature, culture, and language" (p. 8). Appreciation of language in particular "is based on the principle that learning a new language

provides an ideal opportunity to become aware of the nature of language, how languages are structured, and the differences between languages" (p. 11). Thus, students can develop awareness into their own MT by the teacher's use of their MT in teaching EFL. Despite changes in attitude, the present curriculum does not provide clear-cut instructions with regard to the acceptable extent of teacher use of students' MT.

Arguments Against Teacher Use of Students' MT in FL Classes

Arguments against teachers using students' MT are mainly pedagogically based. Turnbull (2001), in his response to Cook (2001), mentions that students do not benefit when teachers over-rely on using their students' MT, particularly when the EFL teacher is the sole linguistic model and main source of FL input. Classroom situations can create various experiences for students such as real-life situations through simulations (McDonald, 1993); if the teacher uses the MT to a great extent, students may lose the chance to benefit from these situations. In addition, teachers who overuse their students' MT deprive these learners of an important language process in which students try to make sense of what is being said in class (Ellis, 1994). The use of the FL in class influences students' achievements and proficiency in FL because of the experiences they gain in class.

In addition to pedagogical factors, followers of the monolingual principle support the compartmentalized language pedagogy that inhibits the interdependent nature of the MT and the FL. Hence, they perceive the introduction of the MT in FL teaching as an inhibitive factor. The three assumptions of the monolingual principle in FL teaching as reflected in Howatt's (1984) history of teaching EFL are: (a) FL teaching should be done exclusively in the FL; (b) translation between the MT and the FL should be avoided; and (c) in bilingual programs, the two languages should be kept separate.

Arguments in Favor of Teacher Use of Students' MT in FL Classes

The issue of teacher use of students' MT in FL teaching has been explored with a variety of languages and mainly relates to the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis, to universal principles of foreign language acquisition, and multi-linguistic models. Studies on the transfer between the MT and the FL indicate a linguistic interdependence (Jessner & Cenoz, 2000) with regard to multiple subsystems (phonological, syntactic, semantic, and textual) within the MT and FL systems (Herdina & Jessner, 2002). Bouvy (2000) supported the theory of cross-linguistic transfer with regard to literacy skills. Similarly, Hauptman, Mansur, and Tal (2008) used a trilingual model for literacy skills among Bedouins in Israel whose MT is Arabic

and found that it "created a support system for Arabic, the mother tongue, through English [FL] and Hebrew [MT2]." Other researchers stated that the MT catalyzes the intake process of the FL (e.g., Ellis, 1994), as well as saves time and enhances understanding (Turnbull, 2001). Cook argued that a "systematic use" (2002, p. 403) of the MT would minimize the guilty feelings of teachers when using their students' MT. Cook (2002, p. 23) also argued that "given the appropriate environment, two languages are as normal as two lungs."

A number of psycho-linguistic arguments contribute to the stance that advocates teacher use of students' MT:

1. Teacher use of the MT cannot present a threat to FL acquisition because learners already have a language basis from their MT. Because of this basis, learners are more socially developed and have more short-term memory capacity and more maturity when they become acquainted with the FL (Cook, 2002). Therefore, there is no competition between their MT and FL.
2. The belief in the 20th century was that the MT and the FL make distinct systems in the brain. However, evidence shows that languages are interwoven in the brain in vocabulary, syntax, phonology, and pragmatics. Therefore, FL teaching should match the invisible processes in the brain and should not be separated from the MT, assuming that the ability to transfer between languages (codeswitch) is a normal psycho-linguistic process (Cook, 1996; 1997).
3. The process of foreign language acquisition involves cognitive, social, and emotional factors that are inseparable and equally related to the MT and the FL.

It seems then that the sole use of the FL by the teacher is not justified theoretically or practically.

Implementation

While advocating the use of the MT in FL teaching, it is important to note that there are no criteria with regard to the right dosage of the use of the MT. Quite often teachers feel at a loss and decide to avoid using the MT altogether because they fear this will contradict the stance supervisors and headmasters take. Cook (2001) presents criteria for the judicious use of the MT: efficiency, learning, naturalness, and external relevance. *Efficiency* relates to doing something more effectively through the MT. *Learning* concerns whether FL learning is enhanced by the use of the students' MT. *Naturalness* relates to whether students prefer the use of their MT rather than the FL regarding certain

topics. Finally, *external relevance* is whether the MT helps students with uses of the FL they may need beyond the classroom. The last criterion may be associated with the use of English for communication purposes; it may refer to everyday topics, life skills, and pragmatic language such as conversing or participating in online chats in English.

Although these criteria may be useful to clarify the general teaching circumstances for using the MT with regard to a certain class or topic, there seems to be a need for more formal guidelines that should be defined practically and in terms of specific topics, situations, and frequency. Examples for such guidelines could be "while teaching tenses that exist in the students' MT, you may use comparisons to facilitate understanding" or "avoid literal translations and try synonyms or pictures instead." The use of clear instructions may reduce teachers' feelings of anxiety and guilt, and legitimize the use of the MT to a certain extent.

The language areas for which teachers would prefer to use the MT should also be considered. Previous studies indicate that teachers use the MT in EFL classrooms to explain new vocabulary and grammatical structures (Cook, 1997), organize tasks and give instructions (Cook, 2001), and maintain discipline in class and create rapport with individual students (Macaro, 1997).

Goal of the Study

The study focuses on the examination of English teachers' attitudes and ways of implementing the MT in EFL teaching in elementary and secondary schools in Israel. EFL teachers' attitudes will be explored as part of the abovementioned paradigm shift. Findings will demonstrate what pedagogical stance teachers in Israel take with regard to Hebrew as the MT in EFL classes.

After understanding teachers' attitudes, the study will attempt to explore whether there are gaps between attitudes and implementation. Findings will exemplify more concretely the situations and topics in which teachers feel that the use of the MT will facilitate the learning and teaching process.

As the study comprises two populations of teachers, a comparison will be made. Findings will allow for the identification of differences between elementary and secondary school teachers. The findings will also enable supervisors of language education and decision-makers to design formal guidelines that will help teachers use the MT in a balanced and effective manner.

Methodology

The participants in this study were 112 randomly selected EFL teachers in Israel: sixty elementary school teachers (EST), and fifty-two secondary school teachers (SST). All are speakers of Hebrew and have more than five years of teaching experience. Their ages range from 35 to 55. The research tool was a questionnaire that included seven questions (Timor, 2010). The first two questions related to teachers' attitudes with regard to the use of Hebrew as the MT in EFL teaching, and the remainder of the questions related to implementation issues (frequency of use, grammatical topics, language areas, and other uses). The comparison between the two groups of teachers was conducted with reference to all questions.

Three of the questions (1, 2, and 3) are on a Likert Scale. Whereas in Questions 1 and 3 the score of 1 indicates an anti-MT attitude and the score of 5 indicates a pro-MT attitude, in Question 2, the score of 1 indicates a pro-MT attitude and the score of 5 indicates an anti-MT attitude. Three questions are multiple-choice (4, 5, and 6), and four are open-ended (1, 2, 5, and 7). Questions 1, 2, and 5 provide both a multiple choice / Likert part and an open-ended part. The full questionnaire can be found in the appendix. Findings were calculated and are presented in percentages.

Findings

Question 1: Arguments for MT Use in EFL Teaching

The teachers' answers indicate that they can see the benefit of using the MT in English lessons (EST, 100%; SST, 87%). When asked to explain their reasons, teachers brought up the following arguments:

- "The MT helps me to explain complicated issues."
- "Young learners in lower grades demonstrate limited understanding of English. I find that when I speak in English and they don't understand what I am saying, they mentally zone out, so a good mix of the FL and MT is useful to keep them going."
- "Weaker students will be discouraged and frustrated if I do not use their MT; for them it is easier to understand grammar and vocabulary when they get an additional explanation in their MT."
- "Explanations can be more thorough in the MT."
- "Explanations in the MT provide confidence."
- "Explanations in the MT save time."
- "In many cases the use of the MT clarifies issues in the shortest and most efficient way."

- "Because of the overpopulated (42 pupils), heterogeneous classes, the use of the MT is a must, or else my weak pupils will become disruptive."
- "The MT reduces anxiety among students with learning disorders."

Question 2: Arguments Against MT Use in EFL Teaching

Only 13% of SST are against the use of the MT in teaching EFL. When asked why, teachers responded with the following arguments:

- "If I make more efforts to prepare teaching aids, students can understand me without using the MT."
- "If the need arises, I will make the students use the MT rather than myself."
- "We should always explain in English, only if there is no other choice we should switch to the MT."
- "Teachers should be committed to the FL in their teaching although students will always try to drag them into using the MT."
- "All immersion programs advocate the use of the FL in order to upgrade students' knowledge."
- "Once the teacher starts using the MT, there is no way back."
- "The use of the MT slows down the process of learning."

Question 3: Frequency of MT Use in EFL Teaching

More than half of the EST and SST ranked the frequency of their use of the MT as average (3 on the scale): 65% and 62% respectively. The lower reports of frequencies (2 on the scale) were observed among SST (32%), more than among EST (15%). The higher reports of frequencies (4 and 5 on the scale) were observed among EST (20%), more than among SST (6%).

Question 4: MT Use for Grammatical Structures Not Found in the MT

Most teachers use the MT to teach grammatical structures that do not coincide between the MT and FL (EST, 70%; SST, 75%). The examples teachers provided for structures that exist in English but do not exist in Hebrew were the present perfect, present progressive, and past progressive, or structures that have specific rules in English, such as back-shifting in reported speech.

Question 5: MT Use in Teaching Grammar

Both EST and SST report using the MT to a great extent in grammar teaching: EST use the MT mostly to teach simple tenses (75%), modals (29%), and comparative forms (16%); SST use the MT to teach complicated tenses (87%), modals (63%), conditionals (56%), relative clauses (44%), reported speech (44%), and phrasal verbs (25%).

Question 6: MT Use in Teaching Language Skills

SST report using the MT to teach vocabulary (75%), reading comprehension (25%), and writing skills (18%). EST also use the MT to teach vocabulary (79%), reading comprehension skills (54%), and writing skills (33%).

Question 7: Other MT Uses in FL Teaching

Other cases exist in which teachers make use of Hebrew as the MT. SST use it when they need to explain complex issues, give instructions, handle discipline problems, or explain grammar rules; EST use the MT to explain complex issues, teach learning habits, give instructions, or handle discipline. Both groups use the MT to create rapport with individual students.

Discussion

This article revolves around the question of whether or not the MT should be "brought back from exile" (Cook, 2001, p. 419). It aims at the examination of English teachers' attitudes and ways of implementation with regard to the use of Hebrew as the MT in EFL teaching in elementary and secondary schools in Israel. This was done by conducting a study among EFL teachers and presenting their attitudes and practical implementation regarding the use of Hebrew as the MT in class. Findings demonstrate that teachers' attitudes are positive and most of them see the benefit of using the MT in EFL teaching. Both EST and SST clearly saw the benefit in the use of Hebrew as the MT in the English classroom and only 13% of SST objected to it. At the same time, it seems that the use of the MT is moderate among both EST and SST (65% and 62% respectively). In addition, the higher frequencies of use of the MT were found among EST, whereas the lower frequencies were found among SST. These findings support Cook's (2001) criterion of "learning," indicating that teachers' attitudes may derive from their experience that the introduction of the MT in EFL classes enhances learning.

Teachers reported using Hebrew mainly for structures that do not coincide with structures of English. This may be accounted for by the

fact that it is more difficult to explain structures that do not exist in one's MT, so the use of the MT might facilitate understanding. For example, in Hebrew, there is one present tense and one past tense, whereas in English there are four present tenses (present simple, present progressive, present perfect, present perfect progressive) and four past tenses (past simple, past progressive, past perfect, past perfect progressive). Another example is reported speech, which is difficult for speakers of Hebrew because the rules of back-shifting in time and place do not exist in Hebrew. It is noteworthy that both EST and SST use the MT for structures that do not coincide between English and Hebrew. These findings support Cook's (2001) criterion of efficiency, indicating that some topics can be taught more effectively through comparisons to the MT.

SST use the MT for more grammatical structures than EST, because the structures taught in secondary schools, according to the *English Curriculum for All Grades* (Spolsky et al., 2001), are more numerous and complex (e.g., complicated tenses, conditionals, modals). Students in secondary schools are more capable of writing in English and must meet standards for graduation. Therefore, it is quite surprising that both SST and EST reported the use of the MT to teach vocabulary to almost the same extent (75% and 79% respectively). Obviously, teachers referred to different levels of vocabulary, and SST possibly referred to idioms and figurative language, which may explain the findings.

The following example further supports the use of the MT in EFL teaching with regard to vocabulary and also clearly demonstrates the relationship between language and culture: an EFL teacher needs to teach the idiom "making a mountain out of a molehill," which has an equivalent in Hebrew: "making an elephant from a fly." If the teacher is able to provide the equivalent idiom in the students' MT, it will facilitate the explanation, which, in this case, requires higher language skills and an understanding of figurative language. The obvious relationship between language and culture that needs to be set in language lessons is sometimes neglected for reasons of ethics or pedagogical inappropriateness. However, this methodology might help students benefit from the comparison of the idiom in English and their MT. In this case, the MT should be considered an enabling factor because it enhances understanding in a quick, efficient way, and does not present an ethical issue at all. Therefore, the belief that the use of the MT in FL classrooms should be discouraged might be limiting rather than enabling language learning.

A small number of teachers report on relying on the MT for a variety of classroom management situations as well, such as setting rapport with an individual student, giving instructions, or handling

discipline problems. These findings make sense because it might sound artificial to use the FL to scold when both the teacher and the student have the same MT. These findings agree with Cook's (2001) criterion of naturalness as well as that of other researchers, by indicating that the student would feel more at ease in their MT with regard to certain classroom activities (e.g., Brooks & Donato, 1994).

Conclusion

The contributions of this study are threefold:

Firstly, it offers an updated picture of this controversial issue: the findings demonstrate a positive pedagogical stance teachers in Israel take with regard to Hebrew as the MT in EFL classes, and reveal that the MT is used for teaching topics in EFL such as grammatical issues or reading comprehension, and in a small number of cases, for specific classroom management situations.

Secondly, this study helps in paving the way onwards: the findings show that teachers already use Hebrew as the MT with an average to high frequency and for different purposes in the classroom, but do so with guilt feelings of almost "cheating the system." This situation seems to indicate the need to devise standards and formal guidelines for using the MT in FL classrooms by ministries of education and policy-makers. However, until guidelines are provided, in meetings with supervisors or subject coordinators, FL teachers should support the MT as a teaching tool in classroom practice by indicating that using the MT works. They should demonstrate that the use of the MT saves time and enhances understanding, particularly among slow learners, and that comparisons between the two languages enhance understanding about how languages "behave." This will eventually move the discussion toward greater acceptance of the MT by policy-makers who rely on theories and worldwide trends, but also on teaching practices.

Finally, the study suggests a model that depicts the link between the MT and the FL on a continuum (Figure 1). Whereas in earlier times, professionals strongly discouraged the use of the MT in class altogether (Option 1), minimized it (Option 2), and advocated a maximum use of the FL, the present study advocates enabling the use of the MT at different degrees depending on circumstances (Option 3), but at the same time maximizing the use of the FL. Circumstances include the level of class, the goals of teaching, learners' age, and learners' motivation. Of course, unlimited use of the MT by the teacher should not be considered a feasible option because it clearly contradicts the objectives of teaching FL. It is recommended that further research be conducted on a larger number of participants and dwell on the more

specific differences between EST and SST, so that more specific guidelines could be designed for them.
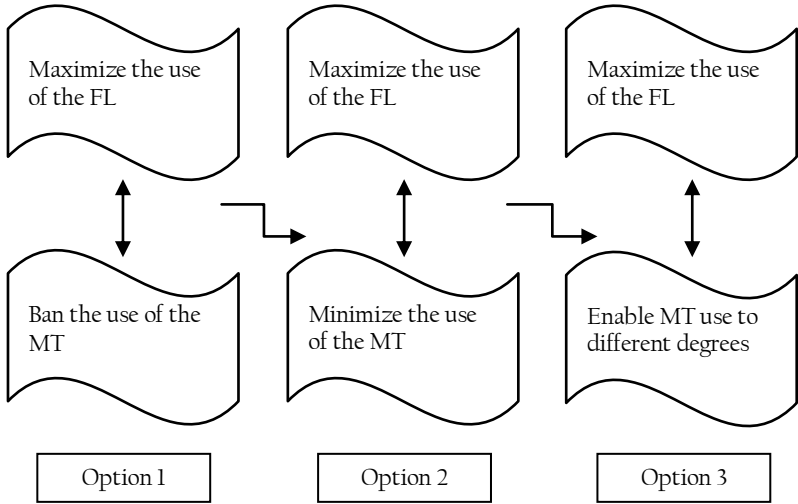
Figure 1. The continuum of use of the MT in FL teaching

Since updated research and brain theories as well as classroom reality indicate the usefulness of the MT in FL classrooms, it seems important for FL teachers to realize that they do not "betray" their mission and profession by introducing the MT into their classes at particular times, for practical purposes, with the goal of enhancing the learning experience. The MT can be an important asset that facilitates FL teaching, and teachers should understand that a broad exposure for students to the FL does not necessitate a ban on the use of the MT in teaching the FL. The present study supports the stance that the combination of the already existing positive attitudes of EFL teachers coupled with clear guidelines by policy-makers will lead to a systematic "front-door use" rather than the former "back-door use" of the MT in teaching foreign languages.

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Appendix
The Use of Hebrew as the MT Among EFL Teachers
Questionnaire
(Timor, 2010)

Dear Teacher, the questions below refer to the use of Hebrew as a mother tongue in EFL teaching. In questions on the scale of 1-5, 1 means *strongly disagree*, whereas 5 means *strongly agree*. Your opinion is highly appreciated.

1. I can see the benefit of using Hebrew in EFL teaching 1 2 3 4 5 (circle relevant answer) mainly because _____
    _____

2. I'm against using Hebrew in EFL teaching 1 2 3 4 5 (circle relevant answer) mainly because_____
    _____

3. I refer to Hebrew in my EFL teaching 1 2 3 4 5 (1 = *quite rarely*; 5 = *quite frequently*).

4. I refer to Hebrew mainly when structures in English and Hebrew coincide / do not coincide (please circle relevant answer).

5. I refer to Hebrew when I teach the following grammatical topics (please circle relevant answers and specify):
    Tenses (which ones?) _____
    Relative Clauses (which ones?)_____
    Comparative Forms (which forms? "as . . . as" ". . . er than" "the . . . est") _____
    Reported Speech (reported questions? negations? statements?)
    _____
    Phrasal Verbs (e.g., _____)
    Modals (which ones?) _____
    Conditionals_____
    Other _____

6. I refer to Hebrew when I teach vocabulary / reading comprehension skills / writing skills / other_____
    (circle relevant answers)

7. I use Hebrew in the following cases in my EFL teaching
    _____

Thanks a lot for your input!

Facilitating Interaction in East Asian EFL Classrooms: Increasing Students' Willingness to Communicate

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Research has pointed to specific classroom conditions which increase EFL students' willingness to communicate in English (WTC); these include group cohesiveness, topic relevancy, and anxiety. Additionally, certain language-learning attitudes, such as international posture and student acceptance of communicative language teaching (CLT), have been shown to affect a student's WTC. This paper will explain how, by paying close consideration to these variables, teachers in East Asian classrooms can promote their students' WTC and improve spoken interaction among their students.

Having deep linguistic knowledge is no longer a sufficient goal for EFL students; students must strive for communicative competence in English as well. Because of this, it is imperative that teachers not just provide opportunities for students to practice language skills in a communicative way - they must also instill in students certain attributes that are conducive for creating a communicative environment. Thus, one primary goal of language teachers should be to increase their students' willingness to communicate in English (WTC).

Key Concepts for Discussing Communicative Classrooms in the East Asian Context

Willingness to communicate (WTC) in English. WTC, a fairly recent development in L2 instruction theory, has been described as the probability of engagement in communication when one is free to do so (McCroskey & Baer, 1985). To teach English communication skills, students must possess a high WTC to be ready to participate in activities focusing on "unpredictable" uses of language forms (Littlewood, 2007, p. 247). WTC in a first language is mainly attributed to personality factors; however, WTC in L2 is considerably more complicated. MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels (1998) suggested a heuristic model which accounts for L2 WTC behavior and

proposed the following as possible influences: situated antecedents, motivational propensities, affective-cognitive context, and social and individual context. Research has indicated that many other situation-specific elements partially account for L2 WTC as well; some include group cohesiveness, anxiety, and topic relevancy, all of which could be important factors when teachers attempt to construct an ideal classroom environment (Aubrey, 2010; Cao & Philp, 2006; De Saint Léger & Storch, 2009). By giving careful consideration to influences on WTC, teachers can manipulate classroom conditions and tap into students' latent WTC to optimize student interaction.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). In contrast to other language teaching approaches, CLT emphasizes the importance of using an L2 for meaningful communication. CLT includes a spectrum of activities which are based on "interaction between learners" rather than individualistic approaches to learning (Richards, 2006, p. 2). Specific methodological proposals, such as task-based teaching, have been gaining popularity. The intended outcome of these methodologies is meaningful student-student interaction, which research has shown creates learning opportunities and facilitates the second language acquisition process (Long, 1983; Pica, 1992). However, for CLT to be effectively implemented, students need to have WTC.

International posture. International posture, an attitudinal construct suggested by Yashima (2002), may be a specific factor influencing WTC among East Asian students. Yashima described international posture as a positive orientation toward the international community, or an "interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and, one hopes, openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures" (p. 57). Students who have a more positive orientation toward the international world are more likely to be motivated to use English inside and outside of class. Yashima concluded that "the path from international posture to WTC, although not strong, was significant" (2002, p. 62). Results from a study by Aubrey (2010) also indicated that "students who had an interest in international affairs and intercultural communication tended to participate more in class" (p. 47).

East Asian students' acceptance of CLT. In addition to international posture, the degree to which methodologies associated with CLT are accepted by students is a particularly sensitive variable for EFL students in East Asia. According to Wen and Clement (2003), the Chinese educational culture changes the linguistic, communicative, and social variables that affect students' WTC in a Chinese setting. They argue that feelings of "belongingness," "oneness," and "we-ness" characteristic of in-group members are essential for successful

interaction in the classroom (p. 26). In East Asia, CLT is sometimes considered to diverge from traditional teacher-centered approaches which focus on transmitting information from teacher to student. Audiolinguilism, grammar-translation, and situational language teaching are some of the most common methods used in China and Japan (Watkins, 2005). Researchers have argued that CLT may pose a conflict between western educational values and East Asian traditional education (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Hu, 2005) and that the view of language learning as a process rather than learned content causes considerable difficulties (Samimy & Kobayashi, 2004). However, arguments have been made to the contrary. According to Littlewood (2000), Asian students want to "explore knowledge themselves . . . together with their fellow students" (p. 34). Additionally, Aubrey (2010) found that it was not enough for teachers to simply expose students to a communicative learning environment; students needed to exhibit a higher acceptance of CLT in order to be willing to speak in class. In regard to teaching practices for East Asian EFL students, Aubrey (2010) also suggested that "for teachers who want more interaction in their classroom, an attitude shift must take place on the part of students towards a more positive view of CLT and a more "internationally oriented" approach to learning English" (p. 47).

Ways to Increase Student Interaction

In the following sections, simple suggestions on how to increase interaction in the classroom will be summarized. They are based on classroom implications of past WTC research and are particularly important for teachers seeking ways to manage larger classrooms. Coleman (1989) suggested that the barrier that larger classes have on participation could be overcome by a classroom approach which encourages interaction. Aubrey (2010) found empirical evidence to suggest that interaction in larger classes can be increased substantially by focusing on ways to facilitate student-student as opposed to teacher-student interaction. Group cohesiveness, communication anxiety, topic relevancy, acceptance of CLT, and international posture are all factors that can be easily manipulated by teachers to increase students' WTC and student-student interaction.

Group cohesiveness. Peer-group cohesiveness may be a unique situation-specific factor influencing East Asian students' WTC in class (Aubrey, 2010; Kim, 2010; Wen & Clement, 2003). To cultivate cohesiveness, a strong sense of trust between students must be established, to the extent one might find in a family. Some key aspects of attaining this trust are outlined below.

Using positive traits of students. Like a member of a family, a student in a cohesive classroom must learn to value working with their

group members more than working individually. Students must come to understand their classmates' positive traits, what they can contribute, and how their individual characteristics can benefit the collective effort.   Teachers can promote this process by using some of these simple techniques:

1. Have students explicitly interview each other: "What are your strengths and weaknesses?" "What makes you unique?" "How are you different from others?" etc.
2. Hold elections where students can vote on leadership positions before group tasks are carried out.
3. After the completion of classroom language tasks, such as presentations or groups projects, give students a small amount of time to reflect on how each student contributed and in what aspect each student excelled. This reflection time could take the form of a small group discussion or a written peer evaluation.
4. Keep records of feedback on individual students. If students are comfortable with each other, ask permission from students to display their positive feedback on a wall chart for all students to view.   Use this to inform your choice of classroom seating, pairing students, or group project membership.

Facilitating an awareness of individual positive traits acts as a validation process, whereby each student's being part of the "in group" (class membership) is justified.

Personalizing student connections.   Some students may be shy and might not put themselves in a position to get to know every student in the class; therefore, the teacher may want to facilitate connectedness among class members in the ways listed below:

1. Enable student-student networking by compiling a list of student email addresses and handing them out to all students in class.   Students could voluntarily submit their emails to the class list if the teacher foresees student privacy problems.
2. Have students organize birthday events, off-campus meetings, or holiday celebrations.
3. Have students rely on each other for task and course information. For example, the teacher could email homework to only half the class; the other half would have to contact their peers in order to obtain the required homework instructions.

Making student networking a key component of every class will increase group cohesiveness and improve students' WTC.

Reducing communication anxiety. L2 anxiety often stems from a fear of exposure or risk of being judged by peers who may notice imperfections (Aubrey, 2010; De Saint Léger & Storch, 2009; Donato & McCormick, 1994; Young, 1990).   To lower anxiety and increase students' WTC, teachers may want to limit the amount of forced exposure imparted on a student.   Decreasing students' perceived imperfections in language production will most likely increase their WTC.   To increase a student's confidence in this way, it is necessary for teachers to adjust their approach in eliciting student participation, as the following suggestions propose:

1. Allow plenty of time for students to prepare an answer. It is tempting to single out students by name and elicit spontaneous responses to questions, but this can be a stressful experience for students.
2. Write questions on the board and divide students into groups to discuss possible answers among themselves.   Without forcing students to expose their answers to the whole class, the teacher can walk around, listen to discussions, give positive feedback, and encourage group members to share good answers with the class.

By following these techniques, teachers are both encouraging students to voluntarily participate and eliciting valuable student-student interaction.   This results in richer, more accurate student responses.

Topic relevancy. Making the lesson topic interesting and personally relevant to students has been shown to enhance students' WTC (Aubrey, 2010).   Students who do not have an interest in the lesson content may not participate.   Even if the required curriculum is rigid, there are at least two approaches to increasing topic relevance that can be used to build WTC.

Knowledge of student interests. Knowing the interests of students can be a powerful teaching tool.   It makes lessons interesting and can harness a student's latent WTC.   Below are some suggestions for achieving this:

1. Administer a short questionnaire which surveys students' hobbies, dreams, goals, and general interests.
2. Adjust how lessons are presented based on this knowledge. Use language in the context of students' interests and prepare debates, tasks, or other activities that will elicit WTC based on topic interest.

3. Incorporate topics into lessons with the purpose of making English immediately useful for students and eliminate, when possible, irrelevant topics. For example, activities could be based on popular American TV shows or movies.

Students are more likely to participate freely in English if they are absorbed in the content.

Giving students some content control. For teachers who have a degree of control over the content of their courses, and to aid transition to a more learner-centered classroom, having students choose what and how they learn can maximize lesson relevancy.   Some possible strategies follow:

1. Preview textbook chapters or the course curriculum. Have students vote on which parts to omit or include.
2. Give students a choice. Make lists of writing topics, speaking tasks, and authentic listening or readings. Have students choose which they find most stimulating.
3. Be flexible with the skills taught in class. Obtain input from students on how much time should be spent on writing, listening, speaking, or reading.
4. Assign a class leadership position to a different student each week. The student leader can be responsible for making day-to-day content decisions along with the teacher.

Relinquishing complete control may not be wise. Many students may be unaware of what they need to learn, so asking "What do you want to learn today?" may not be a suitable approach. However, by giving students choices, teachers remain in control while letting students begin to more confidently exercise their right to choose what they learn.

Acceptance of CLT.   Task-based teaching and other popular pedagogical proposals that fall under the umbrella of CLT are useful in that they promote classroom interaction. However, interaction can only happen if students consider this learning environment beneficial. Past research (Aubrey, 2010; Littlewood, 2000) has indicated that Asian students respond positively to CLT under certain conditions. Of particular interest to teachers is the finding that having a more "positive attitude towards CLT is essential for producing an ideal classroom situation" (Aubrey, 2010, p. 42).

"Selling" CLT. To give students a positive orientation toward the CLT approach, teachers need to try to "sell" their CLT methodology to students from the first day of class. Just as language learning researchers need to provide evidence to teachers of how language is

acquired (in the form of peer-reviewed journal articles), teachers should articulate their approach in the classroom and show how it is beneficial. Some possible approaches follow:

1. Explicitly communicate to students what CLT is and how it will be used in the classroom.
2. Give examples of CLT-type tasks and activities that will be used in the course.
3. Explain why CLT is being used. Highlight potential benefits.
4. Use simple empirical or anecdotal evidence to support the choice of CLT. For example, show students results of action research or case studies which illustrate how former students showed a positive attitude toward this teaching approach and, as a result, improved their language skills.
5. Emphasize that for CLT to work, there needs to be voluntary student participation.

Teachers can facilitate an attitude change towards a more positive acceptance of CLT by making it clear that participation is a proven path to language learning success and that this is most easily achieved through communicative activities that involve other students.

Instilling an international posture. MacIntyre (2007) states that "the major motivation to learn another language is to develop a communicative relationship with people from another cultural group" (p. 569). Evidence has clearly been provided to support this claim, particularly results which suggest a significant positive correlation between international posture and WTC (Aubrey, 2010; Yashima, 2002, 2004). If students who are more internationally oriented are more willing to interact in class using English, then international posture is clearly something EFL teachers need to instill in their students. Some possible approaches follow.

Making use of international students. To interest students in the world of English, one suggestion is to make use of international students at the same institution. The contact hypothesis states that there is reduced prejudice and hostility when two segregated groups come into contact with each other (Pettigrew, 2007). In other words, EFL students will take on a more positive attitude toward the international community if they come into regular contact with international students. Teachers can facilitate this by using the techniques below:

1. Have international English-speaking students speak to the class about their home culture.
2. Have students find and interview international students outside of class and use their interview data in class projects.
3. Make use of virtual international communities. Social networking sites, such as Facebook, can provide virtual intercultural interaction, which is especially useful if the local international-student community is limited.

Meaningful exposure to international students is a valuable way of connecting English to the world outside of students' immediate non-English speaking community.

Instilling global awareness. "A global cultural awareness is the missing link connecting basic English competence and fluent intercultural communication" (Aubrey, 2009, p. 130). Teachers can adjust teaching practices in the following ways with the goal of instilling in their students a global awareness:

1. Implicitly incorporate culture into the classroom by carefully selecting texts written by authors from a variety of English-speaking cultures. Moreover, these reading texts can be used by the teacher as segues into critical reading exercises focusing on learning and understanding different cultures.
2. Dispel cultural stereotypes. Nowlan (2010) suggests "having students develop a list of stereotypes one group of people may have of another, then having students identify exceptions and falsehoods of each stereotype" (p. 150).
3. Explicitly incorporate culture by including topics such as nonverbal communication, individualism / collectivism, and high / popular culture into the course.
4. Use current international events as a focus of discussion in class. Political or human-interest news stories can be used in class with other materials or on their own.

Raising the global cultural awareness of students can lead to an increase in international posture, which in turn, may ignite a motivation to speak English.

Conclusion

Kang (2005, p. 291) points out that teachers should "provide the factors facilitating WTC as much as possible, instead of focusing on one factor at the expense of other facilitating factors." In response to this, this paper has made some suggestions on how to capitalize on

some of the most pertinent factors leading to classroom interaction. To conclude, traits of a high-WTC student will be summarized.

According to past research and in line with teaching suggestions above, to be a meaningful participant in a large EFL classroom, a student must: 1) be ready to interact with other students, because it is believed that individual linguistic knowledge can be shared and collectivistic knowledge will be increased by doing so; 2) have low anxiety when interacting with peers, either because there is a high level of trust between all students or because the teacher rarely puts the student in a vulnerable position where mistakes are being exposed; 3) find the lesson topic personally relevant and tasks engaging; 4) understand the teacher's classroom philosophy and believe that the ensuing methodology is ultimately beneficial for language learning; and 5) have an interest in international people, travel, and issues, along with a desire to be an active member of the global community. By being mindful of the teaching practices outlined in this paper, teachers can realistically and practically cultivate the above attributes in their students.

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Guidance for Learners' Improvement of Speaking Skills

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Practice is considered an important part of language learning. Students are always encouraged to practice as much and as often as possible. However, some students do not know how to practice well and feel disappointed as practice does not always help them make much progress in their studies. Thus, as teachers, we should give them guidance on effective practice. This paper reports what and how guidance for practice should be provided for effective improvement of students' speaking skills. Encouraging preliminary results show that a set of appropriate activities to practice speaking and good management of group work can enhance students' speaking skills and increase their autonomy.

Practice is a language learning strategy that learners use to enhance their learning. Learners who want to make progress in their study often spend as much time as possible practicing the skills which need improvement. However, for many English majors at Nha Trang Teachers Training College, much practice does not equate to success.

According to Renandya (2010), only perfect practice makes perfect. This implies that students might not be practicing well. What should teachers do to help students practice well? What guidance is needed? In this paper, the author would like to offer some guidance to enhance students' practice of speaking skills. The main reason why speaking was chosen is

of all the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), speaking seems intuitively the most important: people who know the language are referred to as "speakers" of that language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowing; and many if not most foreign language learners are primarily interested in learning to speak. (Ur, 1996, p. 120)

The guidance was a lesson from a small-scale project applied to first and second-year students at Nha Trang Teachers Training College in the academic years 2009-2010 and 2010-2011.

Theoretical Background

Teachers' Roles

The main goal of teaching speaking is communicative efficiency. Teaching speaking means helping learners develop their ability to interact successfully in the target language. To do so, one must have communicative competence. Richards, Platt, and Weber (as cited in Nunan, 1999, p. 226) defined the characteristics of communicative competence as:

> (a) knowledge of the grammar and vocabulary of the language; (b) knowledge of rules of speaking (e.g., knowing how to begin and end conversations, knowing what topics can be talked about in different types of speech events, knowing which address forms should be used with different persons one speaks to and in different situations; (c) knowing how to use and respond to different types of speech acts such as requests, apologies, thanks, and invitations; (d) knowing how to use language appropriately. (p. 226)

Thus, to help students enhance their speaking skills, the teacher must help students improve their grammar, enrich their vocabulary, and manage interactions in terms of who says what, to whom, when, and about what.

Byrne (1987) stated that developing students' ability to interact successfully in the target language is a gradual process that begins with letting them imitate a model or respond to cues. Therefore, the same type of speaking activity might be practiced several times during the skill acquisition process; however, the task requirements should be of increasing levels of difficulty.

Why Group Work?

Many language classes are big, with students of differing abilities. This is a real obstacle for teachers striving to help students improve their speaking skills. In this case, group work has proved to be an effective way to solve the problem as "group work allows all students to practise language and to actively participate" (Baker & Westrup, 2000, p. 131). Group work is highly recommended by many experts as a useful technique to get students involved in classroom activities, increase student talking time, and reduce teacher talking time (Brumfit,

1984; Harmer, 1991; Nation, 1989; Petty, 1993).   More than a simple classroom technique, "it has been considered one of the major changes to the dynamics of the classroom interaction brought by student-centered teaching" (Nunan & Lamb, as cited in Le, 2010, p. 2).   The benefits of group work are recognized not only by language teachers and experts, but also by language students: "I began to see the benefits of participating in group work.   I could improve my communication skills in the target language, develop my skills in cooperating with group members, and learn new ideas from others" (Qiangba, 2005, p. 48).

Popular Speaking Activities

Kayi (2006) studied popular speaking activities and analyzed their advantages. She recommends the following activities:

Discussions	Brainstorming	Reporting
Role-play	Storytelling	Playing Cards
Simulations	Interviews	Picture Narrating
Information Gap	Story Completion	Picture Describing
		Find the Difference

In the three volumes of *Communication Games* by Hadfield (1996), a variety of communicative games and speaking activities provide not only "concentrated practice as a traditional drill," but also "opportunit[ies] for real communication, albeit within artificially defined limits" (p. iii). In addition to the games and activities recommended by Kayi and Hadfield, language teachers can easily access the rich source of communicative games and speaking activities on the Internet.   Whatever the games and activities are named and however they are done, they serve to enhance learners' oral fluency. The teacher's task here is to try to utilize games and activities in such a way that each is exploited to the fullest.   To achieve this, flexibility in using games and activities is vital.

Project Background

The researcher was responsible for teaching speaking and listening skills to 32 first-year college students in the academic year of 2008-2009.   For many of them, communicating in a foreign language was unfamiliar.   Whenever they wanted to speak, they wrote the sentence they wanted to say and then read it.

A variety of speaking activities was used and group work was applied.   However, less progress in oral communication was made than had been expected.   There were two kinds of students who were

unsuccessful in terms of ability to communicate in English in classroom practice: those who spoke naturally and with fluency usually made a lot of grammar and pronunciation mistakes, and those who made fewer grammar and pronunciation mistakes were not fluent and their speech did not sound natural. Moreover, turn-taking was a problem when students conducted conversations. Those who started a conversation by asking questions would continue doing so to the end of the conversation and those who answered questions did not ask questions. Informal talks conducted with the students revealed the causes of unsuccessful communication were phonological problems, lack of vocabulary, insufficient practice of grammatical and functional structures, and the habit of translating everything from English into the mother tongue and vice-versa when communicating in English.

To help students become better at speaking means to help them gain communicative competence and reduce the number of mistakes they make. In this particular case, the focus was to help students improve their pronunciation, enrich their vocabulary, frequently practice grammatical and functional patterns, and form the habit of thinking in English. To provide guidance for practice, the teacher had to find a way to help students enhance their speaking skills. As a result, in the academic year 2009-2010, a two-year project to help students improve their speaking skills began with 28 first-year students.

The Project

The project was divided into two phases: guided practice for first-year students, and less-guided practice for second-year students. The teacher had to direct students' practice, evaluate their abilities, form and reform groups, identify common mistakes students made, choose or design speaking activities and communicative games, collect frequent feedback from students, and make timely adjustments as needed. The students had to identify their own problems, set their goals for practice, and work in groups.

Setting Goals to Enhance Speaking Skills

In the first class session, an overall guidance for students to enhance their own speaking skills was given. A list of common speaking problems was provided. The students were asked to tick their problems and write suggestions (see Appendix A). All 28 students indicated that they had problems with the first five items: being unable to remember words or phrases, making grammar mistakes when speaking, making pronunciation errors, thinking in Vietnamese and then translating into English, and being unable to express their ideas well. The students were able to give suggestions on the first

three problems; however, they could not suggest solutions for the last two. These two problems are, in fact, closely related to each other. Once students are able to think in English, they will have no difficulty expressing their ideas. Thus, helping students form the habit of thinking in English has primary importance.

The students were given a worksheet to set their own weekly goals (see Appendix B). In the first column, they wrote what they wanted to learn by heart or practice more. In the second column, they noted mistakes they wanted to correct. The mistakes were pointed out by the teacher, by their classmates, or recognized by themselves. The students' goals were different, depending on individual needs. Setting small goals helped the students move step-by-step towards general improvement in speaking and helped strengthen their self-confidence. In a sense, setting goals can be considered to be planning one's practice. This was done throughout the academic year.

Thus, identifying problems and giving suggestions helped the students know exactly what they had to handle when practicing speaking. Having set the goals, the students would pay attention to areas that they wanted to improve. Students were asked to practice as often as possible with their classmates and students from neighboring and upper classes on the following principles: from simple to complicated, less to more, prepared to unprepared speech, and inside to outside class.

Assigning Groups to Enhance Speaking Skills

Organizing group work. To make practice effective, student collaboration is important. Good collaboration partly depends on the way students are arranged in groups. Dominance by more-able students and passiveness by less-able students as well as increases in the gap between more-able and less-able students should be avoided. Groups should encourage equal participation, help less-able students be self-confident, motivate the more-able students, and make all students be responsible for what they are doing.

Group formation was only done after the first four weeks of study and was based on the teacher's observations. The observations helped in evaluating students' abilities and in knowing, to some extent, students' personalities and relationships. The 28 students had different levels of language proficiency. All were friendly and helpful, and got along well with each other. They were numbered according to their ability from the most able (Student 1) to the least able (Student 28) and placed into seven groups (Table 1).

To avoid dominance by the more-able students, each student in Column A of Table 1 was the group leader and had to manage and help all the members in the group. This may seem as if there was too much

work for the group leaders and no chance for them to speak when they worked with less-able students. In fact, they were able to practice speaking English as the other group members did. They shared their ideas with their group and helped less-able students express their ideas. It was important that the group leaders were aware of giving speaking opportunities to all group members.

In the first round of group work, real communication could not be achieved. This round was like the preparation of "ingredients" for a real conversation later ("real conversation" here is confined to classroom practice).

Table 1

Group Assignments

Group	A	B	C	D
Rose	S1	S8	S21	S28
Daisy	S2	S9	S20	S27
Sunflower	S3	S10	S19	S26
Daffodil	S4	S11	S18	S25
Carnation	S5	S12	S17	S24
Lily	S6	S13	S16	S23
Tulip	S7	S14	S15	S22

(S = Student)

To maintain the interest of more-able students as well as to create more chances for less-able students to practice, there was a second round of the group speaking activity. Groups were reformed. All Students A worked together, as did all Students B, C, and D. The new groups had no leaders. The emphasis was on fluency and naturalness of speech. The less-able students, with the "prepared ingredients," were able to manage the practice themselves, so they gained confidence.

Language teachers usually have problems arranging students in groups: "the biggest problem is one of selection of group members" (Harmer, 1991, p. 246). Should students work in groups with members of differing language abilities or should they work in groups with members of similar abilities? The practice in this study demonstrated that mixed-ability groups helped less-able students improve and gain more confidence and raised the more-able students' responsibilities (in a sense, more-able students shared the teacher's work in class). However, the success of the mixed-ability groups could only be achieved because the more-able students were clear about their role

from the beginning of the course and were willing to help their peers. Groups of similar language abilities motivated the more-able students; the less-able students were successful in such groups only when they had guided practice beforehand.

When working in groups with speaking activities in which monologues were preferable (storytelling, picture narrating, reporting, picture describing), the students were encouraged to recognize their classmates' mistakes (see Appendix C) without giving any comments or corrections until their friends finished their talks. The group leaders recorded all the mistakes recognized by the group and reported them to the teacher. The teacher circulated to give help while the students were working. With speaking activities in which conversations took place, there was no emphasis on recognizing and correcting classmates' mistakes as this might interrupt the flow of conversation.

Being able to identify errors had an advantage: the students could reduce their own mistakes. The students were given the list of "often-made" mistakes and asked to pay attention to avoiding them whenever they practiced speaking. A question might be raised: if students tried to be conscious of avoiding errors when speaking, could they have real communication? The reality was that they could not at first; however, at the end of the first year, the students were making fewer mistakes when they spoke and they were improving at communicating with structures they had learnt.

One problem language teachers may worry about when managing group work is the students' use of their mother tongue. This could not be totally avoided; nevertheless, the teacher was able to reduce mother tongue usage by giving clear instructions for the tasks and "jumping in" in time to help the students.

Selecting speaking activities.   Activities and role-plays from course books and the Internet were used. Appropriateness to the students' level of speaking was always taken into consideration. For first-year students, the activities involved repetition / imitation, whereas the activities for second-year students required more creativity on their part.

Many activities were used for both first-year and second-year students (see Appendix D); however, the levels of difficulty and the requirements were different (see Figure 1 and Table 2).
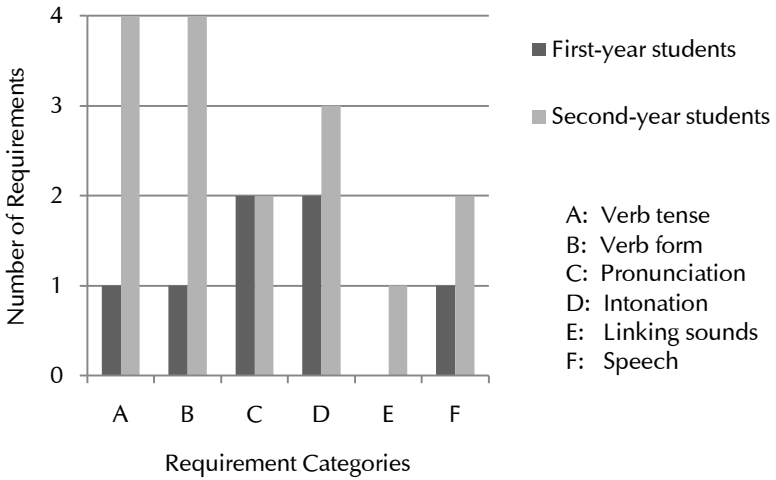
Figure 1. The requirement categories for the same type of speaking activity for first-year students in their first term and for second-year students in their fourth term in the project. The number of requirements gradually increased from the first to the fourth term.

Table 2

Interview Activity Requirements for 1ˢᵗ and 2ⁿᵈ Year Students

First-Year Students Term 1	Second-Year Students Term 4
Activity: Interview your friend about his / her last holiday.	**Activity:** Interview your friend about his / her learning English.
Requirements:	Requirements:

A. Correct verb tense
    1. Simple past
	A. Correct verb tenses
	    1. Simple past
	    2. Simple present
	    3. Present perfect
	    4. Present continuous

B. Correct verb form
    1. Simple past
	B. Correct verb forms
	    1. Simple past
	    2. Simple present
	    3. Present perfect
	    4. Present continuous

C. Correct pronunciation
    1. Simple past of regular verbs
    2. Simple past of irregular verbs
	C. Correct pronunciation
	    1. Simple past of regular verbs
	    2. Simple past / past participle of irregular verbs

D. Correct intonation
    1. Yes / No questions
    2. Wh- questions
	D. Correct intonation
	    1. Yes / No questions
	    2. Wh- questions
	    3. Choice questions

	E. Linking sounds

F. Speech
    1. Good turn-taking
	F. Speech
	    1. Good turn-taking
	    2. Smooth speech

To make improvements in using grammatical and functional patterns, frequent out-of-class practice was encouraged. As homework to practice learnt structures, the students brainstormed ten questions per week on topics suggested by the teacher and the students. The

topics were simple (e.g., family, job, hobbies) in their first year and more complicated (e.g., campus life, environmental problems, poverty) in their second year. The teacher collected and corrected the questions. This gave the teacher an opportunity to see what mistakes were common, and what remedy could be applied. With the teacher's comments, the students themselves were gradually able to learn how to generate questions and avoid making mistakes. More importantly, the students saw the teacher's effort in helping them to enhance their speaking skills. In return, they studied harder.

After receiving feedback from the teacher, the students were asked to memorize their questions and to practice asking and answering questions with as many students as possible, whenever and wherever they could. Once a month, the teacher randomly selected a prepared topic, and the students practiced asking and answering questions on the topic in class.

This activity was a simple drill, but it helped students to eradicate the habit of thinking of questions and answers in Vietnamese and then translating them into English when communicating. The more often the questions and answers were practiced, the more deeply they became rooted in the students' minds. Moreover, this activity helped the students to organize their ideas as they were required to put the questions in a logical order.

Although the activity was beneficial, there were some shortcomings. First, it required much preparation time for the teacher. Second, it was possible for students to copy questions from their classmates. Despite these shortcomings, the students' improvement in speaking could be seen clearly after they finished their first year (see Appendix E).

Conclusion

The project is still in progress. However, positive feedback from the students and the progress the students have made show that the project is fruitful. To help students practice speaking well, the following points should be considered:

- Guidance for students' speaking practice should be given at the beginning of the course as this will help students save time in finding ways to improve their speaking skills.
- Speaking activities should be appropriate to the students' ability.
- Speaking activities should involve and motivate the students.
- For less-able students, more attention should be paid to correct repetition than to performance skills.

- For more-able students, the proportion of repetition and performance skills should be considered carefully as this influences their motivation in learning speaking.
- Good management of group work helps to achieve the active and equal participation of all students and will help to increase the effectiveness of speaking activities.

Language teachers, like ship captains, should guide their students to the harbor of success. When practice is well planned and combined with hard work and commitment on both sides, students' speaking skills will be improved.

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Appendix A
Speaking Problems and Suggestions

Common Speaking Problems List

Directions: Please tick the problem(s) you have when learning speaking and write your suggestion(s) next to the problem(s).

My Problems		My Suggestions
1. I can't remember words / phrases.	☐	
2. I usually make grammar mistakes when I speak.	☐	
3. I usually make pronunciation mistakes when I speak.	☐	
4. I think in Vietnamese and then I translate into English.	☐	
5. I don't know how to express my ideas well.	☐	
6. I feel shy when I have to speak.	☐	
7. I am afraid of making mistakes when I speak.	☐	

Table A1

Students' Common Speaking Problems and Their Suggestions

Problems	Suggestions
Can't remember words / phrases	Learn them by heart and use them more often
Make grammar mistakes	Do more grammar exercises Practice grammar structures more in speech
Make pronunciation mistakes	Read aloud the words until you get the correct pronunciation
Think in Vietnamese and then translate into English	No suggestions
Don't know how to express ideas well	No suggestions

Note: There is no ranking of the students' problems in Table A1. All the students ticked the first five common speaking problems list. They were not asked to number the items from the most to the least problematic.

Appendix B
Weekly Student Goals

Week 3 (Unit 2, Conversation 1: Tell me about your family)

Student A

Things I Want to Learn by Heart / Practice More	Things I Want to Correct
Vocabulary: cousin, nephew, niece, musician, look alike, married, single, sister-in-law, brother-in-law, aunt, uncle	*plural ending:* twin<u>s</u>, brother<u>s</u>, sister<u>s</u>
Functional structures and expressions	*consonant clusters:* young<u>est</u>, old<u>est</u>
- Tell me about your family.	*linking sound:* I have two <u>brothers and</u> one sister.
- Do you have any brothers or sisters?	3rd *person singular ending:* My brother live<u>s</u> in Nha Trang. He work<u>s</u> as a hotel receptionist.
- Have you got any brothers or sisters?	
- I have three brothers but no sisters.	
- No, I'm an only child.	
- We're twins.	
- How old is your brother?	
- We're the same age.	
- He's the same age as me.	
- Is your brother single / married?	
- Does your brother have any children?	
- You look too young to be an aunt.	
- He works as a waiter.	

Student B

Things I Want to Learn by Heart / Practice More	Things I Want to Correct
Vocabulary: look alike, sister-in-law, brother-in-law *Functional structures and expressions* - No, I'm an only child. - We're twins. - We're the same age. - He's the same age as me. - You look too young to be an aunt. - My brothers and my sisters are all younger / older than me. - He works as a chef.	*consonant clusters*: young<u>est</u>, old<u>est</u> *linking sound*: I have two <u>brothers and</u> one sister. *3rd person singular ending*: My sister work<u>s</u> for a foreign company. She live<u>s</u> in Ho Chi Minh City with her family. She is married and has two children. Her husband work<u>s</u> as a pilot. He <u>flies</u> to Ha Noi twice a week.

Student C

Things I Want to Learn by Heart / Practice More	Things I Want to Correct
Vocabulary: look alike *Functional structures and expressions* - No, I'm an only child. - We're twins. - We're the same age. - He's the same age as me. - You look too young to be an aunt.	*linking sound*: I have two <u>brothers and</u> one sister. *unnatural speech – hesitation*

Appendix C
Common Student Mistakes

Grammar Mistakes	Pronunciation Mistakes
- incorrect verb tense forms / incorrect - use of tenses - incorrect use of prepositions - missing prepositions - incorrect use of articles	- missing the ending sounds in plural nouns (e.g., oranges = orange, apples = apple) - missing third-person singular ending of the verb in the simple present tense (e.g., likes = like, watches = watch) - missing ending sound of regular verbs in the simple past tense or in the past participle form (e.g., stopped = stop, stayed = stay) - missing certain sounds in final clusters(e.g., film: /film/ = /fim/, text: /tekst/ = /tek/) - inserting a vowel sound into a consonant cluster (e.g., /spi:k/ = /s...pi:k/) - adding hissing sound /s/ to all the words (e.g., I go to school = I/s/go/s/to /s/school/s/) - no linking sounds - incorrect intonation

Note: The functional patterns presented in the speaking course book cover the grammar points listed in the table.

Appendix D
Activities for the First and Second-Year Students

Activities for First-Year Students	Activities for Second-Year Students
Brainstorming	
Information Gap	
Storytelling	
Story Completion	
Reporting	
Interviews	
Picture Narrating	
Role-play	
Talks on topics	
Playing Cards	Discussions
Find the Difference	Stage plays
Picture Describing	Simulations

Appendix E

Results of the 1ˢᵗ and 2ⁿᵈ End-of-Term Speaking Exams (First Year)
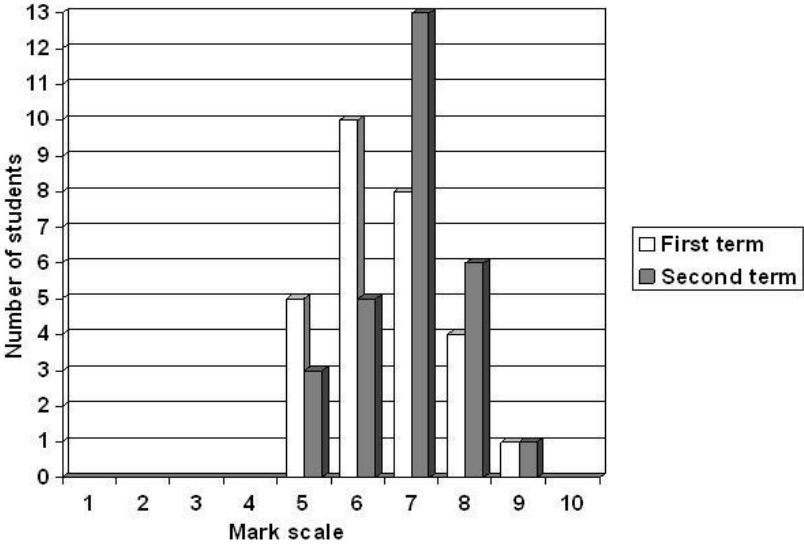
Figure E. In the first term the number of students receiving marks of 5 and 6 in speaking test exceeded the number of students receiving marks of 7, 8 and 9. In the second term the result was opposite. *Note.* At the college, in the students' study records, decimal numbers were rounded up or down to the nearest whole numbers.

The examiners of the speaking test were the teachers of speaking, one was the researcher, the other one was chosen at random. These teachers supervised and were interviewers in both the first and second term tests.

The speaking task had two parts: role-plays (8 marks) and interviews (2 marks).

In role-plays, based on learnt structures and topics, each pair of students was asked to sit separately. They had three minutes to read the requirements on the cards for preparation, and then they were asked to perform their conversations in pairs. The students' role-plays were assessed on the following criteria: ideas and length (2 marks), accuracy (1 mark each for pronunciation, intonation, grammar, and learnt structures) and fluency and manner of speaking (1 mark each for turn-taking and natural / fluent speech)

In interviews, the examiners asked each student two questions (1 mark for each answer) related to learnt topics. These questions were not related to the topic of the presented role-play; for example, if Students A and B had to perform a role-play in a restaurant, then the questions for them would be about their future plans or intentions. The students had no time to prepare. The answers were assessed on (a) ideas (0.25), (b) language patterns (0.25), (c) pronunciation (0.25), and (d) quick answer (0.25). In cases where the questions had to be repeated, no mark was given for (d). There was no second repetition of the questions.

Using Directive and Facilitative Feedback to Improve Student Writing: A Case Study of a Higher Education Setting in Cambodia

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This paper discusses how two feedback strategies, directive and facilitative, were used in two essay writing classes in the English Language Support Unit (ELSU) at the Royal University of Phnom Penh (RUPP). The study investigated the effects of the two strategies in two types of essay, (1) classification and (2) comparison and contrast, examined the types of student errors, and explored their causes. The student writing data were enhanced through follow-up interviews with each of the participants and through triangulation with the evaluations of a second teacher. The findings of this study show that facilitative feedback may be more effective in improving certain revisions of essays, and directive feedback with others. These results may be useful for university instructors, teachers, teacher trainers, and senior high school teachers who wish to improve their students' writing.

Helping students to improve writing in the drafting stages is a contentious topic for teachers who are often not sure how best to improve the wide variety of errors in students' essays. Two questions arise for the teacher: Should teachers focus more on linguistic errors and grammar issues? Or should teachers help students develop the content of the essay? Students exhibit their own individual problems. Some students still struggle with sentence structure and vocabulary. Others have poor essay organization and unfocused ideas. Some students experience more complex problems - errors in the use of vocabulary, sentence structure, and essay structure. As a result, they fail to clearly set out main ideas to support the topic. They also seem unable to clarify their points of view with examples, facts, and explanations, so their arguments seem weak. The question arises, therefore, as to what techniques the teacher should use to help students individually improve their essays.

Directive and facilitative feedback, two interactive strategies to improve students' writing, can be used in this context. Directive strategies use teachers' and classmates' suggestions and comments about errors related to grammar issues, sentence structure, and vocabulary. Teachers and students may also use corrective symbols to identify and improve in correcting linguistic errors and improve sentence structure. Since each essay genre utilizes specific linguistic transitional words and a specific structure, directive strategies are also useful to point out specific linguistic errors in the thesis statements and topic sentences, as well as with unity and coherence in the body paragraphs. Facilitative strategies, on the other hand, focus on teachers' and classmates' questions or comments about the development of ideas and content, and how these questions can help students indirectly understand shortcomings in their writing, as well as ways to improve (Carney, 2006).

This paper presents a research study conducted in two essay classes at the English Language Support Unit (ELSU) at the Royal University of Phnom Penh (RUPP). Six students from each class participated. The study considered the results of two feedback strategies (directive and facilitative) on errors in classification and comparison and contrast essays, taking into account different types of errors and their respective causes.

Background

The type and effectiveness of feedback in the writing classroom has been the focus of significant research. While some teachers may feel discouraged because students seem to ignore their feedback (Hairston, 1986), other teachers think their feedback is useful (Leki, 1991). In some cases, students may sometimes feel frustrated and confused when reading their teacher's suggestions and comments (Mantello, 1997). Teachers have to be clear about what parts of an essay need improvement, and what specific linguistic errors or issues that students have to improve (Zemach, 2007). Teachers need to convey the idea to students that a good writer is a thoughtful person who can deliver his or her ideas through meaningful and understandable vocabulary, facts, and examples. Therefore, students have to be taught how to produce effective written communication between writers and readers. In this case, peer reviews and student-teacher conferences are very valuable to improve the content and the organization of student writing (Huntley 1992). The student-teacher conference will be successful if teachers provide enough supportive and constructive responses to student writing (Grabe & Kaplan, 1998).

According to Ellis (2009) and others (Jacobson Center for Writing, Teaching and Learning, Fall, 2002), teachers choose directive or

facilitative strategies at different times to accomplish different purposes. For example, while directive feedback concerning error codes may be helpful when students need to focus on sentence level issues, facilitative feedback such as questioning may be more useful when students are working on linguistic or organizational matters. Directive feedback may help students improve unsatisfactory sentences when the teacher provides them with correct forms and some examples, and possibly helps students rewrite sentences when the teacher indicates particular errors. In contrast, students can feel more positive about improving their writing when questions and suggestions are supportive and what students want to say in their writing is recognized. In a different way than directive feedback, facilitative feedback can help students feel proud of what they can write because teachers do understand some good points and praise their work before asking them to improve some parts of their writing.

Method and Research Tools

The current research was conducted in the form of a classroom case study during a twelve week period. The study examined the effectiveness of two feedback strategies, directive and facilitative, in improving students' ability to revise their classification and comparison and contrast essays. To ensure objectivity, two teachers (the researcher and an outside evaluator) evaluated the final essay draft (see evaluation criteria in Appendix A). Data was also collected from students' interviews, and students were asked to express their opinions in reflective papers. The main research question motivating this study was which feedback, directive or facilitative, is more helpful to students when improving unity and coherence in the two types of essays. The research also attempted to determine whether each strategy is helpful, what errors are (or are not) improved upon by using each specific strategy, and how students feel when their teacher uses each strategy.

Participants

Six students in two intermediate-level essay writing classes in the ELSU at RUPP participated in this case study. The participants were selected from each class, based on regular attendance and performance during two weeks at the beginning of the course. On the basis of their performance, the students were categorized into three types of writers – good writers, fair writers, and poor writers. These categories were determined by an evaluation based on grammatical accuracy, lexical resources, and ability to organize ideas into unified paragraphs with support (Appendix A). Each class had two participants in each of

these categories. The participants were in Year 2 or 3, and English is not their major subject. Their majors are in sciences and humanities. English is a supplementary subject for these students; they are required to take six semesters of English.

Data Collection

The data collection was divided into three stages. The first stage encompassed four weeks on two topics of classification essays. Topic 1 was about the advantages of the different modes of transportation in Cambodia. Topic 2 was about the advantages of NGOs in Cambodia. These topics were given to all students, and they were persuaded to write using a variety of principles of organization and categories, i.e., they could categorize the advantages of transportation and NGOs in different ways according to their own purposes. A directive feedback strategy was used with Topic 1 essays and a facilitative feedback strategy was used with Topic 2 essays. Lastly, students were asked to reflect on their classification essay writing. The second stage lasted four weeks and focused on comparison and contrast essays. Students were allowed to choose two sources – two short stories, two folktales, two Cambodian English newspaper articles, or two issues from the *Globe*, an English language magazine. A facilitative feedback strategy was used to improve comparison and contrast essays. Students were also asked to reflect (through written assignments) on their comparison and contrast essay writing experiences. The third stage involved interviewing the twelve students.

Data Analyses

Specific grading criteria were used to evaluate the final draft of the classification essays by a second outside evaluator who has over thirty years of teaching experience, including eight at RUPP. The essays were evaluated based on four sections (Appendix A). The first section regards the overall use of the English language, focusing on two categories: (1) sentence structure and (2) vocabulary and word choices. The second section focuses on the essay introduction and is divided into three categories: "hook" and background information, principle of organization and categories, and thesis statement. The third section includes two categories: topic sentence, and organization of ideas into unified paragraphs with statistics, facts, or examples to support them. The last section concerns the essay conclusion and is classified into two categories: restating the thesis statement and going beyond the thesis with advice, warnings, predictions, or insights.

The grades were evaluated in terms of movements between 5 levels – 1 = Excellent; 2 = Very Good; 3 = Good; 4 = Fair; and 5 = Weak.

The total grade was calculated by reference to the number of students and nine categories: 12 students multiplied by 9 categories (i.e., 108 = 100%). The findings of the study are set out below in two sections: (1) directive feedback strategies and (2) facilitative feedback strategies.

Results

Directive Feedback Strategies

Topic 1 classification essay. This section is based on the observations and analysis of the Topic 1 classification essay (the advantages of different modes of transportation in Cambodia), interviews, and a reflective paper written by the students. The results on the revised Topic 1 classification essays are shown through the classification essay evaluation criteria as seen in Table B1 in Appendix B. The total reported for the "excellent" score is zero while the most common grade is "good," with 42 occurrences (about 40%). The total for "very good" is only 6 (about 5%). The total for "fair" is 34 (about 30%), and for "weak," 26 (about 25%). The total number of "fair" and "weak" ratings is much higher than the total for "excellent" and "very good" grades. This result shows that there is a large gap between the "excellent" and "weak" grades: 0 and 26. There is also a substantial gap between the total number of "very good" and "fair" scores: 6 and 34.

Examples of the results for directive feedback strategies for the Topic 1 classification essay are shown in Appendix B, Tables B2 to B11; descriptions of the results are provided below.

Subjects, pronouns, articles and prepositions. The results in Table B2 show that many students improved in using subjects and reference pronouns. Less improvement was found with articles and prepositions.

Verb choices, word forms, and spellings. Table B3 shows eight students corrected their problems with verb forms and word choices. They perhaps found it difficult to select the correct words and place them in meaningful sentences, such as the pair of words *bring - take*. They also confused the forms *there are* and *have*. Table B4 shows examples of corrected word form and spelling errors. Six students corrected their problems with word forms of the third person singular. Four students improved their use of the plural form, and four students corrected their spelling errors.

Vocabulary. Table B5 shows students made three significant improvements. Firstly, nine students improved word choice by choosing new words which have reasonable and comprehensible meaning. Next, five students made words more meaningful by providing clear explanations and examples. Finally, two students learned how to correct word order problems in their sentences. Table

B6 shows that students improved a wide variety of errors. Students revised meaningful and simple sentences and improved their use of parallel structures, punctuation, and comparative adjective forms. A small number of students corrected clauses and other errors.

Essay structure. Table B7 shows examples from some of the six students who improved the "hook" in the introduction and background information. They used a variety of introductory techniques, such as telling an interesting story or raising meaningful questions. Four students improved their ability to utilize the principles of organization and categorization when they categorized transport types according to Cambodian needs and occupations; examples are shown in Table B8.

Four students improved topic sentences in the three body paragraphs by using transition expressions and consistent words; examples can be seen in Table B9. Four students improved their organization of ideas into unified paragraphs with statistics, facts, or examples to support them (Table B10). As illustrated by the examples in Table B11, five students concluded their essays with advice, warnings, predictions, or insights that went beyond the thesis statement. Two students restated their thesis statements.

Persistent problems for Topic 1 classification essays. While there were improvements, there were three problems concerning the directive feedback stage of the study. The twelve students did not improve in correcting certain linguistic errors in areas such as parallel structures, reference objects, and subject pronouns. They also used some phrases to generalize the meaning such as "all the countries in the world," "for each country," and "every time." Six students did not have a clear purpose in categorizing the advantages of the different modes of transportation in Cambodia. They did not group the advantages of the various Cambodian transportation modes; instead, they wrote three advantages of cars or bicycles, confusing the principles of organization and categories. This last problem suggests that because students may have frequently practiced writing cause and effect paragraphs in previous classes, they might have confused classification and cause / effect essays.

The students also do not seem able to construct effective introductory and conclusion paragraphs. They just wrote a few sentences without unity and coherence. These significant points show that students seem to have limited knowledge about the background information and poor essay summary skills. Since this was the first essay for the essay class, students did not notice their errors or completely understand all of the teacher's feedback at once. Recent research suggests that direct correction of surface errors does not produce significantly better results in EFL student writing than less time-consuming correction measures such as underlining or

highlighting errors. Students need teachers to guide them to see the meaning of each error individually (Frodesen, 1991).

Student reactions. Interviews and a reflective paper students wrote on the Topic 1 classification essay provided some insight into students' reaction to the directive feedback on this essay. One male student felt strongly positive about it, while one female student felt strongly negative. The former wanted the teacher to correct every error in his sentences. When the teacher asked what the students wanted the teacher to do with the first draft of their essays, they responded:

> When I finish my first draft, I want to correct as you have already done. And also your ideas of teaching is also good because you wrote symbols, so I know exactly what my mistakes are. I know you also ask me questions, but sometimes I cannot find the best solutions. (Student A)

> You wrote some symbols for me and it surprised me because this is a simple mistake but I do wrong. If you tell me a lot of mistakes, I will be upset and disappointed to write this essay. (Student B)

Eight students felt satisfied about directive feedback and found it clear, useful, and preferable. One comment was:

> I want you to edit my essay and give some comments about my essays. Especially, some sentences that I could improve or some paragraphs do not have specific meanings. So, I want you to tell me ... (Student C)

Facilitative Feedback Strategies

Topic 2 classification essays. This section is based on the observations and analysis of the Topic 2 classification essay (the advantages of NGOs in Cambodia), interviews, and a reflective paper written by the research participants. The results on Topic 2 essays are shown in Table C1 in Appendix C. There is only one "excellent" grade, while there are 42 which achieved a "good" grade, about 40% and the highest percentage of all grades. The total for the "very good" grade is 36, or about 33%. The total for the "fair" grade is 22, or about 20%, and for "weak," the total is 7, or about 6%. This result shows that many students received "good" and "very good" scores.

Tables C2 - C8 in Appendix C contain examples which show that the majority of students still struggled to improve linguistic issues such as tenses, subjects, verbs, and punctuation in the revised Topic 2 classification essays. It can be seen that when students tried to

improve the content and details such as facts, examples, and explanations, new linguistic errors appeared in revised essays. While taking into account learning that may have occurred during the directive feedback strategy used for the Topic 1 classification essay, it seems that students tried to respond directly to the teacher's comments. The facilitative strategy seemed to focus students on the topic.

Comparison and contrast essays. The explicit results on the revised essays of comparison and contrast show definite improvement in Table D (Appendix D). The highest total is 47 (about 44%) for "very good" while the total for "weak" is 1 (about 1%). The totals for "excellent" and "good" are 24 (about 22%) and 28 (about 26%), respectively. The total for the "fair" grade is 8 (about 7%). This also shows that students kept improving.

Two weak writers did not take the teacher's suggestions to improve the unity, coherence, and content of their essays. They just answered the teacher's questions and added a little information in the three body paragraphs while eight good writers improved their essays. Two very good writers improved not only unity and coherence, but also expressed deep opinions about the topics. They also presented what they knew about the topics and shared personal experiences.

It can be concluded that the two weak writers may be confused as to how they should revise (Zamel, 1985) when teachers point out errors to be edited on drafts at the same time that they suggest meaning – level changes, such as further developing a topic. Moreover, the essay structure of comparison and contrast is completely different from that of the classification essay, so the two weak writers needed time to focus on essay structure. They might need three revisions of their essays, rather than just two. On the first draft, they would learn to remedy linguistic errors and rewrite them with appropriate vocabulary, and sentence structure. On the second draft, they might learn to improve essay structure with appropriate transition words. On the third draft, the two weak writers could find more logical facts, examples, and explanation from their reading to support the main points in five paragraphs essays. The large number of student errors is a possible reason why teachers focus mainly on the correction of errors and consequently do not respond adequately to content (Lee, 2009).

Another belief is that writing is a recursive process of discovering meaning rather than a focus on word choice, use of appropriate grammar (such as subject-verb agreement, tense, and article use), syntax (word order), mechanics (e.g., punctuation, spelling and handwriting), and organization of ideas into a coherent and cohesive form. In many ways, all writing is rewriting, and it is through

thoughtful rewriting, guided by facilitative comments, that students can develop strong writing and thinking skills.

Student reactions. Student reactions could be ascertained from interviews and reflective papers which they wrote on the Topic 2 classification essay and the comparison and contrast essays. Eight students wanted the teacher to raise questions with specific points. The teacher's information questions made them think more about logical reasons and find specific examples to support the topics of the body paragraphs as well as the whole essay. They did not seem to want the teachers to highlight and point to every error in the essay, but they wanted to know which specific part they had to improve. They also wanted to know how well the teacher understood their essays and they wanted feedback on the positive parts of their essays:

> I think questions are important because I can see the point that we need NGO and what the government and NGOs have to do in Cambodia. I like questions because I can write more. (Student D)

> I tried to improve by answering your questions. You show me some good points about my essay and I need to improve some parts. I read your letters many times. (Student E)

It is also interesting to hear that the majority of students use the teacher's questions and suggestions as a basis for discussions not only in the class but also after class with friends, classmates, and parents.

> I was caught up in your speech about the history of transportation in Cambodia. We used to ride on the elephants and fought with Mongolia. I did not have much time to read history because I am busy with my major subject. (Student F)

> I think it is helpful. If you had just asked me to read these questions and look at my mistakes without discussion, I would have been stuck. The discussion reminded me of some ideas. I do not know! I could see other students' mistakes have many similarities to me. Oh, I am very happy not only me. (Student G)

Some students reported more confidence in improving both linguistic errors and essay organization from answering the teacher's questions and thinking about the teacher's suggestions. This led them to learn to focus on ideas rather than correct grammar. The focus on ideas made them more optimistic and open in discussions with their teacher during conferences and with their classmates in the classroom.

Discussion

The results show that the facilitative strategy may have been more effective than the directive feedback strategy as a means to improve student writing related to overall essay organization and depth of understanding of (and interest in) the topic. Although the facilitative feedback strategy helped students gradually improve writing, directive feedback may still be a strong foundation for the facilitative strategy since it was used as the first tool to improve students' writing on a concrete topic. Students might have some experiences of how to improve linguistic errors, sentence structure, essay organizations, and the content. This most likely had an influence that carried over to later essays. However, some students tried to respond to the teacher's comments and questions to improve the content of essay and forgot to focus on vocabulary and sentence structure.

A facilitative strategy seems to be more successful in improving the communicative nature of writing. When there is some grammatical or lexical difficulty, questions and comments sound like meaningful and friendly communication between students and teachers. They allowed students to feel free to make decisions to revise their essays (Walter-Echols, 2008). Some students were challenged to improve not only words or sentences, but the content of the whole essay. Students valued the teacher's questions and comments and also tried to eliminate plagiarizing.

Lehtinen (2007) suggests that ideas are the most important and common aspect in good writing even though everyone has different styles of writing; even teachers and students have their own style of writing. Therefore, it would be best to focus on expanding students' usage of writing and to develop their ideas. This might help students to develop their writing in the long-term, and they might keep writing independently and continuously after essay courses have finished.

The results indicate that teachers need to balance both strategies equally when writing feedback to improve student writing. Teaching writing is not only a combination of using language, building sentences, and organizing ideas logically; it also involves the writer's purpose and beliefs. Both logic and rhetoric should be used to create a good essay. Researchers also claim that teaching writing is "not a product but a process." Teachers need time to understand students' texts and "examine the intangible process," not just "evaluate the tangible process" (Hairston, 1982, p. 84).

From a directive feedback strategy perspective, since some students do not want to correct all their errors marked by the teacher's correction symbols and follow all of the teacher's suggestions and questions to improve their five paragraph essays, the teacher has to select specific errors and raise only a few specific comments and

suggestions or questions. Lee (2009) and Grabe and Kaplan (1998) suggested that comments should not overwhelm the students with a sense of failure and that they should address organizational issues by suggesting options rather than dictating solutions. This shows that a teacher has to provide students some room to think about what they can do to improve their essays.

Teachers can spend some time helping students examine and notice errors in group discussions, student-teacher conferences, or in whole class discussions. It would be practical if writers noticed and processed their errors (Ellis, 2009). However, correcting and discussing students' errors in class works best with fairly controlled writing activities, where there are not too many possible answers (Doff, 1993). Doff (1993) also suggests that the teacher should correct only the errors that seem most important, or only errors of a certain kind (e.g., items that were taught recently, or just problems with verbs).

Conclusion

The intent of this research was to explore how two feedback strategies, directive and facilitative, help students improve their essay writing and revision skills. The research seems to indicate that both strategies have value and that used in combination, complement one another. Essay writing is a complex process and different types of feedback are important at different stages in the process to achieve different goals. In this study, most students showed more improvement and satisfaction with the facilitative feedback. They reported much higher levels of engagement with and interest in revising their work. However, this may be due in part to the fact that the strategy was used in the second essay, and they already had the experience of revising based on directive feedback. Directive feedback tends to make beginning essay writers feel they have a strong foundation to build on. Some students, particularly those who come from teacher-directed educational backgrounds, may feel more comfortable with this approach and may require directive feedback in their early stages to prepare them to work with facilitative feedback. While facilitative feedback appears to be most effective in engaging students with content and improving their writing skills, using a combination of feedback strategies in the classroom guarantees that all aspects of the writing process are addressed and that students gain the skills and confidence to improve their work.

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Appendix A
Evaluation Criteria

Section 1: Overall Criteria	1 Excellent	2 Very Good	3 Good	4 Fair	5 Weak
Sentence boundaries	Clear sense	A few errors with sentence boundaries, but they do not interfere with clarity or interrupt flow	Some errors with sentence boundaries, but they do not interfere with clarity or interrupt flow	Poor control of sentence boundaries; frequent fragments or run-ons	Very poor control of sentence boundaries; frequent fragments or run-ons no sense of rules evident
Verb tense	Shows good command of present, past, and future; only a few errors in verb formation, which rarely interfere with clarity	Shows good sense of present, past, and future, though there may be a few errors	Shows good sense of present, past, and future, though there may be some errors	Frequent distracting errors in verb forms; shows some consistent control of present and past tense	Lacks control with verb tenses
Clause structures	Most of the clause structures are correct although the student shows some minor difficulties; errors do not interfere with clarity	Most of the clause structures are correct	Some of the clause structures are correct	Writer sometimes has good control of clauses: verbs, and / or subject missing	Writer does not have good control of clauses: verb, and / or subject missing

Subject-verb agreement	Agreement between subjects and verbs is correct	Agreement between subjects and verbs is correct	Agreement between subjects and verbs mostly is correct	Frequent errors in subject-verb agreement distract the reader	
Sentence length	Uses acceptable balance of simple, compound and complex sentences				
Vocabulary					
Word form	The word forms are correct and clear; a few incorrect word forms, but they do not interfere with sentence clarity	The word forms are mostly correct; a few incorrect word forms, but they do not interfere with sentence clarity	The word forms are generally clear, though there may be a few errors	Many errors in word form which sometimes interfere with clarity, causing frequent re-reading	Many errors in word form which often interfere with clarity, causing frequent re-reading
Word order	Acceptable sequencing of subject-predicate, both for statements and questions; most modifiers used correctly, resulting few coherence problems	Acceptable sequencing of subject-predicate, both for statements and questions; most modifiers used correctly, resulting few coherence problems	Acceptable sequencing of subject-predicate, both for statements and questions; there may be minor errors	Ordering of words sometimes follows acceptable sequencing	Ordering of words does not follow acceptable sequencing

Word choice	Use of vocabulary is seldom confusing to reader; synonyms frequently employed with some minor imprecision	Use of vocabulary is not often confusing to reader; synonyms frequently employed with some minor imprecision	Control of basic vocabulary is present; occasionally word choice might be confusing the reader; synonym use is present	Use of basic vocabulary is present; the reader is sometimes confused	Use of basic vocabulary is very confusing to the reader; frequent repetitions of common terms

Section 2: Introduction

Hook and background information	The hook is clear and focused; the writer uses questions, anecdotes or personal experiences to hold the reader's attention	The writer tells relevant anecdotes, experiences and raises some interesting questions to hold the reader's attention	The writer seems to write from knowledge or experience; the ideas focused on the topic clearly	The writer tries hard to raise questions and tell anecdotes to hold the reader's attention	The hook is not clear and focused; the writer does not use questions, anecdotes or personal experiences to hold the reader's attention

Introduction: Classification Essay

Principle of organiza-tion and categories	The writer classifies things clearly into smaller groups or categories on the basis of shared characteris-tics	The purpose of organiza-tion and categories is clear for readers	The writer attempts to clearly present the purpose of organiza-tion and categories	The reader finds it hard to understand the clear purpose of organiza-tion and categories	The writer fails to clearly present the purpose of organiza-tion and categories

Introduction: Comparison and Contrast Essay					
Creation of two equivalent topics with a clear focus	Logical and well presented reasons why the writer compares the two equivalent topics	The writer has clear purposes to compare or contrast the two equivalent topics	The writer attempts to present the clear purpose of comparing or contrasting the two equivalent topics	The writer attempts to present the purpose of comparing or contrasting two equivalent topics, but the reader finds it hard to understand	The writer fails to present a clear purpose of comparing or contrasting two equivalent topics
Thesis statement					
Thesis statement	The statement is well written and presents main categories which strongly support the topic	The main categories are clear in the thesis statement and they link to the topic and body paragraphs	The writer attempts to present categories which clearly link to the topic and body paragraphs	The writer lists information without thinking of the unity and coherence of the sentence	The writer fails to present a thesis statement
Section 3: Body Paragraphs					
Topic sentence of each paragraph	Clear, relevant topic and controlling idea used in all body paragraphs where required	The writer clarifies the main points; well supported details	The writer attempts to clarify relevant topic and controlling idea used in all body paragraphs where required	The reader finds it hard to understand relevant topic and controlling idea used in all body paragraphs, where required	The writer fails to identify topic sentence; topics poorly stated and / or unfocused and no controlling idea evident

Support	Logical support for main ideas, with a variety of specific statistics, facts, and examples	Well-developed support for main ideas, with a variety of specific statistics, facts, and examples	Support may be fairly specific, but not greatly varied	Support may be very limited	Support may not be relevant
Unity	Paragraph maintains a clear focus; all details work together to develop a clear point	Paragraph maintains a clear focus; all details work together to develop a clear point	Paragraph demonstrates minor trouble maintaining a clear focus; a few details may wander off the main point	Some trouble maintaining a clear focus; throughout the paragraph the support is sometimes related to the main topic	Serious trouble maintaining a clear focus; throughout the paragraph the support is not related to the main topic
Coherence	Smooth, logical flow of ideas from one sentence to another; nearly all transitions are used where needed	Smooth, logical flow of ideas from one sentence to another; some transitions are used where needed	Most transitions correctly used; a few missing where needed; a few resulting coherence problems	Some transitions correctly used; most missing where needed	Most transitions not correctly used; most missing where needed
Section 4: Conclusion					
Restatement of the thesis statement	Excellent summary with signal words such as *in conclusion*, *to sum up*	Very well organized summary signal words such as *in conclusion*, *to sum up*	The writer attempts to restate and paraphrase thesis statement and main ideas in the body paragraphs	The writer lists main points without thinking of the unity and coherence of sentence	The writer fails to state main points in the essay

Extension beyond the thesis with advice, warnings, predictions or insights	The writer raises very impressive words to give advice, warnings, predictions or insights	The writer demonstrates own view and leaves it for readers to predict	The writer's opinions focus on the topic although some are not relevant	The writer's opinions do not often focus on the topic and some are not relevant	The writer's opinions do not focus on the topic and they are mostly not relevant

Appendix B
Directive Feedback Strategy: Topic 1 Classification Essay

Table B1

Grading Results: Revised Topic 1 Classification Essays

	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Fair	Weak	Number of Students
Overall Criteria	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	***n***
1. Sentence structure	0	0	5	4	3	12
2. Vocabulary and word choice	0	0	6	6	0	12
Introduction						
1. Hook and background information	0	0	1	6	5	12
2. Principle of organization and categories	0	0	4	3	5	12
3. Thesis statement	0	2	5	2	3	12
Body Paragraphs						
1. Topic sentence for each paragraph	0	1	8	1	2	12
2. Ideas organized into unified paragraphs with supporting statistics, facts, or examples	0	0	6	4	2	12
Conclusion						
1. Restatement of the thesis statement	0	3	3	4	2	12
2. Extension beyond the thesis with advice, warnings, predictions, or insights	0	0	4	4	4	12
Total	**0**	**6**	**42**	**34**	**26**	**108**

Table B2

Subjects, Pronouns, Articles, and Prepositions

Areas Improved	*n*	Original Essay	Revised Essay
Subjects ("They" refers to fishermen.)	7	If <u>we</u> have no boats, <u>we</u> cannot travel on the water. <u>We</u> can save time and <u>our</u> fishes also don't have bad smell… <u>The useful transportation</u> is using motor for their living in day life.	If <u>they</u> have no boat <u>they</u> cannot travel on the water. <u>They</u> can save time and the <u>fishes</u> also don't have bad smell. <u>They</u> use motor for their living in day life.
Pronouns	4	All of the <u>people</u> use . . . Now technology changes transportation to modern material that <u>people</u> use to decrease their difficulty.	All of <u>them</u> use . . . Now technology changes transport to modern materials that <u>they</u> use to decrease their difficulty.
Articles	3	When people drive car . . . in outskirt city Topic: Useful transportation	When people drive <u>a</u> car . . . in <u>the</u> outskirt <u>of the</u> city Topic: <u>The</u> useful transportation for <u>fish seller</u>
Prepositions	1	Have you ever think about things that are important <u>in</u> your life?	Have you ever thought about things that are important <u>to</u> your life?

Table B3

Verb Choices

Areas Improved	*n*	Original Essay	Revised Essay
Verbs	8	. . . bicycle to <u>bring</u> them from one place to one place.	People now use planes, motorbikes and bicycle to <u>take</u> them from one place to one place.
		The fish sellers get a little benefit from their selling, so they <u>chose</u> motor	The fish sellers get a little benefit from their selling, so they <u>choose</u> motorbike
		<u>There are</u> many people <u>that</u> use it. It <u>don't use</u> gas or anything ales that can pollute environment.	Many Cambodian people <u>like to use</u> it very much. It <u>does not</u> use gas that pollute environment at all.
		In Cambodia <u>have</u> three types of transportation such as on the land, on the water, air. <u>All of this very useful</u> for people to travel or go anywhere that they want.	In Cambodia, <u>there are</u> three types of transportation such as on the land, on the water, on the air. <u>It is very useful</u> for people to connect with each other, travel or go anywhere that they want.

Table B4

Word Forms

Areas Improved	*n*	Original Essay	Revised Essay
Word form	6	<u>Every people</u> need to travel from one place to <u>other place</u>.	<u>Each person needs</u> to travel from <u>one place to one place</u>.
Plural form	4	People use the different kinds of transportation according to their <u>condition</u> and <u>place</u>.	People use the different kinds of transportation according to their <u>conditions</u> and <u>places</u>.
Spelling	4	<u>Anther</u> transportation is motorbike.	<u>Another</u> transport is motorbike.
		It can take students from their house to school or <u>other pleases</u> that they want.	They can take students from their house to school or <u>other places</u> that they want.

Table B5

Words with Explanations and Examples

Areas Improved	*n*	Original Essay	Revised Essay
Word choice	9	People use the <u>transportation</u> with <u>machine</u> to help them to be short time. <u>Government officer</u>	People use <u>modern transport</u>, such as <u>car, motorbike, boat</u>, and so on, to help them to <u>save</u> time. <u>Government officials</u>
Explanation examples	5	It's the true when people buy a bicycle, it <u>cheaper than</u> <u>motorbike</u>. So, they can <u>afford</u> with it . . . They use it to load people to hospital or to . . .	It's the true, when people buy a bicycle, <u>they can spend at less 30$ for one bicycle.</u> They use it to load people to hospital <u>or village where is far away from their village.</u>
Word order	2	because it spends their <u>money</u> a <u>little.</u>	because it spends a <u>little money</u> to buy gas or oil than car.

Table B6

The Wide Variety of Errors

Areas Improved	*n*	Original Essay	Revised Essay
Simple sentences	4	It can help them to reduce time, it is faster than bicycle, and it spends money less than car but it still help people to work in time.	It is easy to ride in the city . . . because of traffic jam, and is faster than bicycle. They spend money less than car but it still help them to work.
Parallel structures	4	The useful of bicycle for people in countryside such as: <u>healthy, save money and save environment friendly</u>	It make people <u>get healthy, save money and save environment friendly.</u>
Punctuation	3	If a country hasn't transportation it will have problem and don't develop at all. In Cambodia the useful land road transportation...	If a country has not transportation,<u> </u>it will have a lot of problems and it does not develop at all. In Cambodia,<u> </u>the useful land road transportation...
Comparative adjectives	3	Car is <u>more wonderful</u> way for transportation because it can contain many people when they travel.	Cars are the <u>best</u> transportation for traveling. It is <u>bigger</u> size than bicycles and motorbikes.
Clauses *although*	2	Although, it is small <u>but</u> it is enough to go anywhere in the water.	Although it is small, it is enough to go anywhere in the water.
To be + adjective	1	Cambodian uses transportation everyday and tries to think which one <u>is very usefulness.</u>	Cambodian uses transportation everyday and tries to think which one <u>is very useful</u>.
Passive forms	1	<u>it is not only use</u> for going some places, but it is also useful for people to carry materials, goods, and heavy things . . .	<u>motor is not only used</u> for going some places, but it is also useful for people to carry materials, goods, and heavy things . . .

Table B7

Hook and Background Information

Areas Improved	Original Essay	Revised Essay
Unity and coherence of introductory paragraph * Transition expressions	In the ancient time, Cambodian people use elephants as transportation. <u>The time passed, people invented new transportation from simple to sophisticate that have effective function</u> to run their businesses or use for another purposes. There are many kinds of job available in Cambodia including Et Chhay, fish seller, singer…	In the ancient time, Cambodian people use elephants to transport or <u>moved heavy things, especially used for fighting. One time, Cambodia was attacked by Mangolia, but fortunately Cambodia got successful. Because of using elephants, Cambodians armies could kill enemy troops easily. But, now, there is no invasion </u>as before so people focus on businesses or other purposes to live their lives people need different kinds of job are available in Cambodia including Et Chhay, fish seller, singer…
Independent and dependent clauses; present needs and reasons	<u>Today, Science</u> is developing very quickly that makes transportation develop too. Consequently, in Cambodia, <u>we can see many types of transportations</u> that are use by Cambodian.	<u>Since science</u> is developing very quickly, transportations are improving too. Consequently, in Cambodia, many types of transportations are used because<u> they have many advantages to serve the needs</u> of Cambodia society for many years.
Introduction questions	No information	What transports do people use in Cambodia? What are advantages of them?

Table B8

Principles of Organization and Categories, and Thesis Statement

Areas Improved	Original Essay	Revised Essay
Shorten sentence; principles of categories (based on jobs and usefulness)	In Cambodia, there are three essential categories of vehicles that are <u>suitable with the job such as: students are very suitable to ride bicycle. The fish sellers are possible to ride on motor. The high positions of government officers are necessary to use car</u>.	In Cambodia, there are three essential categories of vehicles <u>which are useful with the job such as students, fish sellers, and government officials</u>.
Specify job (fish seller)	Of course, there are three main types of helpful transports <u>such as fish finding boat, motorbike, and bicycle</u>.	In fact there are three types of helpful transportations <u>for fish seller, such as fish finding boat, motorbike, and bicycle</u>.
Specify more information	There are three types that people use transportation: bicycle, motorbike and car.	There are three types that <u>Cambodian people</u> use the <u>land transportation:</u> bicycles, motorbikes and cars for <u>journey everyday in the communication or working</u>.

Table B9

Topic Sentences

Areas Improved	Original Essay	Revised Essay
Transition expressions	Fish finding boats are boats that fish seller need to find fishes and it is the most important thing for fisher man. While boat is important, motorbike is also crucial for them.	<u>The most important</u> type of mean transportation for fish seller is fish finding boat. The second crucial type of transportation for fish seller is motorbike. <u>The third mean transportation</u> that useful for fish seller is bicycle.
Consistent use of words (useful types of transportation in Cambodia)	One <u>classification</u> that is suitable for the students is ride bicycles. Other <u>category</u> that is possible for the fish sellers is ride motorbike. The <u>third type</u> which is the best for the high government officers is car.	One <u>useful type of transportation in Cambodia</u> for the <u>students</u> is bicycle. Other <u>useful type of transportation in Cambodia</u> for the <u>fish sellers</u> is motorbikes. The third <u>useful type of transportation in Cambodia</u> for the <u>government officials</u> is car.

Table B10

Organizational Ideas

Areas Improved	Original Essay	Revised Essay
Examples and explanation	Also, the prices of <u>bicycles are cheap</u> that parents are possible to buy for their children. As we estimate the situation of each family in Cambodia was shown that the level of <u>income in each family is medium or some poor people</u>.	The prices of bicycles in Cambodia are around <u>10 or 15 dollars,</u> so the parents are probable to buy it for their children because <u>the average level income of each people in Cambodia is 30 dollars per month.</u>
Facts and statistics	No information	50% of Cambodian people use bicycles. 30% of Cambodian people use motorbikes. 20% of Cambodian people have cars.

Table B11

Conclusion

Areas Improved	Original Essay	Revised Essay
Signal words Restate information Opinions	Transportation is important according to their geography. They use the transportation to for respective activities in their daily lives. It is the systematic for transportation in Cambodia. We can see people use the transportation in accordance with their abilities and the situation in their village.	<u>As has been demonstrated above,</u> transport is useful according to their places. They can use <u>car, motorbike, bicycle,</u> and so on in accordance with their locations—<u>city, country, and water . . . If people do not have transports in their family, it will be difficult for them to work and live.</u>
Restate the thesis statement	In short, people in the capital use car for their transportation . . .	As has been demonstrated above, <u>people can use their cars for their transportation because . . .</u>

Appendix C
Facilitative Feedback Strategy: Topic 2 Classification Essays

Table C1

Revised Topic 2 Classification Essay

	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Fair	Weak	Number of Students
Overall Criteria	1	2	3	4	5	*n*
1. Sentence structure	0	0	5	7	0	12
2. Vocabulary and word choice	0	1	7	4	0	12
Introduction						
1. Hook and background information	0	2	5	3	2	12
2. Principle of organization and categories	0	7	4	1	0	12
3. Thesis statement	1	6	1	3	1	12
Body Paragraphs						
1. Topic sentence of each paragraph	0	8	3	1	0	12
2. Ideas organized into unified paragraphs with supporting statistics, facts, or examples	0	5	6	0	1	12
Conclusion						
1. Restatement of the thesis statement	0	5	4	1	2	12
2. Extension beyond the thesis with advice, warnings, predictions, or insights	0	2	7	2	1	12
Total	1	36	42	22	7	108

Table C2

Sentence Structures

Students' Problems	Original Essay	Students' Improvements and Problems	Revised Essay
Tenses	The world is peace but there have a lot of street children, widower, people which did not have full leg or arm and the poor social structures. For solving this situation, a lot of organizations were created for support people's living. Cambodia, after the war they have been shortage . . .	Tenses (improved mostly in the three body paragraphs)	When we finished the war, Cambodia is shortage the human resources . . . Cambodia has request an FAO.
Poor subjects	NGOs (*key word*) try to support health service . . . They cure people . . . They teach people. NGOs (*key word*) have supported the school . . . It does not take students' money . . .	Poor subjects (mostly improved)	The children have to separate with their mum. API goes to training the farmer
Verbs	In Cambodia, there have social structure only in the city but at the rural areas, it does not have.	Two main verbs (new problems)	It is trying to promote the Cambodian to stop think . . . It against children to drop school by doesn't take school fee. . . . the boys always restead their father's job like the father is farmer so the boy is farmer.

| Punctuation | Since, NGOs represented in Cambodia, we can see Cambodia have developing . . . | | |
| Plagiarism (copied information from brochure) | The Advocacy and Policy Institute (API) is a Cambodian Non-profit and non-government organization with a mission to serve the long- term democratic and social development needs of Cambodia . . . | Fragments (new problems) | When the NGOs can make these three sectors above be strong. The Cambodian will became a develop countries. |

Table C3

Vocabulary and Word Choices

Students' Problems	Original Essay	Students' Improvements and Problems	Revised Essay
Do not use own words to create sentences	Increase South to South learning and promote the use of evidence based approaches to reduce the impact of HIV and AIDs	Do not understand the variety of word choice	UNDP creates schools for children and rent teachers to teach that don't take school fee from children.

Table C4

Hook and Background Information

Students' Problems	Original Essay	Students' Improvements and Problems	Revised Essay
Do not discuss the topic directly	During the World War II in 1945, it was damaged everything such as home, animal, woods, people . . .	Discuss the topic directly	During the Civil War (Khmer Rough) in Cambodia (1975-1979), the civil war hunted everything . . .

Table C5

Principles of Organization and Categories

Students' Problems	Original Essay	Students' Improvements and Problems	Revised Essay
Clear types of NGOs and their responsibility	The advantages of NGOs in Cambodia can be classified into <u>three types</u> which take <u>responsibility</u> on health, education, and rural development.	Clear <u>groups</u> of NGOs and their responsibility	The NGOs which bring advantage to Cambodia can be classified into <u>three groups</u> which take <u>responsibility</u> on health, education, and rural development.

Table C6

Thesis Statement

Students' Problems	Original Essay	Students' Improvements and Problems	Revised Essay
The topic and the main ideas of the body paragraphs are not clear.	<u>The advantages of NGOs</u> in Cambodia can be classified into <u>three types</u> which take responsibility on <u>health, education, and rural development</u>.	The topic and the main ideas of the body paragraphs are clear.	<u>The NGOs which bring advantage</u> to Cambodia can be classified into <u>three groups</u> which take responsibility on <u>health, education, and rural development</u>.

Table C7

Body Paragraphs

Students' Problems	Original Essay	Students' Improvements and Problems	Revised Essay
Discuss only advantage and responsibility but miss the word "group" or "type"	One advantage of NGOs in Cambodia is health.	Discuss advantages and main focuses	One group of NGOs, which have advantage for Cambodia, focus on health is CARE and KHANA.
	Another advantage of NGOs in Cambodia is education.		Other group of NGOs focus on education is UNDP and Save the Children.
	The third advantage of NGOs in Cambodia is rural development.		The third group of NGOs focus on rural development is API and FAO.
No statistics or clear explanation	Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) represent in Cambodia is seeking a qualified candidate to fill position of National Consultant on Forests and Climate Change.	Statistics and clear explanation	At Samlot, in Battambang province, UNDP build 10 primary schools for children. Save the children educates female children to go to study. It against children to drop chool . . .
			FAO also care about the produce of rice. It teaches people to grow rice 3 times per years. It estimates the climate for the farmer.

Table C8

Conclusions

Students' Problems	Original Essay	Students' Improvements and Problems	Revised Essay
No signal words Present new topic	Since, NGOs represented in Cambodia, we can see . . . ...compare with the Cambodia at nineteen century.	Signal words and clear focus to the essay main points.	As you can see.....NGOs can help the government of Cambodia with a lot of <u>sectors... strong... good health and education</u>.

Appendix D
Facilitative Feedback Strategy: Comparison / Contrast Essays

Table D

Revised Comparison / Contrast Essay

	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Fair	Weak	Number of Students
Overall Criteria	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	***n***
1. Sentence structure	1	3	7	1	0	12
2. Vocabulary and word choice	1	4	6	1	0	12
Introduction						
1. Hook and background information	2	6	3	0	1	12
2. Two equivalent topics with a clear focus	2	6	3	1	0	12
3. Thesis statement	5	5	2	0	0	12
Body Paragraphs						
1. Topic sentence of each paragraph	3	6	1	2	0	12
2. Ideas organized into unified paragraphs with supporting statistics, facts, or examples	2	4	5	1	0	12
Conclusions						
1. Restatement of the thesis statement	4	6	1	1	0	12
2. Extension beyond the thesis with advice, warnings, predictions, or insights	4	7	0	1	0	12
Total	**24**	**47**	**28**	**8**	**1**	**108**

Feedback in Academic Writing:
Using Feedback to Feed-Forward

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Feedback is a key element of both teaching and learning in academic writing. Students generally take note of feedback on the first draft of an essay, as they are required to rewrite it and are motivated to achieve a good grade. However, feedback on final drafts is often ignored or forgotten before the next essay. This can be frustrating for teachers, as well as a missed opportunity for students to learn lessons from the final draft and take these forward to the next essay. This paper describes an attempt to implement the concept of "feed-forward" by encouraging students to engage actively with final draft feedback and be more proactive in the feedback process through feedback dialogues with the teacher. Current literature on feedback and evaluation is reviewed, followed by an explanation of the methods adopted. Results are then analyzed and, although tentative at this stage, are judged to be positive.

This paper describes an action research study undertaken at a Japanese university to facilitate active student engagement in the feedback process as a way of developing student writing skills and increasing learner autonomy. The classes followed the process writing method of drafting, revising, and rewriting with feedback given at each stage. Students were generally motivated to read and respond to feedback at the drafting stages, knowing that they would have the opportunity to rewrite and improve the essay. However, when the final essay was returned, there was a tendency for students to see it as a finished product. Any feedback given on the final draft was either not read or not acted upon.

This study was an attempt to encourage students to read and respond to final draft teacher feedback and carry forward ideas for improvement to the next essay, hence the term *feed-forward*. This paper does not claim to have invented this term, defined by Duncan (2007) as applying old feedback to a new task (see also Duncan, Prowse,

Wakeman, & Harrison, 2004; Higgins, Hartley, & Skelton, 2001; Murtagh & Baker, 2009; Rae & Cochrane, 2008). This study represents a practical attempt to implement a feed-forward approach in the classroom. The next section will review current literature on feedback and evaluation as it relates to academic writing. The aims and methods of the study will then be described, followed by a discussion of the results and future research possibilities.

Literature Review

Process Writing

The emergence of process writing in the field of ESL in the early 1980s has been well documented. As its name suggests, it is characterized by a shift in focus from the final product to the process of achieving the final product (Matsuda, 2003; Myers, 1997; Tribble, 1996). The process approach has many advantages, including developing student autonomy and evaluative skills by fostering students' sense of ownership and responsibility for revising their own work (Wakabayashi, 2008). In addition, the emphasis of process over product has prompted a change in attitudes towards evaluation and assessment (Gibbs & Simpson, 2004-2005; Wada, 2006).

Summative Versus Formative Evaluation

Traditionally, assessment has been seen as a judgment on the final product, or summative evaluation, as opposed to a constructive contribution to a work in progress, or formative evaluation (see Boston, 2002; Collins, 2004; Sadler, 1989). According to Gibbs & Simpson (2004-2005), if feedback is to support learning, students must have the opportunity to act on it, while Wiggins (2004) maintains that feedback is more beneficial if given during rather than after performance. This supports the research into assessment for learning conducted by Black and Wiliam (1998), which further suggests that feedback is more effective when it gives guidance on strengths and weaknesses without a grade being assigned. Process writing lends itself to this approach since feedback on early drafts does not usually include a grade and students have the chance to act on feedback received to improve their essay and develop their writing skills (Carless, 2006; Ferris, 2003). Of course, formative feedback can be written on a final draft when a grade is assigned (Collins, 2004), but students are not inclined to read it, as they do not necessarily see how comments on one assignment might help them with an assignment on a different topic (Carless, 2006; Duncan et al., 2004). Once the final product has been submitted and graded, it is seen as the end of the process rather than as another step in a much longer process.

Teacher Feedback

This trend towards using feedback and assessment for learning has produced an increasing body of research, although more is needed (Carless, 2006; Mutch, 2003), particularly in an EFL context. Given the amount of time and effort expended on writing feedback, teachers want their feedback to be effective (Duncan, 2007; Ferris, 2003). Research has focused on what kind of feedback to give (form or content), especially in EFL writing (Myers, 1997; Newfields, 2003; Tribble, 1996; Wada, 2006), and also on ways of giving feedback (Falout, 2008). A number of studies have examined student responses to teacher feedback with some supporting the view that students take very little notice of feedback and are only concerned about the grade (Chanock, 2000; Ecclestone, 1998; Hounsell, 1987). Other findings indicate that students do value feedback (Duncan, 2007; Taras, 2003; Weaver, 2006); moreover, they expect it and feel they deserve it (Higgins, Hartley & Skelton, 2002). However, most research suggests that feedback, even when valued, is often not as helpful as students would like or as teachers would like to think (Carless, 2006; Gibbs & Simpson, 2004-2005; Hounsell, McCune, Hounsell & Litjens, 2008). Feedback has been criticized for being unclear or vague and for not providing advice or guidance (Chanock, 2000; Murtagh & Baker, 2009; Weaver, 2006). There are indications that teachers and students perceive the effectiveness of the feedback process very differently (Carless, 2006; Higgins et al., 2001; Mutch, 2003), all of which suggests the need to find new ways of giving written feedback in the context of a more formative approach to evaluation.

Feedback Dialogues

The literature has also emphasized that feedback is more effective when it allows students to take some responsibility for their own learning (Sadler, 1989; Weaver, 2006). One of the goals of feedback should be to develop autonomous learners (Murtagh & Baker, 2009) able to "self-manage" learning, and one role of teachers is to encourage them to do this (Rae & Cochrane, 2008). The process approach offers such opportunities, but requires a move away from the idea of feedback as "a linear transfer of information" from teacher to student (Higgins et al., 2001, p. 271) towards more of a dialogue (Carless, 2006; Hyland & Hyland, 2006). This allows for an ongoing process of negotiation in which students are actively engaged in order to reduce the possibility of confusion and misunderstanding (Taras, 2003). In addition, the idea of feedback as a dialogue requires teachers to consider what feedback students want and how they respond to it (Carless, 2006; Mutch, 2003), potentially improving the effectiveness of teacher feedback. The dialogue concept is also supported by research into the interpersonal

aspects of teachers' written feedback by Hyland & Hyland (2006), which emphasizes feedback as an ongoing process focusing on text, learning context, and the needs of individual students rather than simply a response to each text in isolation.

Aims

This study represents an attempt to establish a feedback dialogue approach with the following aims:

1. To facilitate active student engagement in the feedback process by encouraging students to reflect and act on final draft teacher feedback by feeding-forward to the next assignment. Despite references to the feed-forward idea in the literature, there have been few attempts to put it into practice (see Duncan, 2007; Duncan et al, 2004).
2. To increase learner autonomy by giving students the opportunity to set goals and request feedback on specific aspects of their essays.
3. To improve the effectiveness of teacher feedback in responding to the concerns of students.

Methodology

The project was carried out over a two-year period with second-year and third-year English majors at a Japanese university.

Teaching Context

Students are required to produce five or six essays during the year, with each assignment involving at least a first and final draft. After the first draft, students receive a combination of peer and teacher feedback as well as engage in self-evaluation activities in the form of checklists. Teacher feedback is written on a First Draft Evaluation form (see Appendix A). Students are given detailed feedback on organizational aspects of the essay and on content. The criteria depend on the focus of the essay and are different for second-year and third-year students to reflect the different aims of these classes. The scores from 1 to 5 give students an indication of the strengths and weaknesses of the essay and do not represent a grade. The comment box provides an opportunity for comments on additional areas such as writing style, and for advice and guidance on how to improve the essay. Grammatical or vocabulary issues are highlighted on the essay itself. On the return of the final draft, students are given feedback on a Final Essay Evaluation sheet (see Appendix B). The 1-5 scale is a way of highlighting the strengths and weaknesses of the essay, but the letter

grade is a holistic assessment based on the overall impression of the essay rather than the sum of its parts. This feedback combines a summative evaluation of the essay and a formative assessment, including advice on areas for improvement in the comments section.

This Study

The study introduced an additional stage in the feedback process with a "feed-forward" form (see Appendix C). When the final draft of Essay 1 was returned with a grade and feedback, students were asked to read the feedback and identify two goals for the next essay. They wrote the goals on the form and the forms were collected. On submission of the first draft of Essay 2, students were asked to review the goals they had set, decide if they had made any progress towards achieving their aims, and write their responses on the form. They also had the opportunity at this point to write questions about their essays. The feed-forward forms were then submitted with the first drafts. On the return of the first draft of Essay 2, students received feedback on a first draft evaluation form as well as responses to their questions on the feed-forward form. They began revisions to their essays in class so they could ask questions to clarify the feedback or ask for advice on how to implement the improvements suggested. When the students submitted the final draft of Essay 2, they wrote two questions or identified two areas they specifically wanted feedback about on the feed-forward form and submitted it with their essay. Their questions could either relate to their first draft goals or to a different issue. On return of the final draft, students received comments on a final draft feedback form and also a response to the questions on the feed-forward form. At this point, the process began again; students were asked to read the feedback in class and identify two goals for Essay 3. In this way, a more cyclical process of feedback was established (Hounsell et al., 2008) which acknowledged the relationship between each essay and the ongoing development of each student.

Results and Discussion

This method has been adopted for two academic years, or four semesters. However, the data collected and analysed was based on only one semester, so the sample is small and the results not conclusive at this stage. The results will be discussed in terms of the aims stated above.

Encouraging Students to Reflect on Final Draft Feedback and Feed-Forward

In respect of the first aim, the study was successful. Students were given time to read the feedback in class. They had to think about the feedback and respond by identifying future goals based on it. The feed-forward forms established a concrete connection between each essay assignment for students. At the end of the year, a questionnaire was carried out amongst students who had participated in the study (see Appendix D). The questionnaires were anonymous and students were told that any responses, both positive and negative, would be useful for research purposes.

For Question 1, over 90% circled a combination of the first 4 answers:

1. I enjoyed it / it was helpful.
2. I didn't like doing it but it was helpful.
3. It made me think more about how to improve my writing.
4. It made me read the feedback on my essay more carefully.

Of 42 students who completed the survey, three responded that it took too much time and one did not understand why she was doing it.

The responses to Questions 2-5 are as follows:

2. Was it useful to ask questions and get answers from me on the form?
   Yes - 39   No - 0   Not Sure - 3

3. Did you like setting your own goals for your next essay?
   Yes - 31   No - 3   Not Sure - 8

4. Did the feed-forward forms help you understand your mistakes better?
   Yes - 42   No - 0   Not Sure - 0

5. Do you think the feed-forward form helped you improve your writing?
   Yes - 40   No - 0   Not Sure - 2

In addition, there was an opportunity for students to write comments about the feedback they received. Only a small number of students wrote responses, but all comments were positive.

The sample was small and these students are, for the most part, well motivated and not inclined to respond negatively; however, their responses are certainly encouraging. The comments written on the feed-forward forms were detailed and thoughtful; they suggest students did reflect carefully on the feedback and how to use it and did not simply do it just to get it done (see Appendix E). From the teacher's perspective, students in both classes did show improvement from the first draft to the final draft and over the course of the year, but it is not possible to say if this is directly connected to the feed-forward forms. Further research would be needed to assess the extent to which improvements related to the goals set on the feed-forward forms. In addition, the form could be modified to ask students to specify what improvements they had made rather than just asking them if they felt they had improved. This would provide useful data on how students use feedback, which is an area in need of further research.

Increasing Students' Autonomy and Sense of Responsibility for Their Own Learning

The second aim was achieved by asking students, on submission of the final draft, to be proactive and request feedback on points of concern rather than rely solely on the teacher's judgment. In addition, students were asked to set their own goals. The responses to Question 3, about goal setting, were not as overwhelmingly positive as the responses to Questions 2, 4, and 5, suggesting some reluctance or uncertainty by students. This may indicate the need for more support and scaffolding to develop students' ability to evaluate, edit, and revise their work based on their own decisions. One way to do this would be to use checklists of possible goals for students to choose from until they become confident enough to set their own. Alternatively, students could summarize the feedback they receive, discuss it with their peers and set goals for each other as a step towards setting goals for themselves.

It is possible students felt constrained by the design of the form, which asked them to set their own goals in response to feedback received. They may not have understood the feedback and so felt unable to set goals based on it, or else they wanted to set goals that were important for them, but were not based on the feedback, suggesting a possible gap between the priorities of the teacher and the concerns of the students. This raises the question of the relevance of teacher feedback, which leads to the third aim.

Improving Feedback Effectiveness by Direct Response to Student Concerns

Possibly one of the most significant benefits of this study was that, through dialogue, the teacher could provide more focused, targeted feedback that directly responded to student concerns. It can be speculated that students were more motivated to read and act on feedback that responded to their questions, thereby improving the effectiveness of teacher feedback. More research needs to be done to establish if this is the case.

Some analysis was done on the kind of questions students asked and an attempt was made to compare student priorities with those of the teacher (see Appendix F). The results are tentative and somewhat predictable.   Briefly, they suggest that students focus more on grammatical and lexical problems than the teacher feedback does. In contrast, the teacher feedback emphasizes content, whereas students see this as less of a priority and are less likely to spontaneously ask for feedback on this point. The feed-forward forms provide a useful source of data for further research in this area.

Additional Benefits of the Study

1. The feed-forward form provided a record of progress throughout the semester for both student and teacher.
2. Questions asked by the students on the feed-forward forms highlighted areas of difficulty which could then be reviewed in class, thus providing valuable feedback for the teacher on the success of the lessons.

Conclusion

Overall, the study was successful in terms of its primary aims of (1) encouraging students to make use of final draft feedback and to see each essay as the next step in the process of developing their writing, (2) increasing student autonomy, and (3) improving the effectiveness of feedback by finding out what feedback students want and responding to it. Based on the questionnaire responses and anecdotal evidence, the initial response from students has been positive, but more research is needed on the connection between the feed-forward system and improvements made. As a means of enhancing the effectiveness of the feedback process, the feed-forward system described in this study has much to recommend it in both academic and general writing classes.

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Appendix A
First Draft Evaluation Form

Key Components	Comment				
Introduction contained background information; thesis statement and main points of the essay were clearly stated.					
Paragraph topics were clear and supported the thesis; supporting sentences gave details and examples to support the topic sentence.					
Conclusion restates the thesis, summarizes the main points and effectively brings the essay to a close.					
Essay was appropriate length. Content was thoughtful. Ideas were well supported with evidence and examples from sources.					
Content	5	4	3	2	1
Organisation	5	4	3	2	1

Comments:

This form was adapted from feedback forms used in the School of International and Liberal Studies at Waseda University, Tokyo, where the author previously worked.

Appendix B
Final Essay Evaluation Form

Name:

Your essay is graded on three elements: **content** (what you say), **organization** (how well you organize your ideas into a 5-paragraph essay structure) and **clarity** (how clearly you express your ideas in English). The scores in the box helps you understand what was good about your essay and what you need to improve. The final letter grade is awarded for the overall essay, taking into account all the strong and weak points.

5 = Excellent   4 = Very good   3 = Good   2 = Needs Improvement   1 = Poor

---

Content: 5   4   3   2   1

(Length was appropriate, content was relevant and ideas were developed with details, explanation and examples from sources)

Organisation: 5   4   3   2   1

(Essay is organized in a 5-paragraph essay structure with a clear thesis statement; thesis is supported in the body of the essay; conclusion summarizes the essay and brings it to a close effectively)

Clarity: 5   4   3   2   1

(Vocabulary was appropriate; grammar errors were few and not serious, so meaning was clear and essay was easy to read)

FINAL GRADE: _____

Comments:

<div align="center">

Appendix C
Feed-Forward Form

</div>

Return of the Final Draft of Essay 1
After reading the feedback on your essay, what two things do you want
to improve in your next essay? *(Be specific - don't just say "organization.")*
1.   _____
2.   _____

Submission of the First Draft of Essay 2
Look at the two points you said you wanted to improve after
completing the first essay. Do you think you have improved in these
two areas? If you are not sure, or if you have any questions, write them
here.
1.   _____
2.   _____

My response:
_____
_____

Submission of the Final Draft of Essay 2
What two aspects of your essay would you like feedback about? If you
have any questions you want to ask me about your essay, write them
here.
1.   _____
2.   _____

My response:
_____
_____

Return of the Final Draft of Essay 2
After reading the feedback on your essay, what two things do you want
to improve in your next essay? *(Be specific - don't just say "organization.")*
1.   _____
2.   _____

Submission of the First Draft of Essay 3
Look at the two points you said you wanted to improve after
completing the second essay. Do you think you have improved in these
two areas? If you are not sure, or if you have any questions, write them
here.
1.   _____
2.   _____

My response:
_____
_____

Appendix D
Questionnaire

1. How did you feel about the completing the feed-forward forms?
    (Circle the answer(s) you agree with - you can circle more than one)

    I enjoyed it and it was helpful

    I didn't like doing it but it was helpful

    It made me think more about how to improve my writing

    It made me read the feedback on my essay more carefully

    It took too much time

    It was boring

    I didn't understand the teacher's responses / writing

    I didn't understand why I was doing it

2. Was it useful to ask questions and get answers from me on the form?

    Yes   No   Not Sure

3. Did you like setting your own goals for your next essay?

    Yes   No   Not Sure

4. Did the feed-forward forms help you to understand your mistakes better?

    Yes   No   Not Sure

5. Do you think the feed-forward form helped you to improve your writing?

    Yes   No   Not Sure

6. Do you have any other comments on the essay feedback you received?

Appendix E
Feed-Forward Form Example

11/9 Submission of Final Draft of Essay 1

What aspects of your essay would you like feedback about? Are there any questions you would like to ask about your essay?

1. *I want to know how to use conjunctions again.*
2. *Can I use past tense about movies?*

My response:

1. *You can make some of your short sentences into longer sentences by using conjunctions such as 'so' 'and' 'but' (see BP3).*
2. *We usually use present tense for plot summaries of films and novels but the main thing is to be consistent.*

11/16 Return of Final Draft of Essay 1

After reading the feedback on your essay, what two things do you want to improve in your next essay? *(Be specific - don't just say "organization.")*

1. *Write longer sentences!*
2. *Use conjunctions effectively!*

11/30 Submission of First Draft of Essay 2

Look at the two points you said you wanted to improve after completing the first essay. Do you think you have improved in these areas? If you're not sure, or if you have any questions, write them here.

1. *I tried to write longer sentences and I believe I could.*
2. *It's difficult to use conjunctions, but I tried hard.*

My response:

1. *I think so too! I didn't notice any sentences that were too short.*
2. *You did much better with conjunctions.*

12/14 Submission of Final Draft of Essay 2

What aspects of your essay would you like feedback about? Are there any questions you would like to ask about your essay?

1. *I quoted parts of poem in BP1. How is it?*
2. *I forgot writing "work consulted". I'm sorry.*

My response:

1. *You quoted correctly but the lines you quoted don't really support your point. Other lines would be better.*
2. *OK!*

1/11 Return of Final Draft of Essay 2

After reading the feedback on your essay, what two things do you want to improve in your next essay? *(Be specific - don't just say "organization.")*

1. *I want to choose correct quotations*
2. *I should write examples which support my idea*

Appendix F
Content Analysis of Feed-Forward Form Responses

Thirty forms were analyzed. Some forms were not included because they were incomplete due to student absence on the day of submission or return of the forms. The forms contained two types of questions: directed, where students had to set goals in response to feedback received, and undirected, where students could ask about any aspect of their essay without reference to teacher feedback. Common categories of feedback were identified, for example, organization, content, quotations and citations, grammar and vocabulary, style, and coherence. Each comment from each form was placed into one of the categories. The results are as shown in Table F.

Table F

Feed-Forward Form Content Analysis by Question Type and Category

Categories	Directed Question Responses	Undirected Question Responses
Essay structure / Organization	33.0%	30.0%
Content (including use of examples, details for support)	24.5%	14.5%
Quoting and citing sources	11.5%	14.5%
Grammatical accuracy	18.0%	23.0%
Vocabulary	5.0%	10.0%
Academic style	3.0%	2.0%
Coherence / Logical order	0.0%	3.0%
Other (including spelling / layout)	4.5%	2.0%

Note. Percentages were rounded up or down to 0.5 or the nearest whole number.

The main areas of discrepancy are in terms of content and grammar and vocabulary. Thirty-three percent of undirected questions refer to grammar and vocabulary compared with 23% of responses to feedback suggesting that students focus more on grammatical and lexical problems than the teacher feedback does. In contrast, there are more content-based responses to directed questions, suggesting that teacher feedback emphasizes content, whereas students see this as less of a priority and are less likely to spontaneously ask for feedback on this point.

Adapting Textbooks to Reflect Student Needs in Cambodia and the ASEAN Region

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The authors first discuss the emergence of English as a lingua franca in Cambodia and elsewhere in Southeast Asia, and the emergence of Kirkpatrick's (2011) multilingual model of English teaching in the region. They then consider the importance of textbook adaptation as a way of supporting this new paradigm and the role that non-native-speaking teachers have in creating these adaptations. A detailed example of textbook adaptation, which explains (1) why to consider adapting materials and (2) how to make well-considered, manageable changes, is then provided as a model for practitioners to consider. Finally, some practical concerns teachers might have about textbook adaptations are addressed.

A Japanese-coordinated meeting between delegates from Cambodia and Colombia to plan training in rural land-mine removal took place in October 2010 in Phnom Penh, Cambodia. No representatives from an English-speaking country participated. In which language was the training held? Not surprisingly, the answer is English. (S. Nem, personal communication, March 20, 2011).

This is just one example of how English is already used in Cambodia as a means of communication between people who do not share it as their first language. Such interaction in Cambodia and the other members of ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) will continue to grow. This growth is due, at least partially, to (1) the fact that use of English as the organization's sole working language is already mandated (Association of Southeast Asian Nations, 2007) and

(2) the promotion of "English as an international business language at the work place" being one objective of ASEAN's plans for regional integration in 2015 (ASEAN Secretariat, 2009, p. 3). Clearly, English use among non-native speakers is taking on an ever-increasing role in the spread of professional information in the region.

This article briefly reviews Kirkpatrick's "multilingual model" of English teaching (2011, p. 221) as a rationale for continued professional development for teachers that aims to challenge traditional assumptions about textbook use and hone the skills necessary for teachers to modify textbook materials to help their learners use English as a lingua franca (ELF). For the purposes of this article, Kirkpatrick's (2011) basic definition of ELF, English that is used in conversation by two or more people who do not share the same first language (L1), is used.

Moving Toward a Multilingual Model of ELT in Cambodia and the ASEAN Region

Despite the fact that communication between non-native speakers now constitutes the majority of interactions in ELF worldwide, teachers and learners continue to rely on native-speaker models as the ultimate standards for judging English language learning (Seidlhofer, 2005). Kirkpatrick (2010, 2011), reflecting on this paradox in Cambodia and the ASEAN region, described a regional English that has some nonstandard grammatical and pronunciation features. He then proposed a different set of benchmarks for measuring students' progress: the skills needed by multilingual learners in the ASEAN region as they move toward a Southeast Asian English. His main argument is that Cambodian speakers of English, for instance, do not need merely to imitate native speakers, but instead must reach a level of mutual intelligibility with their regional peers. In other words, a speaker's reason for using the language determines when a regional variation is an acceptable alternative to standard varieties of English (e.g., for day-to-day work conversation with non-L1 speakers) and when it is not (e.g., in preparing for standardized tests such as IELTS or TOEFL).

Based on this concept, Kirkpatrick (2011, p. 221) suggested a "Multilingual Model of ELT," in which multilingual English teachers become the preferred linguistic role models for ASEAN students. Two pioneering studies of English language learners in Cambodia indicate that this model could already be beginning to take hold in the country. Keuk (2008, p. 98) succinctly described Cambodia's specific language-learning context as one where "learners who have attended English language training centers and institutions run by Cambodian institutions . . . pick up another kind of English variety, hybridized

between either of the [American or British] models, and their mother tongue, Khmer." Young Cambodians, he added, are already using this blend of language-learning input to create successful communication for personal, educational, and work-related purposes. Moore and Bounchan's (2010) survey of the opinions of students at the Institute of Foreign Languages at the Royal University of Phnom Penh regarding the value of Cambodian ELT faculty there found that a growing minority of learners appreciated the value of Cambodian teachers of English because of "how they could help their students to learn English, whereas native English speakers seem to be valued only as role models for English pronunciation and spoken interaction" (p. 123). While this finding might not hold true in other settings, the possible emergence of a trend is an intriguing area for future research. At present, it seems clear from both Keuk as well as Moore and Bounchan's observations that at least some Cambodian students are developing and articulating their own sense for when instruction by a native speaker is advantageous (e.g., for models of pronunciation) and when local teachers are more effective (e.g., providing "cultural understanding of issues" and explaining English grammar in the L1) (Moore & Bounchan, p. 123). Thus, it is fair to say that local, non-native-speaking English teachers, especially those who are well versed in both regional and standard varieties of English, are in a strong position to help their students. In addition, by being aware of the language goals that their students have set for themselves, these teachers can best decide whether, and for which students, grammar and pronunciation instruction must aim toward international intelligibility or a native-like result.

The Teacher's Role in Adapting Textbooks

Kirkpatrick (2011) observed, however, that progress in developing regional varieties of English is being impeded by standardized textbooks and other materials currently in use, specifically American and British texts that largely present native-speaker norms. This is certainly a situation unlikely to change anytime soon, as Tomlinson (2006, p. 131) remarked:

> all the coursebooks I know which are sold on the global market still use one of these prestige standards as their model of correctness. It would be a brave publisher who risked financial failure by publishing a global coursebook with an EIL core or a variety of world Englishes as its model(s).

Fortunately, teachers in Cambodia and throughout the ASEAN region need not wait for either daring publishers or innovative

government policies to start moving toward an ELF multilingual model of teaching.   Teachers themselves can start by making small adaptations in existing, widely used textbooks. The current reality is, however, that many instructors are hesitant to make any changes in the textbook, even if their school directors allow it.   This hesitancy, Richards suggested, is often based on the following assumptions about textbooks (1998, cited by McGrath, 2002):

- Everything in a lesson is equally important for students.
- Explanations and cultural information in textbooks should not be questioned.
- Teachers do not have the authority or expertise to adapt textbook lessons.
- Activities in a textbook are always superior to those created by teachers.

In addition to these beliefs, another factor might limit teachers' willingness to modify text activities: lack of experience. However, despite these factors, some Cambodian teachers have come to recognize that textbook adaptation is not only important, but also achievable, even for teachers who have limited classroom experience. As shown below, all teachers can learn to logically, systematically, and simply make changes to their textbook material that will contribute greatly toward student success in local and international contexts.

Why and How to Adapt Materials
The Why
Once teachers have accepted the idea that they can make changes to the text, the decision to change has to be made based on the content of each activity. While the objective of an activity may be important for students, its presentation might be too simple or uninteresting for them. Of course, care is required before making major changes to textbooks, since doing so could undermine the student-teacher relationship--students might, for example, question the teachers' judgment or resent paying for a textbook that is not fully used. Thus, deciding wisely whether to use an activity (and if so, to use it as is or to modify it) or not to use it (and then whether to simply omit the activity or replace it with another) (Harmer, 2007) is the key to good textbook adaptation. Furthermore, if a decision has been made to adapt an activity to better meet the needs of a particular classroom, the teacher must have and be able to articulate a clear idea why the material in the text needs to be made better. Among the reasons McGrath (2002)

offers teachers to consider when they are contemplating adaptation of material are the following:

- To localize it, by replacing a Western setting or context with local or regional ones that let students focus more on language objectives, rather than on the culture (e.g., preview a lesson on city life by showing and discussing with students a photo of a local police officer before they read a text centered on a British "bobby").
- To personalize it, by devising examples and activities that relate directly to students, ones that reflect their academic or professional interests and let them use their life experience and learned knowledge (e.g., help students create menus in English featuring their favorite local dishes before they read a text focusing on a Western restaurant menu).
- To modernize it, by updating language or cultural settings that seem out of date (e.g., read aloud or have students read a recent article in English on a work-related issue, such as the use of mobile phones in the workplace, from an online news source or local newspaper before they listen to a dialogue set in a conventional office).
- To simplify it, by streamlining procedures to make activities more accessible (e.g., edit texts to reduce linguistic difficulty or break down complex tasks into more manageable pieces).

The How

Any of the above aims can be useful in determining why to customize textbook lessons; however, a teacher must also decide how to adapt an activity, which can be especially difficult when time and resources are scarce. Fortunately, Harmer (2007, p. 183) offers a concise set of techniques for implementing text changes (rearranged from the original list to reflect their relative ease of use):

- Re-ordering parts of a lesson or lessons within a unit. Example: If many students in the class find the reading exercises difficult, start with the lesson's listening activity to introduce key ideas and vocabulary before they begin the reading.

- Reducing by cutting out activities that are not necessary for learners to achieve the lesson's objectives. Example: When doing in-class exercises on what is usually considered a difficult grammar point, such as using relative clauses as modifiers, move on before completing all of the exercises if the class already "gets it" and does not need further practice.
- Adding more practice or other activities. Example: If, unlike in the situation above, students are struggling with relative clauses, create simple activities (e.g., have students work in groups to use relative clauses to write and share descriptions of important people or places in the community).
- Re-writing or replacing material with Internet-based or "homegrown" resources. Example: After students skim a textbook reading on transport that describes subway systems around world, help them use the format of the article to write their own articles on the use of tuk-tuks, mototaxis, and trucks as means of public transport.

This, of course, is not an all-inclusive list. Any of these techniques can be combined within a single activity, and teachers can also develop their own types of text adaptations.

A key to the revision process, Harmer concluded, is remembering "that students need to be able to see a coherent pattern to what we are doing and understand our reasons for change" (2007, p. 183). So if an activity provides practice in using the present perfect and the teacher substitutes a different grammar point (e.g., present continuous), the teacher must be able explain why that change was made, especially if it deviates from the lesson objectives. Then, should a school director or a student ask why the text was modified, the instructor will be able to offer a convincing reason (because, for example, the text has covered present perfect repeatedly and the students, in fact, need more practice in the present continuous). A final point for teachers to remember, however, is that there is nothing inherently wrong with using the textbook as is; only when a text lesson does not adequately reflect the needs and interests of learners must changes be considered. The textbook activity below demonstrates how a commonplace lesson can be made more effective by increasing its relevance to students.

A hypothetical textbook example. The example listening exercise shown in Appendix A is a starting point to demonstrate how teachers can fine-tune an activity to increase student interest in a pre-intermediate class, always keeping in mind that the most important guiding principle is to stay focused on the objective of the activity (this activity is modeled after a frequently used type of classroom activity

and is not from a commercial textbook). Below is some background information to consider before analyzing the activity:

- Travel is a common subject covered in textbooks because it is a universally interesting topic for students.
- Many texts discuss places that are either unknown to students in the ASEAN region or are not realistic for them to visit.
- This is a listening activity practicing superlatives, at a pre-intermediate to intermediate level.

Analyzing the activity. Answering questions about the content of an activity, as shown in the rubric below, can help teachers make a decision about whether they should adapt this listening activity (or any other type of activity) for their classroom.

Question	Response	Suggestions for Textbook Adaptation
What is the objective of the activity?	Practicing superlatives	Be sure to keep the grammar point as the main focus of the revised activity.
Is the material at an appropriate level for the students?	No, there are two new areas of study being introduced at the same time (adjective forms, and information about the cities). This is also a listening activity, and these are generally difficult for students.	Consider spending more time on this activity and reducing time spent on less important activities in the lesson.
Is the activity important?	Yes, because the students need practice activities concerning this grammar point.	Be sure the revised activity gives students plenty of opportunity to practice use of the new grammar point.
Is the activity interesting to students?	Not really, because the students have little or no knowledge of the cities in the dialogue.	Modify the activity by localizing it (replacing foreign place names with Cambodian ones) so students will more easily remember the material.

Figure 1. A sample rubric for deciding whether and how to adapt a textbook activity, with possible reponses and suggestions for adaptations.

Analyzing, implementing, and adjusting the changes made. As shown in Appendix B, the conversation can be rewritten, based on the above considerations, by changing the interaction to a dialogue with a hotel clerk. Using McGrath (2002) and Harmer's (2007) suggestions, the material could be localized to the ASEAN region and unfamiliar world city names could be replaced by those of Cambodian towns. Because the objective is to demonstrate the use of superlatives, the easiest textbook activity for students to complete would be a cloze exercise where students read the transcript while listening and filling

in missing key words, mainly superlatives, from the conversation. An alternative would be for students to match the superlative with the accompanying noun, as in the exercise shown in Appendix C.

To make this revised listening activity most beneficial in a school setting, a teacher could find a colleague to record the conversation. The recording could then be saved for future use, ideally in an organized library of shared materials. However, if that is not possible, the teacher could read the rewritten conversation to the students, or students could role play the conversation themselves. Alternatively, using McGrath's (2002) ideas, the material could be personalized so that students develop their own dialogue in which they discuss their favorite cities or places. Likewise, the instructions could be simplified or changed (e.g., part of the exercise could be already done for students), so that students would be more likely to understand the purpose of the activity. Additionally, following Harmer's (2007) suggestion, the activity could be reordered so that it comes at a different part of the unit (e.g., if time permits, use the localized version of the dialogue first and then have the students study the original dialogue as a review, as suggested below).

Addressing Possible Concerns About Adaptation

One potential criticism of adapting listening material is that many students in Cambodia and other areas do not have many possibilities to hear English spoken by native speakers, so if the interview is recorded by Khmer speakers of English, the students have one less native-speaker sample. That is a fair concern, but this is where the teacher must weigh the benefit (e.g., extended focus on a key grammar point) against the negative of losing an opportunity to listen to the textbook dialogue. However, it must be remembered that virtually all commercially produced texts provide numerous opportunities for students to hear native speakers and that at least some outside exposure to native-produced language is available, even in isolated areas (e.g., through BBC, VOA, or Radio Australia Asia Pacific FM broadcasts). Another concern is that learning cultural information (e.g., about different world cities) is important in its own right as cultural exposure for students, so some teachers might not want to deprive their students of this experience. If that is the case and a teacher has time, he or she can do a localized activity first, and then use the original textbook activity for review. A third issue is that textbook adaptation can be time-consuming, but there are at least two ways to reduce that burden: (1) by collaborating with other teachers to reduce the workload and build professional camaraderie, and (2) by using student input to assist the teacher in localizing, personalizing, modernizing, and simplifying material (this approach offers students a more active,

engaging role in their learning as well). These potential problems and possible solutions are summarized below in Figure 2.

Possible Concern	Proposed Solution(s)
Reduced student exposure to native-speaker input	Continue to use other recorded native-speaker input from the textbook and other available sources (e.g., radio broadcasts or podcasts).
Reduced student exposure to new cultural information	Use the original activity as part of a review of lesson objectives.
Increased preparation time for teachers	Collaborate with other teachers in revising materials. Create a shared collection (library) of revised materials. Let students develop their own modifications to the text material (*personalizing* the activity).

Figure 2. Concerns about adaptations and solutions addressing those concerns.

Conclusion

In developing countries such as Cambodia, mastering English for effective communication in varying contexts can no longer be a "gold standard" achieved by only a few. All Cambodian teachers and learners must have a role in the development of a mutually intelligible ASEAN English. As Yano (2009) notes,

> The time will come when it will no longer matter whether you naturally acquire English in the English-speaking community; it will only matter how proficient you are in understanding others and being understood by others in English. It will not matter where you have learned the language. (p. 253)

As was noted earlier in this article, the "time" Yano refers to is already arriving in the region. Cambodian teachers and others must be willing to customize text material that has not caught up with ELT's new reality. By doing so, they will take a vital step in helping their students to join the regional and global communities of multilingual speakers who can use English successfully in their professional and personal lives.

Acknowledgment

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Appendix A
Listening Passage from a Hypothetical Textbook

Where to Go?

Charles cannot decide where to go on holiday this year, so he attends a travel fair. He talks to tourism officials from three cities sitting at a table: Mexico City, Paris, and Sydney.

Charles:	Hi, I'm interested in finding out about the most interesting places to visit in Mexico City.
Representative 1:	Well, you can visit the best sites in Mexico City. Most visitors start their tour of my city at the Zocalo, which is the biggest public square in Mexico. You'll also want to be sure to see the Fine Arts Palace. It's the most beautiful theater in Mexico City, so you don't want to miss taking a tour of the inside of the building.
Charles	That sounds like a really interesting place to visit.
Representative 1:	I think you'll like it a lot. Finally, every visitor goes to the Museum of Anthropology, which has the largest collection of ancient Mexican artifacts in the country. You could spend the whole day there. And best of all, the weather in Mexico City is great.
Charles:	Okay, thanks for the information. Is it true that tourists say that Paris is the greatest city in the world?
Representative 2:	Oh, yes, they really do say that. Everyone wants to go to the Eiffel Tower, which is the place to see the most incredible views of the city from the top. Of course, you don't want to miss the Louvre Museum, where you can find the most famous painting of all time, the Mona Lisa.
Charles:	I can't go to Paris and not see the Mona Lisa.
Representative 2:	That's for sure. However, you don't want to miss taking a boat ride on the Seine River. Then you will know why Paris is called the most romantic city in the world.

Charles: That sounds great, but I hear that Sydney is the most exciting city for young tourists.

Representative 3:   You're right, Sydney is the place to be if you're young and you love spending time outdoors. Of course, there's the world famous Sydney Harbour Bridge. The fastest guided climb up the Bridge only takes two and a half hours. Also, be sure not to miss walking around the incredible Sydney Opera House, the most unusual building in the city.

Charles: It must be great seeing the Opera House from the top of the Bridge.

Representative 3:   It certainly is. Finally, for those who love sunshine, the Sydney beaches are the most enjoyable part of being in the city. Bondi Beach, one of the best known, is also the closest to downtown. So, Sydney has something for everyone.

Charles: Well, I appreciate you telling me about your three cities. It's so hard to make a decision; I guess I'll need to visit all three places.

Appendix B
Listening Passage: Localized Version

Where to Go?

Charles is in Phnom Penh on holiday. This is his first time in Cambodia, so he is asking the hotel clerk for suggestions on places to visit in the country.

Charles:	Hi, I'm interested in finding out about the most interesting sites to visit in Cambodia.
Hotel Clerk:	Well, you can visit the most wonderful places in my country. Since you're already in Phnom Penh, you can start right here. Have you been to Wat Phnom yet?
Charles:	No, I just arrived last night. What can I see there?
Hotel Clerk:	Wat Phnom is the oldest religious site in the city. It's great and you'll love the wonderful monkeys there. The wat is very close to the river. While you're in the area, you can go down to the riverside at dusk.
Charles:	Why do people go there at that time of the day?
Hotel Clerk:	Oh, because that's when everyone goes there to walk and also do aerobic exercise. Join the biggest group of people exercising to music. They'll be having the best time.
Charles:	That sounds good. What's the most important museum that visitors go to in Phnom Penh?
Hotel Clerk:	Well, it's probably the saddest place to visit in the city, but all tourists go to Tuol Sleng, the Genocide Museum. You shouldn't miss it if you want to understand recent Cambodian history.
Charles:	Okay, and I also want to go to Angkor Wat. What's the nearest town?
Hotel Clerk:	Of course, Angkor Wat is really the most famous tourist destination in all of Cambodia. It has the largest collection of temples in Southeast Asia and is a UNESCO World Heritage Site.
Charles:	So, what town is it near?

Hotel Clerk:	It's very close to Siem Reap, and people say it has the nicest hotels and restaurants in the country. It will probably be the most exciting spot you visit in Cambodia.
Charles:	That sounds great. I was also thinking about going to the beach. Can you suggest a place?
Hotel Clerk:	There's one place everyone goes, and that's Sihanoukville. It's about 5 hours from Phnom Penh and has the most beautiful beaches in Cambodia. Sihanoukville is famous for its food and has the tastiest seafood barbecue anywhere. When you get tired of the traffic and noise of Phnom Penh, go to Sihanoukville to enjoy the freshest air around.
Charles:	Well, I appreciate you telling me about all the great places to visit in Cambodia. I'm going to have a good holiday here.

Appendix C
Listening Exercise

Matching
Listen to the conversation between Charles and the hotel clerk. Draw a line between the superlatives that you hear on the left side and the matching nouns on the right. The superlative adjectives and accompanying nouns are not listed in the order heard in the conversation.

Phnom Penh

Superlative	Noun
1. saddest	a. places
2. oldest religious	b. time
3. most important	c. sites
4. biggest	d. museum
5. best	e. site
6. most interesting	f. group
7. most wonderful	g. place

Siem Reap and Sihanoukville

Superlative	Noun
1. most famous	a. beaches
2. most beautiful	b. seafood barbecue
3. largest	c. hotels and restaurants
4. tastiest	d. spot
5. freshest	e. tourist destination
6. nicest	f. collection
7. most exciting	g. air

Follow-Up
Create a superlative sentence using the words in brackets.

_____ (Phnom Penh, crowded)

_____ (Sihanouk, beautiful)

_____ (Sihanouk, populated)

_____ (Siem Reap, old)

_____ (Phnom Penh, polluted)

Khmer Learner English:
A Teacher's Guide to Khmer L1 Interference

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Language learners who share a mother tongue (L1) typically face many similar challenges in learning the target language. Khmer speakers learning English are a case in point. Swan and Smith's (1987, 2001) classic work on "learner English" documents approximately 20 language case studies, each describing a different language and how it contrasts with English. For English teachers unfamiliar with the particular language showcased, this resource is enormously helpful. Unfortunately, Khmer is not covered in Swan and Smith's volume. The only publication directly approaching the topic of Khmer learner English is Huffman and Proum's (1983) which, though a comprehensive guide to Khmer speakers learning English, is pedagogically dated and too voluminous for a "quick guide." The present paper aims to fill the gap in the literature with an accurate, accessible overview of features of English that typically present difficulties for Khmer language speakers. It focuses on phonology, grammar, and orthography.

Review of the Literature

Before proceeding to examine specific issues that cause problems for Khmer speakers who are learning English, it is useful to survey the available literature that can inform such a study. In fact, very little work has been published in this area. Apart from Huffman and Proum's volume noted above, the Center for Applied Linguistics (1978) published a short volume providing a contrastive analysis between English and Khmer. However, this publication is not easily accessed. There are several English / Khmer dictionaries (e.g., Seam & Blake, 1991; Smyth & Kean, 1995) which provide useful lexical information, but these are not pedagogically focused. Other scholarly work of some

relevance includes Jacob's (1968) introductory Khmer language course for English speakers. There may well have been accounts of Khmer learner English written "in-house" for use at individual English language institutions in Cambodia and elsewhere, but if so, none of these is publicly available.

Overview of Khmer Language

Khmer is the official language of Cambodia and is spoken by virtually all Cambodians. Its origins lie mainly in a local language from the Mon-Khmer family and the two ancient Indian languages, Pali and Sanskrit. Words of Khmer origin are typically "root" words and are commonly found in the spoken language, whereas words of Pali and Sanskrit origin, in a Khmerized form, can be found in formal written language and literature, including poetry. Khmer has a small number of vocabulary items borrowed from Chinese, Thai, Vietnamese, French, and, most recently, English (see Keuk, 2008; Moore & Bounchan, 2010). Unlike the languages of neighbouring countries, Khmer is not a tonal language. This might explain why few Cambodian students have serious difficulty in developing intelligible English pronunciation. This exploration of Khmer learner English will focus first on phonology, followed by grammar, and lastly, orthography.

Phonology

Consonants. English has 20 alphabetic consonants (or 21, including the letter *y*), and an additional four consonant sounds consisting of combined consonants (e.g., *ch* in *teacher*). Khmer consonants are more numerous (there are 33 consonants and sub-consonants as shown in Table 1), and more complex (they make up just 21 individual distinctive phonemes as shown in Table 2). Moreover, there are three additional "invented" consonants in Khmer (see Table 3), bringing the grand total to 24 consonant sounds (i.e., about the same as in English).

Table 1

Original Consonants in Khmer

ក	យ	គ	យ	ង	ច	អ	ជ	ឈ	ញ
ក	ខ	គ	ឃ	ង	ច	ឆ	ជ	ឈ	ញ
ដ	ថ	ឌ	ឈ	ណ	ត	ថ	ទ	ធ	ន
ដ	ឋ	ឌ	ឍ	ណ	ត	ថ	ទ	ធ	ន
ប	ផ	ព	ភ	ម	យ	រ	ល	វ	ស
ប	ផ	ព	ភ	ម	យ	រ	ល	វ	ស
ហ	ឡ	អ							
ហ	ឡ	អ							

Table 2

Distinctive Phonemes in Khmer

ក	ក្ក	=	K		ខ	ឃ្យ	=	kh
ង		=	Ng		ច	ជ្ជ	=	J
ឈ	ឈ្យ	=	cʃ		ញ		=	gn
ដ	ឌ្ឋ	=	D		ថ	ថ្ន	=	th
ត	ទ្ធ	=	T		ន	ណ្ណ	=	N
ប		=	B		ធ្ម	ភ្ន	=	ph
ព		=	P		ម		=	M
យ		=	Y		រ		=	r
ល	ឡ្យ	=	L		វ		=	V
ស		=	S		ហ្ម		=	H
អ		=	A					

The three invented consonant sounds, shown in Table 3, correspond to phonemes borrowed from other languages, such as French. In fact, invented consonants use existing Khmer consonants in new combinations, hence the term "invented" rather than "borrowed."

Table 3

Invented Consonants and Sounds

ហ្វ		=	f
ហ្គ	ហ្ក	=	g
ហ្ស		=	z

Because of the differences between Khmer and English phonologies, some Khmer learners of English may have difficulty pronouncing certain English sounds. In particular, there are no sounds as follow in Khmer: ʃ [as in pleasure], ʃt [as in teacher], Θ [as in the], and ð [as in that]. Thus students may produce:

/s/ as ʃ   /z/ as ʃt   /s/ as Θ   /d/ as ð

Khmer speakers also do not instinctively voice the sound of final position consonants in words. Thus many students may drop /t/ and /d/ in *ant* and *and* respectively, and pronounce them as /an/. However, unlike Thai or Vietnamese speakers, it is rare for Khmer speakers to have any problems with pronouncing initial or medial-positioned consonant clusters, i.e., /cr/, /pl/, /sm/, and /tw/, since Khmer also has a similar system of blending consonants together.

There are 18 voiced consonants and 15 unvoiced consonants in the Khmer alphabet. The next section discusses the influence of both types of consonants on the sounds of dependent vowels.

Vowels. Depending on the dialect, English has approximately 21 vowel sounds (Yallop, 1995, p. 42), while in Khmer, there are 23 dependent vowels and 12 independent vowels (see Table 4). The sounds made by independent vowels are constant, whereas the sounds of dependent vowels vary, depending on nearby consonants being either voiced or unvoiced. For example, the vowel ◌ុ /aʊ/ when used with the voiced consonant ឌ /d/ (ឌុ), is sounded as /duː/, but with the unvoiced consonant ដ /d/ (ដុ) is sounded as /daʊ/.

Table 4

Dependent and Independent Khmer Vowels

Dependent Vowels						Independent Vowels		
ា	=	a:	ើ	=	ae	ឥ	=	e
ិ	=	e	ឹ	=	Ai	ឦ	=	ei
ី	=	ei	ៅ	=	ao	ឧ	=	u
ឹ	=	oe	ៅ	=	aow	ឩ	=	aow
ឺ	=	oe	ំ	=	om	ឫ	=	roe
ុ	=	o	ំ	=	om	ឬ	=	roe
ូ	=	o	ាំ	=	am	ឭ	=	loe
ួ	=	uo	ះ	=	ah	ឮ	=	loe
ើ	=	aoe	ុះ	=	oh	ឯ	=	ae
ឿ	=	ua	េះ	=	eh	ឰ	=	ai
ៀ	=	ie	ោះ	=	aoh	ឱ	=	ao
ើ	=	e				ឳ	=	aow

Adapted from Tonkin (1962).

Stress and intonation. Unlike English, Khmer does not have stress within individual words, partly because most Khmer words are monosyllabic. However, Khmer speakers can and do shift their pitch, stress, or tone to suit the purposes of their talk (e.g., making polite requests, showing surprise, expressing anger or sadness).

When reading aloud, Cambodian students tend to read texts with a flat intonation. As the Khmer script is written in uninterrupted strings of words, any space between two sequences of words indicates a pause. Thus Khmer speakers learning English may try to read aloud English texts in the same way they learned to read Khmer texts. In other

words, some may try to read the passage with a continuous flat intonational style, or some may try to pause at every word because of the space between each word, resulting in a "choppy" sounding reading.

Grammar

Khmer and English grammar are alike in one very important aspect – their typical word order of SVO: Subject followed by Verb, followed by Object. This shared "logic" enables even beginner language learners to make meanings in rudimentary English. However, there are many more ways in which Khmer grammar is dissimilar to English grammar. Below are nine of the most significant differences that impact on the accuracy of English produced by Khmer learners.

Plural nouns. Unlike English, Khmer does not have a distinctive plural form of nouns. Words that represent quantity (e.g., several, some, five, a few, a little) have to be added after the nouns to show the plural form:

(1) *kmeng <u>klah</u> leng knong suon* [some children play in the garden]

Sometimes the noun is repeated to show its plural form:

(2) *kmeng <u>kmeng</u> leng knong suon* [children play in the garden]

It should be noted, however, that there is no precise rule about repeating nouns, and not all nouns can be repeated to show their plural form. Generally, only one-syllable words are likely to be repeated in this manner.

Khmer learners of English also face difficulties in remembering to add *s*, *es*, or *ies* to form the plural form of regular nouns in English and to change the word forms for irregular nouns, especially in speaking. For example,

(3) *The girl are playing in the park.
(4) *Farmers live in small house.

Even with advanced learners, it is not surprising that they sometimes slip up by not changing nouns into appropriate plural forms, or that they add an *s* where it is not needed. For example,

(5) *Give me some waters, please.
(6) *She has a cats.

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* An asterisk indicates that the sentence is ungrammatical.

Pronouns and possessive pronouns. Unlike in English, in Khmer, there are no specific pronouns to show different forms of male and female or singular and plural. Context must be given or guessed at to understand who is being referred to. The common pronouns are:

- *kort* [he or she; him or her]
- *vea* [younger or more "inferior" person / people (male or female) or for animals]
- *puok kort*; *puok keh*, *puok vea* [they or them]

Cambodians normally address one another using terms to show the status and gender of the person they are referring to, e.g., father, mother, grandfather, grandmother, uncle, aunt, brother, sister (it is important to note that these terms are not necessarily for blood relatives but are rather terms of address based on age), *lork* [Mr.], *lork / neak srey* [Mrs.], *neang* [Miss or female], and *preah ang* [His Royal Highness].

Cambodian students may have difficulty or face confusion when using pronouns in English in both objective and subjective forms. Thus, when a student with limited proficiency in English uses the pronoun *he*, the student may be meaning to say *he*, *she*, *they*, *it*, *him*, *her*, or *them*. Likewise, the pronouns *I* and *me* may mean *we*, *us*, or *our* depending on the context:

(7)   My mother works at the market.
　　　*He get up early every day.
(8)   I and my brother and my sisters go to the same school.
　　　*I walk to school together.

The use of *there is* and *there are* is often troublesome for Cambodian learners of English, who usually adopt the Khmer syntax found with the usage of *me-uhn.* For example,

(9)   *On the desk it has a book. [There is a book on the desk.]
(10) *It have five people in my family.
　　　[There are five people in my family.]

Cambodian students may also add *Mr*, *Mrs*, or *Miss* to someone's first name (e.g., Mr John, Mrs Sally, Miss Carol), perhaps in an attempt to establish the person's status and gender.

To show possessive case in Khmer, the word របស់ /ro-bahs/ is positioned in front of a pronoun:

- *ro-bahs kort* for *his* or *her / hers*
- *ro-bahs preah neang* for *her / hers* (for a princess)
- *ro-bahs yeung* for *our /ours*
- *ro-bahs keh*; *ro-bahs vea* for *his*, *her / hers*, *its*, or *their / theirs*

Accordingly, Khmer learners may also face difficulties in learning to use *my* and *mine*, *its*, *their* and *theirs*, *our* and *ours*, and *her* and *hers*.

Verb forms and tenses. Khmer verb forms are constant; they do not change as English verbs do according to number and gender. This section will examine some of the significant differences between how Khmer and English verbs are formed and used.

Present simple. Cambodian learners of English may make mistakes in adding *s*, *es*, or *ies* to English verbs or in changing the verb forms for appropriate agreement in third person singular cases:

(11)   *My mother work at the market.
(12)   *He have 3 children.

Present continuous. To express a continuing action in Khmer, the word កំពុង *kampoung* or កំពុងតែ *kampong tae* is added in front of a verb. For example,

(13)   *kort kampoung tae tveur kar* [He is working.]
(14)   *yeay Chan kampoung meul touraktuos*
       [Grandma / Old woman Chan is watching television.]

Sometimes, however, the word *kampoung* is not used at all, in which case the exact meaning or tense must be derived from context. Hence, Cambodian students may make mistakes in using the present simple form to express continuous tenses:

(15)   Look! *She come(s) to us.

Or they may remember to use the *-ing* form, but may not use an auxiliary verb with it:

(16)   Look! *She coming to us.

Past tense. To express that something happened or had happened in the past in Khmer, the word បាន *barn* is added in front of a verb:

(17) *kort barn touv leng Sydney bei dang huey*
      [He has been to Sydney three times.]
(18) *kjom barn touv Siem Reap kal pi chnam touv*
      [I went to Siem Reap last year.]

However, most of the time, especially in speaking, the word *barn* is not in fact used only context clues and time references can identify when the action happens. Thus, Cambodian students are known to make grammatical mistakes by not changing verb forms in affirmative statements for appropriate past tenses, especially with irregular verbs:

(19) *I see him yesterday.
(20) *We went shopping and buy some shirts.
(21) *He bring a lot of fruits when he came to see us.

Future tense. Like the word *will* in English, the word និង *nueng* in

Khmer is added in front of a verb to express an action that happens in the future:

(22) *kjom nueng touv leng kort knong pel chahb chahb nihs*
      [I will / I am going to visit him soon.]
(23) *kort nueng min vil mork vign teh* [He will not come back.]

However, Cambodians normally tend to omit the word *nueng* and just use the verb to say what they will or are going to do by adding a time reference or a time frame in which they are going to do the action. Thus, common mistakes made by Cambodian students when they try to express future action or future plans can be:

(24) *I do my homework soon.
(25) *I finish my study next year.
(26) *After I pass the English test, I apply for a scholarship to study overseas.
(27) Look at all those dark clouds. *It rain soon.

Auxiliary and copula verbs. Unlike English, Khmer does not use auxiliary verbs to form questions or copula verbs to link nouns with

adjectives. With questions, either the word តើ *teu* is added at the

beginning of a sentence or phrase to form the question, or the speaker may simply use a rising intonation at the end of a declarative phrase to indicate a question is being asked:

(28) *teu lork chmoh ey?* Or, just *lork chmoh ey?* [What is your name?]
Direct translation: *teu* (question word) you (for a man)
name what?

As a result, Cambodian learners may not use copula or auxiliary verbs
to form questions in English:

(29) *What that?
(30) *How you use this word?
(31) *Why she not come to school?

Moreover, there may be inappropriate or incorrect word order in
question construction:

(32) *She said what? (for: What did she say?)
(33) *Why he didn't like that book? (for: Why didn't he like
that book?)

Adjectives are used directly after nouns in Khmer. For example,

(34) *kmeng l'ar* [good child / children] Direct translation: child /
children good
(35) *neang nouhs s'art nahs* [That girl / woman / female is so
beautiful.] Direct translation: girl / woman / female that
beautiful so

This feature of Khmer often results in Cambodian students
omitting copula verbs in sentence construction in their English:

(36) *The tree so tall. (The person may mean "The trees are so
tall.")

Adverbs. Normally in Khmer, an adjective is placed after a verb to
create an adverb. However, in addition to this, sometimes a special

word, យ៉ាង *yang*, is added between the verb and adjective to emphasize

the adverb (*deur yang yuert* [walk slowly]). Sometimes the adjective is
repeated to similarly emphasize the adverb use (*deur yuert yuert* [walk
slowly]). As a result, some Cambodian students may transfer this
grammatical knowledge of adverb formation to English. For example,
they may say something like this:

(37) *I speak slow slow, but she still can't understand me.

Adjectives.   As mentioned above, adjectives are normally placed after nouns, except in formal writing, literature, or poetry when used with words borrowed from Pali or Sanskrit.   In the latter case, adjectives that describe the state of a noun are placed before the noun. For example,

(38) *oudam pheakriyea* [super wife]
(39) *kompool borohs* [super man] Direct translation: top man

Sometimes the adjective is repeated to emphasize its meaning, or to show the plural form of noun that it describes. For example,

(40) *orkun jreun jreun* [thanks so much]
(41) *kmeng tauj tauj* [small / little children]
(42) *arkea kpuohs kpuohs* [tall buildings]

Cambodian learners may transfer this knowledge into English, and thus end up saying something like:

(43) *It same same, sir. (When the speaker may mean to say "They are exactly the same, sir.")
(44) *I have only small small money. [I only have a little bit of money.]

Comparisons with adjectives. In Khmer, when an adjective is used to compare something, the word ជាង *jeang* is used after the adjective. For example,

(45) *l'ar jeang* [better]
(46) *s'art jeang* [more beautiful]
(47) *teab jeang* [shorter]

Since *jeang* is similar to *more* in English, Cambodian students may overgeneralise the use of *more* to express comparison instead of changing the word to *-er* form. Thus they may say, for example,

(48) *more strong (instead of "stronger")
(49) *more fast (instead of "faster")

Or they may use *more* and *-er* at the same time:

(50) *more bigger
(51) *more poorer
(52) *more better

Articles and prepositions.   Unlike in English, there is no article use in Khmer. Thus, Cambodian students are likely to struggle with the appropriate use of the article *the*, either omitting it or using it where it is not necessary. Similarly, they may also struggle with the correct use of prepositions as a result of the direct transfer of prepositions used in Khmer:

(53) *jealous with
(54) *interested with
(55) *stay on bed
(56) *married with

Subordinate clauses. Khmer speakers commonly use subordinate clauses inappropriately in English. For example, they may use a subordinate clause as a sentence:

(57) He can't come to school. *Because / Cause he is sick.

They may incorrectly use *but* to show contrasting ideas and *therefore* to show cause and effect:

(58) *Although he is sick, but he still come to school.
(59) *Since he wanted to be a lawyer, therefore he went to law
     school.

Khmer speakers might not use a comma to separate a main clause from a subordinate clause:

(60) *If I were rich I'd buy you a big house.

They might use *on the other hand* in place of *but*:

(61) *Driving fast is fun, on the other hand it can be very
     dangerous.

Responding "yes" when meaning "no." Khmer-speaking learners of English may reply "Yes" to most questions directed to them, even when they may actually mean "No." The explanation for this practice is that *yes* in Khmer can convey additional meanings to *yes* in English. For

example, it may mean *I hear you*, *I'm with you*, *I agree with you*, or *That's right*. Some examples of this use of *yes* are:

(62) A: Would you mind if I opened the window?
    B: Yes. (What the person may mean is "No, I wouldn't mind at all. Go ahead and open the window.")
(63) A: You don't have any questions, do you?
    B: Yes. (No, I don't have any questions.)
(64) A: This car isn't bad.
    B: Yes. (I agree with you. It isn't bad at all.)

Orthography

As noted in Nakanishi (1980), Khmer language is horizontally written in a form of alphabetic script, from left to right. Words are normally strung together continuously without any spaces between in

a clause or sentence structure. A full stop or period (។) indicates a

complete idea in a sentence. A space is used to indicate a break of ideas or connection to another idea (i.e., in a clause or phrase), or is used in place of a comma (i.e., in a list). This practice may result in some students constructing run-on sentences in English, where the whole paragraph contains only one full stop. Khmer writing is quite complicated because, as seen in the phonology section above, there are both consonants and sub-consonants in use. In fact, there are three levels of writing formation (see Table 5): an upper level for upper vowels and special punctuation, a middle level for middle vowels and consonants, and a lower level for lower vowels and sub-consonants.

Table 5

Examples of Three Levels of Writing Formation in Khmer

កណ្ដឹង /kɒndəŋ/ (bell)	Consonants: ក ណ ង
	Sub-consonant: ្ឌ
	Vowel:
កន្ទេល /kɒnteil/ (mat)	Consonants: ក ន ល
	Sub-consonant: ្ទ
	Vowel: េ
កន្ត្រៃ /kɒntrai/ (scissors)	Consonants: ក ន
	Sub-consonants: ្ត ្រ
	Vowel: ៃ
កណ្ដូប /kɒndaʊb/ (grasshopper)	Consonants: ក ណ ប
	Sub-consonant: ្ដ
	Vowel: ូ

Although there are rules in spelling Khmer which correspond to Khmer phonology, there are also numerous exceptions. Thus, competent writers of Khmer tend to feel very proud of their command of the language's complicated orthographic system.

Some Implications for Teachers

While the features of Khmer learner English are of interest from a linguistics perspective, they are most useful in a practical sense if English language teachers have some idea of how to put this knowledge into practice in their classrooms. We offer here a few ideas which we feel would be useful to teachers, but we expect that their own engagement with the topic would lead them to develop their own teaching applications specific to their particular teaching contexts. In terms of phonology, we suggest that teachers focus on developing reception and production activities that highlight consonant sounds in English which do not exist in Khmer: ʃ (as in plea<u>s</u>ure); ʃt (as in tea<u>ch</u>er); Ɵ (as in <u>th</u>e); and ð (as in <u>th</u>at). In addition, final position

consonant pronunciation activities would be very helpful to Khmer-speaking learners of English. Any of the grammar points discussed in this paper could be the focus of grammar practice activities. A contrastive approach between the way Khmer and English grammatical systems deal with the same grammatical issue would be particularly helpful, but would need to be followed up with extensive practice activities to be most effective. Our suggestions concerning orthography are that teachers should focus on helping their students develop an ability to accurately write short sentences. Only when that achievement has been reached should longer, more complex sentences be learned and practised. Punctuation and capitalisation should also be highlighted as a significant feature of meaning making in written English, more so than in Khmer.

Conclusion

This paper has provided an overview of some of the key aspects in which the Khmer and English languages differ. The account provided is not meant to be comprehensive — indeed such an account would need to be book length and extend to covering topics not dealt with here, such as Khmer morphology and discourse – but it has tried to strike a balance between highlighting differences in the key areas of phonology, grammar, and orthography on the one hand, and providing a quick and accessible guide to teachers of English who are unfamiliar with native Khmer speaking background students on the other. The paper thus represents a useful starting point for English teachers new to teaching Cambodians, and one that can be built upon as these teachers gain direct experience with Khmer-background speakers in their language classes or develop their own proficiency in Khmer. Indeed, as Medgyes (1992) argues, the best native-speaker English teachers are those whose proficiency in the L1 of their learners is greatest. This paper has offered guidance on the first steps of this journey.

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